

**THE EFFECTS OF VISIBILITY  
IN INTERACTION  
ON THE USE OF  
COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES  
(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)**

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**THE EFFECTS OF VISIBILITY IN INTERACTION  
ON THE USE OF  
COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES**

**MA THESIS**

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## ABSTRACT

The present study primarily investigated the use of communication strategies employed by learners of English as a foreign language. Factors affecting the use of communication strategies such as visibility in interaction and proficiency level were also examined.

This study was conducted at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University with the 1<sup>st</sup> and the 4<sup>th</sup> grade students at the department of English Language Teaching. An interaction-based experimental study design was carried out which was accompanied by stimulated interview. 34 students participated in the study in 17 pairs, each of which consisted of one story teller and one interlocutor. Participants were divided into two groups as high and low proficient students regarding their grades at the department. Story tellers were asked to watch two silent movies and retell it to their interlocutors in both visible and invisible conditions. A panel was placed between speakers to create an invisible condition where participants could not observe the body language of their interlocutor. The data collection process was videotaped and the language output of each pair was transcribed.

Content analysis revealed 32 different types of strategies of which the most frequent was *use of fillers*, *self repair*, and *self repetition*. Further statistical analysis indicated that students may need visual support during conversation. The statistical analysis also indicated that the proficiency level of students influences the use of some communication strategies, such as *literal translation*, *message reduction* and *topic avoidance*. It was observed that these communication strategies were employed by low proficiency students more frequently than high proficiency students. This implied that low proficiency students tend to reduce or give up the intended message, or switch to their mother tongue, when they get stuck in a conversation.

This study concludes that students of English Language Teaching Department use a variety of communication strategies. Additionally, it is observed that the methodology used allows the investigation of strategies in real life interaction. It is

also revealed that visibility in interaction affects the number of communication strategies employed in the conversation. In addition, it is concluded that the proficiency level of speakers affects the use of some communication strategies.

## ÖZET

Bu çalışma öncelikle İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenlerin kullandıkları iletişim stratejilerini araştırmaktadır. Bununla birlikte iletişim stratejilerinin kullanımını etkileyebilecek faktörler olan etkileşimde görselliğin ve dilde yeterlilik seviyesinin etkisi de incelenmiştir.

Bu çalışma Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi 1. ve 4. sınıf öğrencileriyle gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ardıl görüşmeyle desteklenen etkileşim-odaklı deneysel bir çalışma yapılmıştır. Çalışmaya, hikaye anlatıcısı ve dinleyicisinden oluşan 17 çift, toplam 34 öğrenci katılmıştır. Katılımcıların bölümdeki sınıfları göz önüne alınarak yüksek ve düşük seviyeli iki grup oluşturulmuştur. Hikaye anlatıcısı olan katılımcılar iki sessiz film izleyip sonrasında bu filmleri dinleyicilere birbirlerini görebildikleri ve göremedikleri ortamlarda aktarması istenmiştir. Konuşmacıların birbirlerini göremedikleri ortamı oluşturmak için konuşmacıların arasına bir pano yerleştirilmiştir. Veri toplama süreci videoya kaydedilmiş, her bir çiftin konuşmaları kodlanmıştır.

Çalışmada uygulanan içerik çözümlemesi, en çok kullanılan iletişim stratejilerinin *söze dolgu yapmak*, *öz tamir*, ve *öz tekrar* olduğunu belirtmekle birlikte katılımcıların toplam 32 farklı iletişim stratejisi kullanıldığını ortaya koymuştur. Yapılan istatistiksel analiz, öğrencilerin iletişim sürecinde birbirlerini görme ihtiyacı içerisinde bulduklarını göstermiştir. Yapılan istatistiksel çalışma ayrıca dil yeterlilik seviyesinin *anadilden aktarım*, *ileti azaltma* ve *konudan kaçınma* gibi bazı stratejilerin kullanımını etkilediğini göstermektedir. Bu iletişim stratejilerinin daha çok düşük yeterlilik seviyesine sahip olan öğrenciler tarafından kullanıldığı saptanmıştır. Bu sonuç, düşük yeterlilik seviyesine sahip olan öğrencilerin iletişim sürecinde bir zorlukla karşılaştıkları zaman hedefledikleri mesajı azalttıklarını, mesajı iletmekten vazgeçtiklerini ya da anadillerine aktardıklarını göstermektedir.

Bu çalışma, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğrencilerinin iletişim stratejilerini kullandıklarını göstermiştir. Öte yandan, çalışmada kullanılan araştırma yönteminin gerçek hayat etkileşimi sağlayarak iletişim stratejilerinin kullanımını araştırmak için uygun olduğu saptanmıştır. Buna ek olarak, etkileşim sürecinde görselliğin kullanılan iletişim stratejilerinin sayısını etkilediği sonucuna varılmıştır. Ayrıca, konuşmacının dil yeterliliğinin bazı iletişim stratejilerinin kullanımını etkilediği görülmüştür.

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**ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>EFL</b>	<b>English as a Foreign Language</b>
<b>ELT</b>	<b>English Language Teaching</b>
<b>RQ</b>	<b>Research Question</b>
<b>SPSS</b>	<b>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</b>
<b>CSs</b>	<b>Communication strategies</b>
<b>D</b>	<b>Direct Strategies</b>
<b>ID</b>	<b>Indirect Strategies</b>
<b>INT</b>	<b>Interactional Strategies</b>
<b>RD</b>	<b>Resource deficit-related strategies</b>
<b>OWP</b>	<b>Own performance problem-related strategies</b>
<b>OP</b>	<b>Other performance problem-related strategies</b>
<b>TP</b>	<b>Processing time pressure-related strategies</b>

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TO  
MY PARENTS *AYHAN* AND *HATİCE*  
&  
MY SISTER *CEYDA*

## **CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION**

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter starts with a brief discussion of some basic literature regarding communicative competence and communication strategies, followed by the purpose of the study, research questions, and hypotheses. Then, the assumptions and limitations of the study are introduced. Finally, this chapter outlines the organisation of the thesis.

### **1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

One of the determinative factors of deciding how to teach a foreign language is the perception of what it is to know a language. This perception has an effect on the whole teaching procedure since this process is modified with the aim of fulfilling the objective of educating learners who know the language. Richards and Rodgers highlight this relation between the perception of proficient learner and teaching procedure by stating that “changes in language teaching methods throughout history have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners need” (1986: 1).

As a result of this determinative role, many different views on how to teach a foreign language have occurred regarding their acceptance of what it is to know a language. In 1980s, language was used as a tool for translating literary texts (Richards and Rodgers) and learners did not need to speak or listen in the target language. Consequently, the language teaching process was designed to develop learners’ translation ability.

In 1965, Chomsky proposed Linguistic Competence as the basis of knowing a language by focusing on the grammatical rules of the target language. Chomsky's view of linguistic theory is primarily concerned with "an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogenous speech community, who knows its language perfectly..." (1965: 3, cited in Yarmohammadi and Seif 1992).

However, toward the twentieth century, increased opportunities for communication among people to use different languages created a demand for learning language communicatively (Richards and Rodgers 1986). This demand gave rise to the need for acquiring different abilities such as speaking and listening in learning a foreign language. This new aspect of knowing a language was highlighted in Hymes' "Communicative Competence" (1973) which was proposed as a consequence of the inadequacy of Chomsky's "Linguistic Competence" in terms of its representing the characteristics of knowing a language.

Believing that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (1972: 273), Hymes suggested that there are various sub skills that are to be acquired in learning a language. He proposed three competencies as *grammatical competence*, *sociolinguistic competence* and *discourse competence*.

Concerning Chomsky's linguistic competence, in grammatical competence, Hymes referred to the knowledge of grammatical structures of the target language including its vocabularies, word formation, spelling, pronunciation, linguistic semantics (Hedge 2000).

On the other hand, by presenting sociolinguistic competence, Hymes highlights the role of language as the representative of its own social context. According to Hymes, in knowing a language, learners should have the knowledge of "when to speak, when not, what to talk about with whom, when, where and in what manner" (Hymes 1972: 277).

Discourse competence refers to learners' ability to maintain conversation by using different skills as "initiating, entering, interrupting, checking, and confirming" (Hedge 2000). Hymes claims that besides knowing the grammatical rules and vocabularies of the target language, learners should learn how to continue a conversation and how to develop a topic in the target language.

Chomsky's linguistic competence and Hymes' communication competence focus on the grammatical correctness and social appropriateness of the target language (Yarmohammadi and Seif 1992). But according to Canale and Swain (1980), none of these theories take into consideration the communication strategies which are employed by language users with the aim of coping with communication problems arising in the flow of communication. Therefore, they suggest "strategic competence" as the new pattern that should also be integrated into linguistic theory.

Subsequently, communication strategies (CSs) gained importance since they were considered as the only way to cope with communication problems. Many studies have been carried out to investigate the nature of communication strategies. Initially, as stated by Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992), research on CSs has been predominated by studies concerned with the identification and classification of CSs.

Accordingly, in consequence of focusing on different aspects of communication strategies, different taxonomies have been proposed by different scientists such as Faerch and Kasper (1983a), Tarone (1980), Canale (1983), and Dörnyei (1995) with the aim of classifying communication strategies.

In addition to the studies carried out with the purpose of identification and classification of CSs, different studies have been performed to explore the nature of CSs. Faerch and Kasper (1983) make a collection of significant issues of CSs by containing newly investigated topics (Bialystok, 1983; Faerch and Kasper, 1983a; Haastrop and Phillipson, 1983; Wagner, 1983).

These studies focused on the effectiveness of CSs in different contexts and their nature in terms of factors affecting their use. In her research study, Bialystok (1983) aimed to investigate the factors affecting the use of CSs by attempting to answer the question “who uses which strategy when and with what effect” (Faerch and Kasper, 1983: 75). By highlighting the effectiveness of L2 based strategies, she concluded that the best strategy user is one who can combine L2 proficiency with the ability for flexible strategy selection. Another study was carried out by Haastrup and Phillipson (1983). They investigated the nature of achievement strategies in learner/native speaker interaction. Similar to Bialystok’s findings, this study also illustrated the effectiveness of Interlanguage-based strategies concerning their role in establishing rapport when compared with L1-based strategies. Another study related to the factors affecting the use of CSs was conducted by Gullberg (2006). She investigated the role of over-explicit maintained references in L2 speech and gesture on the use of communication strategies. She also used an interaction-based experimental study design in which participants were expected to retell a story to their interlocutors in visible and invisible conditions. On the basis of her statistical analysis, Gullberg pointed out that visibility condition did not have an effect on L2 speech and the presence of gestures in L2 does not rely on the visible access of the addressee.

In our country, research studies were conducted with the aim of exploring the factors affecting the use of CSs. By presenting different tasks, researchers tried to control variables that affect the use of CSs and explore factors affecting this use. Although different studies carried out to investigate the effect of proficiency level of speakers on their use of CSs, no study has been conducted to see the effects of visibility and proficiency level on the use of CSs.

In so doing, this study will contribute to the field by presenting results regarding learners’ use of CSs in visible and invisible interaction. Therefore, this study will demonstrate whether observing speakers’ body language is a factor affecting the use of CSs or not which will contribute to understanding the nature of CSs.

## 1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Knowing a language requires the ability to speak the language (Nunan 1999). Therefore, it is vital for a language learner to develop communication skills in the target language. However, this process is rather challenging for a language learner since it necessitates coping with different skills which represent the nature of communication skills.

Having communication strategy skills is one of the aspects of using the language communicatively because it is not possible to communicate without using a communication strategy. This fact results from the complex nature of communication as it is really challenging to maintain a conversation without getting stuck. This problem is overcome by using communication strategies.

In this study, the nature of communication strategies in terms of their use by different speakers in different conditions is investigated. It is intended to see whether there is significant variation concerning employed strategies by learners of different proficiency levels. Additionally, by referring to the role of body language in the process of communication, this study aims to explore whether the use of communication strategies varies in accordance with the visibility condition in the process of interaction.

The research questions addressed are as follows.

***RQ1** - What communication strategies are used?*

***RQ2** - Does presence of visible aids influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3a** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in visible condition?*

***RQ3b** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in invisible condition?*

### **1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The chief objective of the study is to explore the communication strategies used by learners of English. The other aim of the study is to find out the effects of a speaker's proficiency level on her/his use of communication strategies. Additionally, the effects of visibility on the use of communication strategies will be investigated. In other words, this study will try to identify which communication strategies are used in visible and invisible conditions where speakers can or cannot observe the interlocutor's body language.

This study does not aim to investigate learners' perceptions about their use of communication strategies. Therefore, rather than administering a questionnaire, participants were asked to deal with a task which they tried to overcome in an interactive environment.

This study will therefore help both learners and teachers of foreign languages in understanding the process of using communication strategies. By presenting the comparison between low and highly proficient learners, it will provide the correlation between the use of communication strategies and the level of proficiency. Thanks to this, whether or not developing the proficiency level of a language affects the use of communication strategies while communicating in that language will be identified. This will facilitate teachers of English to understand students' lacks and needs in employing CSs. Thanks to this, they will be knowledgeable about students' ability to use particular CSs in relation to their proficiency levels and this will help them to design language teaching programmes with regards to students' use of CSs. This will lead to a more efficient language teaching procedure which considers ways to improve weaknesses and respond to the needs of learners in terms of their use of CSs.

One of the other important subjects that the study deals with is the effect of visibility on the use of communication strategies. Communication strategies that are employed in visible and invisible conditions will be analyzed with the aim of



illustrating whether there is significant variation in terms of the frequency of communication strategies used. The findings of the study will guide learners and teachers of foreign languages to understand the function of body language in the process of communicating. Namely, this study will demonstrate whether students' observation of the speakers' body language affects their need for using CSs. This will guide teachers of English to comprehend the role of body language on students' ability to express themselves in the light of the fact that students use CSs when they are stuck in the flow of communication.

#### **1.4 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY**

The participants of the study are assumed not to be biased and have taken part willingly in the study since they signed a consent form which indicates that they would participate in the study willingly.

The interlocutors and highly proficient students of the story telling process are thought to be about the same proficiency level since they were all 4<sup>th</sup> grade students. Regarding the opinions of the lecturers about their oral communication skills, participants were thought to be proficient enough to control the flow of communication by asking questions and helping the speaker.

The low proficiency students were considered to have a similar proficiency since they were selected according to their mid-term and final exam results of Oral Communication Skills I course.

## **1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Although the findings of the study are expected to introduce new perspectives and present new directions for further studies, there were a number of limitations in the study.

First of all, this study was conducted at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department, where a great number of the students consisted of females. Therefore, it was not possible to form groups which include homogenous male and female participants. So, all the participants were chosen among female students in order to achieve homogenous groups.

Since the process involves a re-telling task of two silent movies, story tellers may have difficulty in recalling the events of those films.

The participants were considered as upper-intermediate and advanced learners of English. Therefore, it is not possible to generalise the findings of the study to beginners or intermediate learners.

It is probable for high and low proficient participants to be less competent in terms of speaking skills and expressing themselves. Therefore, participants who were considered high and low level may have higher or lower proficiency in oral communication skills since re-telling a story requires different sub-skills such as self-confidence and the ability to be expressive.

## **1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS**

This thesis has been organized into six chapters. Chapter One provides a brief review of literature about *history and use of communication strategies*. It then proposes the research questions of the study. Further, the assumptions and limitations

of the study are included in the first chapter. Finally, this chapter describes the organisation of the thesis.

Chapter Two discusses *Communication and Communicative Competence* in detail. The definitions of communication and types of communication are presented by referring to different aspects of each type of communication. Afterwards, the nature of communication competence is discussed in its historical perspective with the aim of presenting a rationale for the crucial role of communication strategies in learning a foreign language.

Chapter Three discusses *learning and communication strategies*. After presenting the definition of learning strategies, their features and classification are presented. This chapter also deals with the nature of communication strategies. Different approaches to conceptualising communication strategies and their classifications are discussed with reference to the studies carried out to explore their features.

Chapter Four reports on the methodology of the study. The rationale for using particular data collection methods is explained in relation to their functions. The types of the experiments, the procedure for the preparation of the experiments, elements in the experiments such as setting, participants, materials and instrumentation etc. are described.

Chapter Five points out the findings of the experiments with the aim of finding answers for each research question.

Chapter Six aims to draw conclusions through the findings. Implications and suggestions for further research are proposed.

## **1.7. SUMMARY**

In this chapter, some basic arguments for the study of communicative competence and communication strategies were introduced. The purposes of the study and research questions were pointed out. Afterwards, the assumptions and limitations of the study were illustrated. Finally, the organisation of the thesis was submitted.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **COMMUNICATION AND COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

#### **2.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter aims to summarize the definition of *communication* by discussing aspects of communication such as its process and its goals. Afterwards, the characteristics of verbal and nonverbal communication will be reviewed. The types of non-verbal communication and gestures will be summarized by highlighting their role in the communication process.

#### **2.1. THE DEFINITION OF COMMUNICATION**

As language is studied in order to be able to communicate through that language, the term ‘communication’ has been one of the most investigated issues in the field of language teaching. With the aim of making implications for both learners and teachers of languages, linguists have tried to clarify the aspects of communication. They have tried to define communication, identify its goals, present models, and explain its process. However, when the outcomes of these research studies are investigated, it is seen that there are different views about these terms, which may be accepted as a result of the complicated nature of communication.

In general, communication can be defined as “the process of sharing ideas, information and messages with others in a particular time and place” (Tuncay, 2003: 36). However, this sharing process is so complex that it is determined by various factors. This complexity is a result of the nature of communication as it not only includes the natural, biological and symbolically structured aspects but also the feedback process where manipulation is made by the receiver (Buck and VanLear 2002). A corollary of the feedback aspect of communication is that it is not wise to regard receivers as passive agents in the communication process. To the contrary,

receivers play a crucial role in the process of communication by manipulating the message sent by the sender in relation to their beliefs, attitudes, age, and gender, etc. This manipulation determines the effectiveness of communication between the message sent by the sender and the message manipulated by the receiver.

In other words, it is crucial to take into account the role of the receiver in communication. On the subject of the main goal of communication, the sender's intention of being accepted by the receiver, it is apparent that characteristics of both sender and receiver play a crucial role in fulfilling that goal. The sender sends a message and the way s/he sends that particular message determines the comprehension of that message by the receiver. This is because the perception of a message is affected by various factors such as environment, background experience and the attitudes of both sender and receiver. In other words, in relation to Chastain's views (1980), the receiver recreates the message that is sent by the sender relative to his/her own personal characteristics, background experiences, attitudes towards sender, etc.

Therefore, in order to see whether his/her message is understood accurately by the receiver, the sender tries to get feedback from the receiver (Buck and VanLear 2002). Here, the aim is to see whether the recreation of the receiver is relevant to sender's intention. In doing so, both sender and receiver use different techniques, which are called "communication strategies", such as asking questions, observing the interlocutor's gestures or body language, and so on, in order to check the appropriateness of the flow of communication (Cook 2001).

The explanations summarized above clarify the complexity of communication because a number of factors may affect the flow of communication. However, communication should be investigated separately, as verbal and nonverbal communication, since each type of communication has dissimilar features.

### **2.1.1. VERBAL AND NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION**

Although closely interrelated, verbal and nonverbal communication have distinct features. While verbal communication is about using words, nonverbal communication includes various behaviours carried out by both sender and receiver. According to Bucker and Van Lear (2002), verbal communication includes generative transformational rules [which are related to the language used by speaker]. On the other hand, nonverbal communication is beyond the rules of the language and it functions as the facilitator of the verbal acts employed by both sender and receiver. Nonverbal communication or “communicating without words” (Miller 2005:28) has been defined by Kellerman (1992) as communicating with the interlocutor by both movements, head nods, hand-arm gestures, facial expressions, eye gaze, posture and interpersonal distance.

Many research studies have been carried out to investigate the role of non-verbal communication in the communication process, such as Darn (2005), Keidar (2005) and Miller. The results of these studies indicate that non-verbal communication is more determinative than verbal communication in terms of reaching the goal of communication. On the basis of his statistical analysis, Miller supports the claim of some experts that while seven percent of a message is sent by using words, ninety-three percent is sent through body language such as facial expression and vocal intonation. Such arguments indicate the vital role of nonverbal communication in the process of communication.

Nonverbal communication is often considered as the facilitator of verbal communication. According to Keidar, this facilitation stems from the fact that nonverbal communication is the indicator of the emotions of speakers. Keidar (2005: 8) supports this idea by stating that “every movement of the body has an emotional and conceptual significance which reveals the working of a man’s soul”. Additionally, she asserts that:

“Behavioural movements express and betray a number of characteristics which include self-confidence or its lack, determination or hesitation, high or low self-esteem, intimacy or estrangement, empathy or antipathy, mental agility or sluggishness, happiness or sadness, involvement or disconnection, appreciation or derision”.

Keidar (2005:10)

In other words, it is clear that through non-verbal communication, one can create either a negative or positive impression towards the interlocutor since non-verbal communication is considered as the concrete outcome of one's emotions. It is the same for classroom communication. No matter how efficiently a teacher uses verbal communication, it would be worthless if s/he cannot support it with his/her body language. Keidar considers the classroom setting as a stage on which a teacher can play and s/he can create either strong or weak impressions towards students as a result of the efficiency of his/her body language. According to her, through his/her body language, a teacher can obtain the involvement of students or lose their interest. Therefore, by using their body language effectively, teachers are advised to try to get learners' attention. Otherwise, unless they use their body language effectively, no matter how talented they are in their verbal language, it will be impossible for learners to concentrate on topics told by the teacher.

### **2.1.2 TYPES OF NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION**

Due to the fact that non-verbal communication has such a crucial role in communication in that it affects the process dramatically, many studies have been undertaken to investigate the nature of non-verbal communication, such as Darn (2005), Keidar and Miller (2005). Some of these studies deal with identifying the types of nonverbal communication. Darn and Keidar have proposed different classifications in categorizing the types of nonverbal communication. Despite their similarities, there are many points of difference. Darn illustrates a relatively simple classification as in Figure 1 :



*Figure 1: Types of Nonverbal Communication (No page number)*

<b>Kinesics</b>	body motions (blushes, shrugs, eye movement, foot-tapping, drumming fingers)
<b>Proxemics</b>	spatial separation (in relation to both the social and physical environment)
<b>Haptics</b>	Touch
<b>Oculesics</b>	eye contact
<b>Chronemics</b>	use of time, waiting, pausing
<b>Olfactics</b>	Smell
<b>Vocalics</b>	tone of voice, timbre, volume, speed
<b>Sound Symbols</b>	grunting, mmm, er, ah, uh-huh, mumbling,
<b>Silence</b>	absence of sound (muteness, stillness, secrecy)
<b>Adornment</b>	clothing, jewellery, hairstyle
<b>Posture</b>	position of the body (characteristic or assumed)
<b>Locomotion</b>	walking, running, staggering, limping
<b>Expression</b>	frowns, grimaces, smirks, smiles, pouting

Although there are many similarities between Keidar's (2005) and Darn's (2005) classification, such as kinesics, touch, facial expressions, and eye contact, Keidar considers vocal components such as speed of speech, accent, high or low pitch, modulation, rhythm, natural impact clarity, and speech impediments as different types of non-verbal communication. She discusses the characteristics of these vocal components under the heading of 'paralinguistics'. Additionally, she also sees environmental communication as a component of nonverbal communication. She claims that environmental factors such as lighting, architecture, acoustics, and atmosphere also influence the flow of communication.

### 2.1.3 GESTURES

Gestures are considered one of the most important factors that affect the process of communication. Gestures are defined as movements which are carried out by speakers unwittingly as they speak and strongly and systematically associated with language and speech (Gullberg 2006). According to Goldin-Meadow et al. (1999), gestures are tools not only for listeners but also for speakers. He claims that

with the help of gestures, speakers can think about the message in order to understand it better.

Gestures are also helpful for not only the speaker's but also the listener's memory. Cassell, McNeill, and McCullough highlight this role of gesture by stating that gestures facilitate recall of sentences and utterances from memory and they also help listeners to comprehend the spoken message (Cassell, McNeill and McCullough 1999).

Different studies have been carried out to investigate the effect of gestures in mutual understanding and they all show that gestures contribute to the flow of communication. Krauss (1998) asserted the function of a gesture as a facilitator of what a speaker intends to say. Cabrare and Martinez (2001) conducted a research study in an EFL class at a primary school in Mexico with the aim of exploring the effects of visible gestures on listening comprehension. They concluded a positive relationship between visible gestures and students' comprehension.

All the results of these studies indicate that gestures play a crucial role in receivers' understanding the messages sent by the sender. Since they are considered as the outcome of the emotions of speakers, one can understand the intention of a speaker by looking at his/her gestures (Keidar 2005). Therefore, it is very significant for teachers to be aware of this function of gestures and try to control their gestures so as to strengthen the effectiveness of messages they send to learners.

## **2.2. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

### **2.2.1. CHOMSKY'S COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE THEORY**

Since the main objective of any language teaching process is to educate learners to know the target language, they are designed with the aim of fulfilling that objective. However, although this main objective remains constant throughout history, the content of procedures to reach that objective has varied considerably. This variation stems from changes in the perception of knowing a language (Richards and Rodgers 1986).

In the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, foreign language learners did activities that would help them to make translations, since knowing a language was considered as being able to translate that language. Therefore, language teaching procedures were designed by focusing on activities that would facilitate learners in developing their translation ability (Richards and Rodgers). However, by the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, one who could translate the texts of a target language was not considered as someone who knew that language. To the contrary, learners of foreign languages then and now are expected to be able to communicate through that language since “the ability to communicate effectively in English is now a well-established goal in ELT” (Hedge 2000).

The distinctions of the understanding of knowing a language depend on defining the terms *competence* and *performance*, since the conception of these two terms determine what it means to know a language (Chomsky 1965). Chomsky is one of the most influential linguists who have studied what it means to know a language by making the distinction between competence and performance. Chomsky defines the person who knows a language as a person who has learned a language acquired a system of rules that relate sound and meaning in a certain specific way. In parallel to this idea, he defines *competence* as “the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of the

language”. In defining *performance*, he asserts that it is “the actual use of the language in concrete situations” (Chomsky, 1965: 4).

Many linguists criticised these views in terms of considering language solely as a set of grammatical rules. They claim that knowing or performing a language requires complex abilities that are determined by various factors. Campbell and Wales (1970) point out that Chomsky’s *competence* omits the most important linguistic ability, which they call “appropriateness to the context”. They claim that appropriateness to the text is more important than being grammatical in understanding utterances. Habermas (1970), on the other hand, criticises Chomsky in terms of his ignoring different dimensions of communication and his conception of competence as a monological capability. In supporting the idea of considering communication as a complex process, Habermas emphasizes the complex nature of the communication process in terms of the competences that speakers’ need to develop. He claims that, besides linguistic competence, speakers must also have basic qualifications of speech and role-behaviour so as to participate in normal discourse.

While Chomsky (1965) accepts competence as the generative options of a language system, Hymes (1972) expands the scope of competence by including the social and cultural norms of the target language. Furthermore, Hymes criticizes Chomsky’s categorization by claiming that he ignores sociocultural interaction.

Additionally, Hymes considers competence as the broadest term for the potential of an individual. Of *performance*, Hymes says that this now refers to actual use and actual events, with certain reminders and provisos.

“The performance of a person is not identical with a behavioural record, or with the imperfect or partial realization of individual competence. It takes into account the interaction between competence (the knowledge, ability for use), the competence of others, and the cybernetic and emergent properties of events themselves” (Munby 1978: 16).

As stated above, perspectives on the terms *performance* and *competence* determine the characteristic of a person who knows a language. Defining these terms is vital for the field of language teaching since the whole process is designed with the aim of fulfilling the objective of educating learners who will know the target language. Therefore there are many crucial studies with the aim of defining these terms. The most significant studies are Chomsky's (1965) concept of "Linguistic Competence" and Hymes' (1972) "Communicative Competence", which was expanded by Canale & Swain (1980).

### **2.2.2 LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE**

Regarding his ideas about competence and performance, Chomsky presented the concept of "Linguistic Competence", based on the knowledge of form and use of language. According to Hedge (2000: 47), "linguistic competence involves a knowledge of spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure, and linguistic semantics". Therefore, a learner who can distinguish between countable and uncountable nouns or who can use future perfect continuous tense appropriately is regarded as a person who is developing his/her competence towards the language. In other words, linguistic competence "describes what we usually refer to as accuracy in terms of rules of usage" (Alptekin 2000: 1).

Nevertheless, such competency in a language in terms of being able to use it grammatically and accurately is not adequate to be considered as a person who knows that language. However, being competent linguistically is the basis of acquiring other competences of communicative competence. Hasstrup and Phillipson (1983: 168) highlight this by stating that "it is impossible to conceive of a person being communicatively competent without being linguistically competent".

On the other hand, although linguistic competence is the basis of other competences, having solely linguistic competence in a target language is not enough to acquire the nature of that language. Hymes (1972) supports this idea that having

linguistic competence is inadequate in terms of acquiring a language by referring to the meaning of knowing a language. He claims that “there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless” (1972, cited in Munby 1978: 9). He points out that, besides linguistic competence, a learner should acquire various competencies such as sociocultural norms, basic qualifications of speech, and suchlike so as to be considered as someone who knows a language. He presents the concept of communicative competence as one which has been one of the most influential theoretical developments in natural language studies and in applied linguistics (Ellis 1994; Firth and Wagner 1997; Stern 1983, cited in Lee 2006).

### **2.2.3 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

Communicative competence is the concept introduced by Hymes (1972) reacting against Chomsky’s Linguistic Competence. Hymes claims that knowing a language requires various competences besides linguistic competence. Alptekin (2000) also points out that gaining communication competence is a challenging procedure since it necessitates not only learning accurate forms of the target language but also gaining the ability of knowing how to employ these forms in different socio-cultural settings. In other words, “learning a foreign language is considered as enculturation” (Alptekin, 2000: 1). Apart from cultural aspects, learners should be knowledgeable about the characteristics of social interactions in the target culture.

The concept of Communicative Competence is studied and redefined by many linguists. Canale and Swain (1980) divide the terms of Communicative Competence into three main headings as *Grammatical competence*, *Sociolinguistic Competence* and *Discourse Competence*. However, they focus on the inadequateness of existing theories as they ignore CSs as an aid for speakers to cope with problems arising in the flow of communication (Canale and Swain 1980). Therefore they introduced the term *Strategic Competence*, which is discussed above, as the fourth term of Communicative Competence.

*Grammatical competence*, as with Chomsky's linguistic competence, concerns the use of language in terms of its grammatical rules. It involves "a knowledge of spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure, and linguistic semantics" (Hedge 2000: 47). In other words, grammatical competence is about the recognition of grammatical rules and using the language appropriately in terms of its grammatical structures.

*Sociolinguistic competence*, on the other hand, is about the social context that the target language belongs to. This is also called as "pragmatic competence". According to Alptekin (2000: 1), sociolinguistic competence gives importance to "factors such as the role of the participants in a given instruction, their social status, the information they share, and the function of the interaction". In Hymes words, it is to know "when to speak, when not, what to talk about with whom, when, where, and in what manner" (1972, cited in Hedge 2000: 50). Therefore, learners should be aware of the characteristics of the target culture i.e. its values, beliefs, traditions, etc. in order to have sociolinguistic competence.

*Discourse Competence* is the ability to maintain a conversation by using various strategies such as "initiating, entering, interrupting, checking, and confirming" (Hedge 2000: 51). In defining discourse competence, Alptekin asserts that discourse competence is the connection of series of sentences or utterances so as to provide meaningful expressions. In doing so, "ideas are linked to each other based on general knowledge of the world as well as familiarity with a particular context" (Alptekin 2000: 1). Therefore, it is vital for learners to be knowledgeable about how to continue a conversation and how to develop a topic in the target language.

*Strategic Competence* is the term which was introduced by Canale and Swain (1980) covering the ability to overcome breakdowns of communication. They define strategic competence as "the ability to cope in an authentic communicative situation and to keep the communicative channel open" (Canale and Swain 1980, cited in Hedge 2000: 52). This necessitates knowledge of CSs, used to compensate for lacking knowledge of rules or factors (Alptekin 2000). In doing so, learners should

be able to use communication strategies when they are stuck in a communicative situation. They should be knowledgeable about how to react when they can not find the right word or when they are unable to express themselves appropriately. Otherwise, they would be unable to express themselves accurately in the target language since it is very difficult to express yourself in target language without using any communication strategies.

#### **2.2.4. RECENT VIEWS OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

As an umbrella term, Communicative Competence is accepted by many linguists. There is consensus that knowing a language requires these four aspects. Besides, studying theoretical models of communicative competence contributes to designing an effective language teaching procedure with the aim of helping learners to determine their needs to acquire these different competences (Lee 2006).

However, although Communicative Competence seems adequate to define what it means to know a language, it has some limitations in terms of English Language Teaching. Alptekin (2000) claims that since it has the status of a lingua franca, English should have different concepts in language teaching education. He states that sociolinguistic discourse and strategic competences differ according to cultural context and he finds it meaningless to teach English to foreign language learners through British or American culture. He highlights the differences between British or American culture and other cultures in which English is spoken. Therefore he regards these models of communicative competence as invalid since they ignore the role of English as an international language and he suggests reconsidering real communicative behaviours corresponding to the recent role of English as an international language (Alptekin 2000).

In brief, although it ignores the status of English as a lingua franca, communicative competence has many strong points that are accepted by many linguists in terms of defining what it is to know a language. It takes various aspects



into consideration such as grammar, communication strategies, social context of the target culture, and so on, which are all vital for learners of a language.

### **2.3 SUMMARY**

This chapter started with a description of communication by referring its complex nature and being affected by various factors. The distinctions between verbal and nonverbal communication were presented with reference to their roles in effective communication. After, the types of nonverbal communication were defined. Communicative competence was discussed in detail by referring to Chomsky's term 'competence' and 'performance'. After that, communicative competence was presented in both historical and recent perspectives.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **LEARNING STRATEGIES AND COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES**

#### **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter deals with the definitions of both learning and communication strategies. To clarify the roles of learning strategies, different views of the definition of learning strategies will be presented. Afterwards, the classification of learning strategies will be displayed in order to clarify the roles of learning strategies in the learning process. Subsequently, the implications will be presented for both learners and teachers of foreign languages so as to benefit from effective learning strategies. Lastly, communication strategies will be defined by referring to different approaches.

#### **3.1. DEFINITION OF LEARNING STRATEGIES**

Learning strategies have been one of the hottest issues in the field of language learning and teaching after the movement towards learner-centred language learning. With the idea of learners' active participation in the learning process, scientists investigated the ways applied by good language learners to learn language effectively. Here, the aim was to define learning strategies by clarifying the characteristics of each so as to facilitate the learners of languages.

To understand learning strategies, initially, it is wise to know the meaning of *strategy*. As Oxford (1990) points out, the term "strategy", coming from the ancient Greek term *strategia*, which means generalship, requires the state of managing. Therefore, the word strategy is used for the term 'learning strategies' due to the fact that learners are regarded as generals of their own learning who manage their own ways of learning. Like generals, learners are responsible for learning since they are the appliers of it through deciding which strategy to select in which situation and how to apply it.

However, to overcome the difficulties of this responsibility, first of all, learners should be knowledgeable about learning strategies. To do so, many studies were carried out in the 1970s with the aim of clarifying the term “strategy”. Many books have been written by different authors such as Wenden and Rubin (1987), O’Malley and Chomot (1990), Oxford (1990), and Bialystok (1990) to clarify learning strategies in terms their definition, classification, and contribution to the field. Despite these various studies, it seems that there is no consensus on this issue in terms of the definition of learning strategies and what constitutes a strategy.

When the definitions of learning strategies are examined, it is obvious that there are many differences about the nature of this topic. As seen in Figure 2, many authors give different definitions of learning strategies by focusing on its different characteristics.

Figure 2: Various definitions of learning strategies provided in the literature (Erten, 1998: 71)

Author(s)	Definition of Learning strategies
Stern (1975) and Neiman et al (1978:2)	[S]pecific techniques, i.e. Observable forms of language behaviour
Rubin (1975: 43)	[T]he techniques and devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge.
Rubin (1987: 23)	[Strategies] which contribute to the development of the language constructs and affect learning directly.
Wenden (1987a: 6)	[L]anguage learning behaviours learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language.
Bialystok (1978: 71)	[O]ptional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language.
Weinstein and Mayer (1986: 315)	[B]ehaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning and that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process.
O'Malley and Chamot (1990:1)	[S]pecial thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information.
Oxford (1990: 8)	[S]pecific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations.
Oxford (1993: 175)	[S]pecific actions, behaviours, steps or techniques that students employ - often consciously - to improve their own progress in internalizing, storing, retrieving, and using the L2.
Chamot (1987:71)	[T]echniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both the linguistic and content area of information
Willing (1988:7)	[A] specific mental procedure for gathering, processing, associating, categorizing, rehearsing and retrieving information or patterned skills. It is, in short, an act of learning viewed at the micro-level. It is the basic unit of learning.
Davies (1995)	Physical or mental actions employed consciously or unconsciously for facilitating learning
MacIntyre (1994: 185)	[T]echniques to facilitate language learning that are deliberately chosen by students
Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986: 24-25)	(Purposeful and goal-oriented) processes that underlie performance on thinking tasks
Cohen (1995:1 cited in Young, 1996)	[S]teps and actions selected by the learners either to improve the learning of a second language, the use of it, or both.
Schmeck (1988: 5)	[A] sequence of procedures for accomplishing learning and specific procedures within this sequence are called learning tactics
Kirby (1988: 230-231)	[A] combination of tactics, or a choice among tactics, that forms a coherent plan to solve a problem

As seen from the figure above, there are many differences in the definition of learning strategies. The main distinction is about the perception of learning strategies either as behaviours or a mental process. Some authors such as Stern (1975), Naiman et al. (1978), Wenden (1987) and Oxford (1993) claim that learning strategies are behaviours whereas others such as Willing (1988), Schmeck (1988), and Kirby (1988) see them as a mental process. Additionally, another group of authors such as O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Weinstein and Mayer (1986), and Davies (1995) assert that learning strategies are both physical and mental actions.

Since it is believed that all learning strategies cannot be observable, which should be considered as a sign of them not resulting solely from behavioural actions, the last view named above, that regards learning strategies both as a physical and mental action, will be held in this research study.

Another distinction of the definitions above is on the behaviours that count as learning strategies. As pointed out by Ellis (1994), while Stern (1975) distinguishes 'strategies' and 'techniques', other researchers consider the term 'strategy' as the kind of behaviours that are called techniques by Stern.

Another distinction among the definitions is about the nature of learning strategies in terms of their being used intentionally or subconsciously by learners. Although not all the definitions require this aspect of learning strategies, it is seen that "while Bialystok (1978), Chamot (1987), McIntyre (1994), and Cohen (1995) imply that strategies are conscious, deliberately selected, and intentionally used for language learning, Oxford's (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) definitions allow for the possibility that strategies can also be used subconsciously" (Erten 1998: 72).

To be brief, although there are many distinctions among the researchers of learning strategies about the characteristics of these strategies, it is vital for each learner to perceive the features of them. In doing so, rather than trying to define

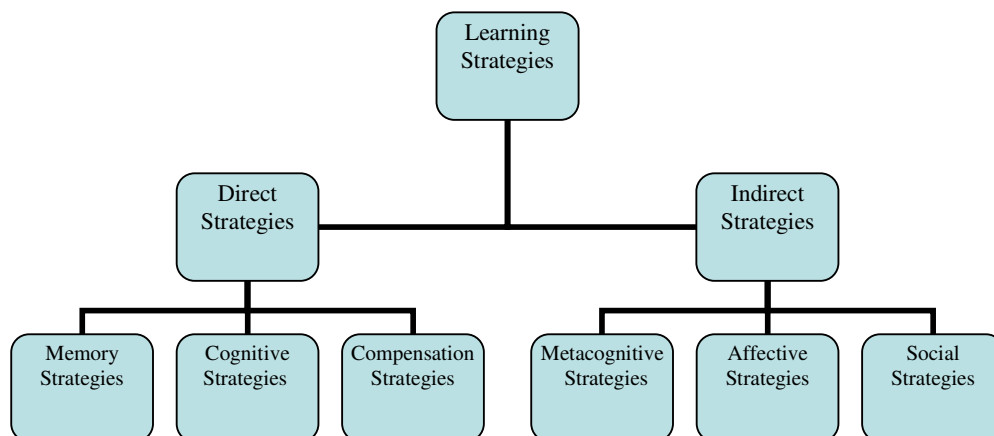
learning strategies by referring to these different views, it is wise to discuss the classification of these learning strategies, which will be reviewed in the next section.

### 3.1.1. CLASSIFICATION OF LEARNING STRATEGIES

Besides defining the term learning strategy, scientists have tried to classify these strategies according to their features with the intention of clarifying their characteristics. One of the most commonly held taxonomy is provided by Oxford (1986). She introduced The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) “contained items tapping sixty-four individual strategies divided into two main groups, primary strategies and support strategies (which correspond closely to O’Malley cognitive and metacognitive types)” (Ellis 1994: 539).

In her taxonomy, which is shown in Figure 3, Oxford (1990) drew a general distinction between direct and indirect strategies. She considers memory, cognitive and compensation strategies as direct strategies since they consist of strategies that require direct involvement in the target language by activating the mental process of the language. On the other hand, she groups metacognitive, affective, and social strategies as indirect strategies by claiming that they support language indirectly by focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing, cooperating, empathy and other means.

*Figure 3: Oxford's Classification of Learning Strategies (1990)*



However, this kind of strict distinguishing among learning strategies, as direct or indirect, reveals some problems. It is crucial not to ignore the nature of learning strategies in terms of their being interrelated to each other (Erten, 1994). For instance; asking somebody else for clarification is one of the social strategies. However, this process requires not only cooperation, which is called an indirect strategy by Oxford, but also direct involvement so as to make mental linkages. Additionally, compensation strategies, which are regarded as the heart of strategic competence since they deal with guessing unknown information, require not only direct strategies but also indirect strategies such as affective and social strategies. Therefore, considering social strategies solely as an act of cooperation, and regarding them as an indirect strategy, is unacceptable.

Despite this distinction between direct and indirect strategies, one commonly accepted view is of categorizing them into one of four groups according to whether they are cognitive, metacognitive, affective, or social (Chamot, 1987; Oxford, 1990) (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: O'Malley and Chamot's typology of learning strategies (Chamot, 1987, cited in Ellis 1990: 537)

	<b>Learning Strategy</b>	<b>Definition</b>
<i>Metacognitive</i>	Advance organizers	Making general but comprehensive preview of the concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity.
	Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore relevant distractors.
	Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input.
	Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
	Advance preparation	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.
	Self-monitoring	Correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present.
	Delayed production	Consciously deciding to postpone speaking to learn initially through listening comprehension.
	Self-evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.
<i>Cognitive</i>	Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.
	Resourcing	Defining or expanding a definition of a word or concept through use of target language reference materials.
	Directed physical response	Relating new information to physical actions, as with directives.
	Translation	Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language.
	Grouping	Reordering or reclassifying and perhaps labelling the material to be learned based on common attributes.
	Note-taking	Writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing.
	Deduction	Consciously applying rules to produce or understand second language.
	Recombination	Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way.
	Imagery	Relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar easily retrievable visualization, phrases, or locations.
	Auditory representation	Retention of the sound or similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.
	Key word	Remembering a new word in the second language by (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word, and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship with the new word.
	Contextualization	Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence.
	Elaboration	Relating new information to other concepts in memory.
	Transfer	Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task.
Inferencing	Using available information to guess meaning of new items, predict outcomes, fill in missing information.	
<i>Social/affective</i>	Cooperation	Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity.
	Question for clarification	Asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanations and/or examples.



According to this model, learning strategies consist of three different functions. While strategies that are employed through mental manipulations in learning and using the target language are called as cognitive strategies (Cohen and Dörnyei 2002), strategies that are used to manage learning through planning and supervising are called *metacognitive strategies*. In other words, strategies which are useful for retention of new information are called cognitive strategies. Conversely, strategies about the planning of the learning procedure are called metacognitive strategies. For instance; a learner uses cognitive strategy by making repetitions, note-taking, or grouping. On the other hand, s/he uses metacognitive strategy by self-monitoring, self-evaluation or organizing.

The third group of strategies is called social/affective strategies, which are actions that are chosen by learners in order to interact with other learners or with native speakers (Cohen and Dörnyei 2002). Here, the role of learners as social beings is emphasized by focusing on the significance of cooperation with others in order to learn effectively. For example, a learner who asks the teacher questions for the sake of clarification is considered to be using a social strategy.

### **3.1.2 ROLE OF LEARNING STRATEGIES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING**

Despite disagreements on the definitions and classifications of learning strategies, it is commonly accepted that learning strategies are vital for effective learning procedure. By being aware of the functions of learning strategies, learners can benefit from learning procedure efficiently without hesitating about what to do to overcome the difficulties of dealing with unknown information. This role of learning strategies is highlighted by Nunan (1999) as below:

“Knowledge of strategies is important, because the greater awareness you have of what you are doing, if you are conscious of the processes underlying the learning that you are involved in, then learning will be more effective”. (Nunan, 1999: 171)

In summarizing the features of language learning strategies, Oxford (1990) highlights twelve characteristics. First of all, she asserts that the main goal of language learning strategies is to achieve communicative competence. Additionally, she considers them as tools for self-directed learners which will lead to “less teacher dominated learning” (Erten 1998: 76). On the other hand, she claims that learning strategies are problem-oriented and they are specific actions taken by learners. These actions may be either direct or indirect, which indicates their nature of being “both mental and behavioural” (Weinstein and Mayer, 1986, cited in Erten 1998: 76). Lastly, Oxford asserts that learning strategies are flexible, they can be taught and they are influenced by a variety of factors.

These features of learning strategies reveal that with the help of learning strategies, learners can take on the responsibility of their learning. By being at the center of learning, they can design learning procedure according to their own interests, expectations, characteristics, etc. Thanks to this, learners will be more concentrated on the procedure and the learning procedure will be much more enjoyable for learners, seeing as they decide which strategy to select in different situations.

However, it is essential for learners to be aware of these features of learning strategies. In so doing, teachers should present the role of learning strategies in coping with unknown information. To do so, teachers should guide learners by presenting ways of learning new languages. Afterwards, learners can select the appropriate strategies for themselves or they can redesign strategies or they can create new ones. Otherwise, if teachers do not present the role of learning strategies, learners cannot feel the confidence of knowing how to react in different situations and they cannot benefit from the learning process efficiently.

### 3.2. COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Learning a foreign language is a complex process since learners have to deal with different situations that are relatively unfamiliar for them. These situations are faced in each step of learning a language. Therefore, language learners should have the ability to overcome these difficulties. In doing so, different strategies should be applied in order to cope with the difficulties of language learning procedure. While strategies that are used for retention of new information refer to learning strategies, strategies that are used to maintain communication by overcoming the difficulties that occur in the communication process are called as communication strategies (Oxford 1990, Dörnyei and Scott 1997).

Although the functions of communication strategies are accepted by many authors, there are different views about what constitutes communication strategies. As displayed in Figure 5, although different in detail, the definitions reveal three defining criteria: *problematicity*, *consciousness*, and *intentionality* (Dörnyei and Scott 1997).

Figure 5: Various definitions of communication strategies

Author(s)	Definition of Communication strategies
(Ellis, 1994: 530)	Consists of attempts to deal with problems of communication that have arisen in interaction.
(Corder 1977)	A systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty
(Tarone 1977)	A mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared.
(Faerch and Kasper, 1983a)	Potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal
(Stern, 1983)	Techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language

*Problematicity* refers to mismatches between sender and receiver in the communication process. This mismatch may occur as a result of different factors such as attention, background knowledge, attitude, expectation, etc. Since the main

function of communication strategies is to overcome difficulties of communication in a foreign tongue, it is believed that a problem should occur before the use of a strategy. As Bialystok (1990: 3) indicates, “strategies are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which may interrupt communication”.

*Consciousness* is about learners’ being aware of what is being done. Although there are different views about the nature of consciousness, a significant explanation is to see communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans” (Faerch and Kasper 1983a). Here, the emphasis is not on learners’ being aware of using a particular communication strategy, but trying to cope with a problem through using different tactics. As learners of languages, it is not wise to expect them to be aware of the features of everything they apply in procedure. Consequently, consciousness may differ on different occasions. Using a communication strategy may not be conscious, but without doubt, deciding how to cope with a problem in the communication process is a conscious process.

*Intentionality* is defined as “learner’s control over a repertoire of strategies so that particular ones may be selected from the range of options and deliberately applied to achieve certain effects” (Bialystok, 1990: 5). Although other scientists such as Schmidt (1994) regard intentionality as a part of consciousness, Bialystok asserts that they are different in nature. She claims that intentionality presupposes consciousness since it reflects a learner’s intention to select a particular strategy by being aware of which one will be suitable for that situation.

To be brief, communication strategies are the heart of compensation strategies which mean to know how to cope with difficulties in the communication process (Hedge 2000). They are used by speakers of foreign languages consciously and intentionally with the intention of overcoming problems. Since using communication strategies is the only way to maintain conversation, learners of foreign languages should be aware of their crucial role in this. In so doing, it is vital to know the historical perspective of communication strategies, and taxonomies

which have been presented as an aid for both learners and teachers should be examined carefully.

### 3.2.1. DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO CONCEPTUALISING CSs

In clarifying the differences among approaches to conceptualizing CSs, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) illustrate seven groups. The first view is called as *Traditional View*. For *Traditional View*, using CSs is a result of learners' lack of proficiency. Tarone (1977) and Faerch and Kasper (1983a) claim that learners use CSs since their proficiency level is not adequate to overcome that particular crisis.

However, Tarone presents a broader definition of CSs which includes the *interactional perspective*. She asserts that "CSs are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal" (1980: 420). In other words, she claims that the selection of CSs is not only dependant on the sender but also the interaction of the sender with receiver.

In his "extended view", Dörnyei (1995) focuses on *stalling strategies* which are about learners' using strategies in order to gain time and keep the communication channel open. However, in their joint study, Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) include language-related problems and they consider the process of using CSs as a problem-solving procedure.

In Canale's *extended concept*, Canale regards CSs as any "any attempt to enhance the effectiveness of communication" (Canale 1983: 11). In other words, besides Dörnyei and Scott's extended view, he claims that CSs include more than just problem-solving strategies.

Dörneyi and Scott (1997) illustrate another group of scientists such as Bialystok (1990) and the Nijmegen Group (i.e. Bongaerts, Kellerman and Poullisse)

as the followers of *psychological approaches to conceptualizing CSs*. They claim that using CSs is a mental process which is due to be investigated cognitively. They assert that not focusing solely on the verbalization but perceiving the cognitive, psychological and psycholinguistic dimensions of CS use is vital to presenting a valid taxonomy (Dörnyei and Scott 1997).

With the intention of integrating different perspectives of previous research, Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) proposed an extended view in which they include every deliberate attempt of learners that is employed to overcome language-related problems occurred in the process of communication. In their extended view, they conceived CSs to be an umbrella term regarding them as key elements of problem management in L2 discourse.

The last group of research is Poulisse's *speech production model*. This model adapts the speech-production model to the views of Bialystok and the Nijmegen group. They integrated CSs with the speech production model by referring to the idea of their nature of close interrelation.

These views are summarized in Figure 6 below:

*Figure 6: Different Approaches to Conceptualizing Communication Strategies*

<b>Approach</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Author</b>
Traditional View	1997	Result of lack of proficiency	Tarone, Faerch and Kasper
Interactional Perspective	1980	Joint negotiation between interlocutors	Tarone
Dörnyei's extended view	1995	Problem-solving procedure	Dörnyei
Canale's extended view	1983	Any attempt to enhance the effectiveness of communication	Canale
Psychological approach		Mental process	Bialystok, Nijmegen Group
Dörnyei and Scott's extended view	1995	Key units of problem management	Dörnyei and Scott
Pouliss's speech production		Close interrelation	Poulisse

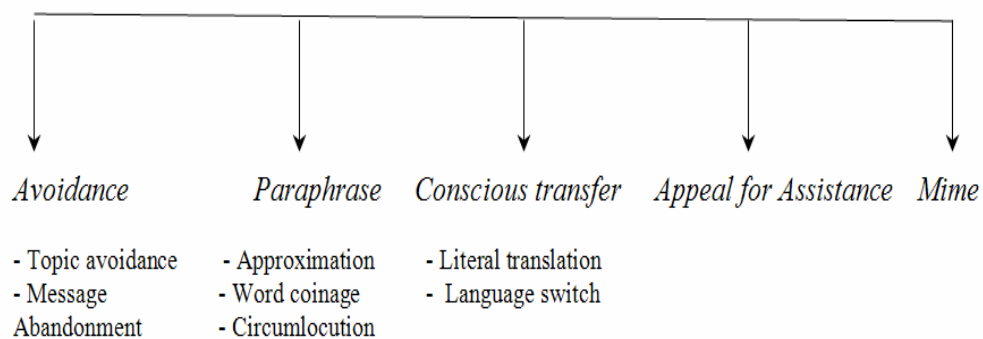
### 3.2.2 CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

These different approaches to the concept of CSs generate different studies on the classification of CSs since they focus on different aspects of CSs. They all try to identify methods that are used by learners as a CS. However, although there are many similarities among the nine taxonomies which are illustrated by Dörnyei and Scott (1997), strict distinctions can also be noticed.

#### 3.2.2.1 TARONE'S TAXONOMY

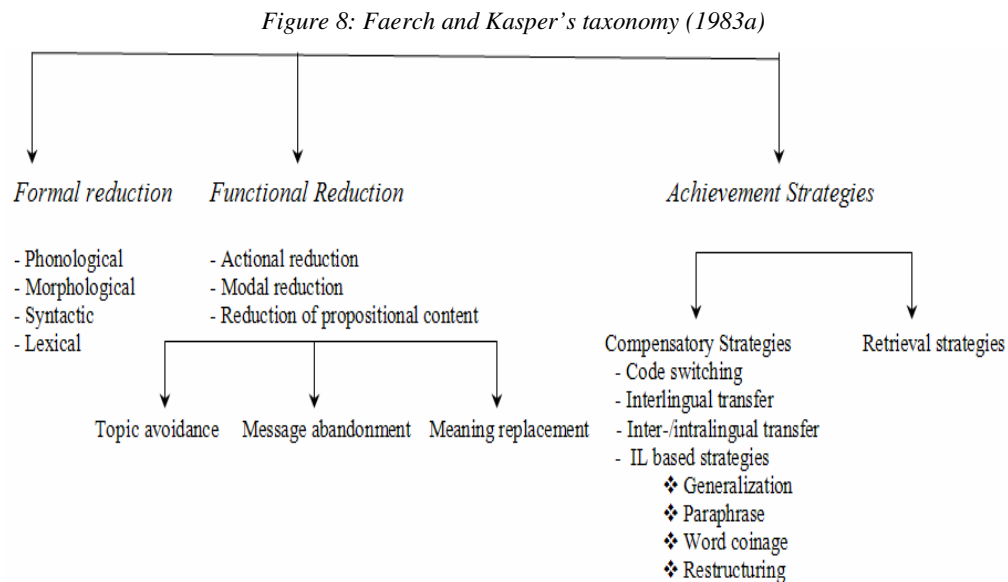
The first taxonomy, which is displayed with the aim of classifying CSs, was presented by Tarone in 1977. She classifies CSs in five groups as *avoidance*, *paraphrase*, *conscious transfer*, *appeal for assistance* and *mime*. As summarized in presenting different conceptualizations of CSs, Tarone (1977) sees lack of proficiency as the basis for using CSs. Therefore, she claims that learners use different techniques such as avoidance, paraphrase, mime, etc. to overcome their lack of proficiency.

Figure 7: Tarone's taxonomy (1977)



### 3.2.2.2 FAERCH AND KASPER'S TAXONOMY

Another taxonomy is presented by Faerch and Kasper (1983a). They divide CSs into groups of three, as *formal reduction*, *functional reduction* and *achievement strategies*. They include Tarone's classification as one group under Functional Reduction. Besides, they also classify the use of CSs in their linguistic aspects such as phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical. Additionally, they present compensatory strategies as achievement strategies such as code-switching, inter-intralingual transfer, cooperative strategies etc.

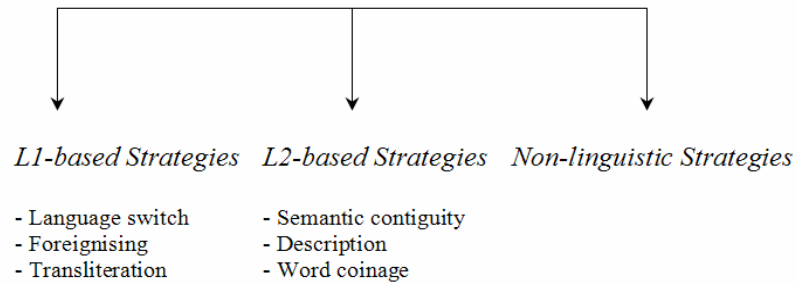


### 3.2.2.3 BIALYSTOK'S TAXONOMY (1)

In classifying CSs, Bialystok (1983) displays three headings, as *L1-based strategies*, *L2-based strategies* and *non-linguistic strategies*. In other words, he focuses on language transfer and paraphrasing in the target language and he includes techniques such as language switch, foreignizing, semantic contiguity, word coinage etc.



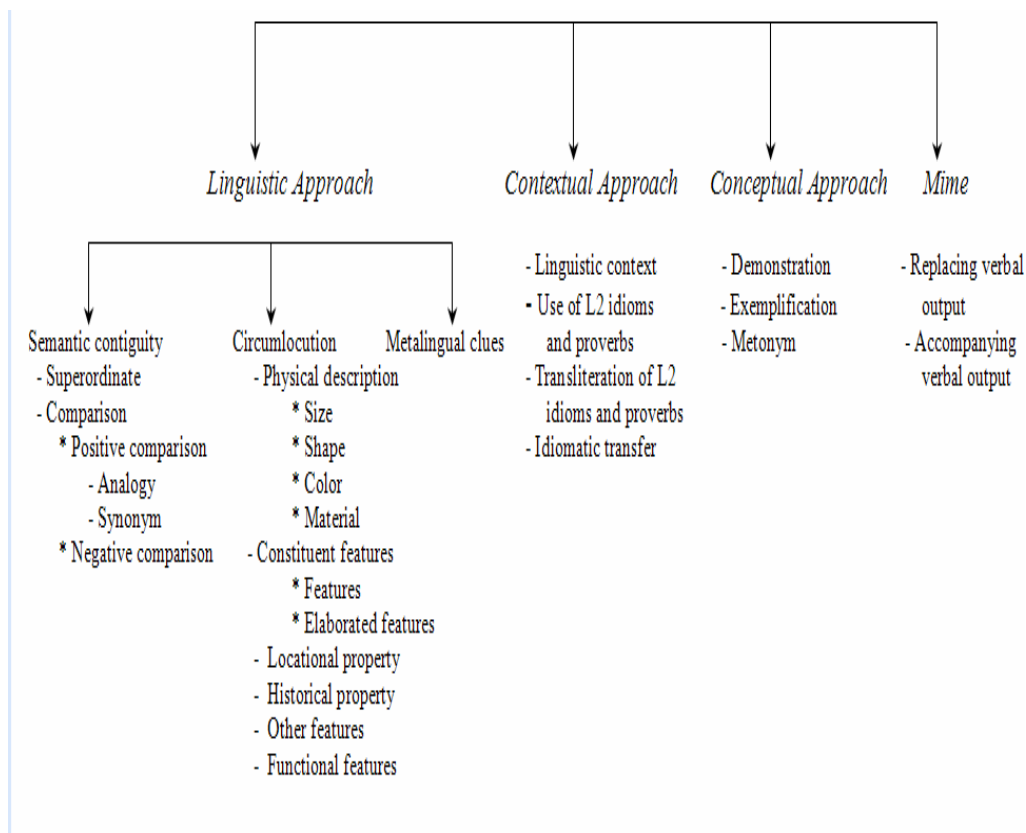
Figure 9: Bialystok's taxonomy (1983)



### 3.2.2.4 PARIBAKHT'S TAXONOMY

Paribakht (1985) makes a more detailed classification that includes various factors that are considered as CSs. He groups CSs into four as *linguistic approach*, *contextual approach*, *conceptual approach* and *mime*. In the linguistic approach, he emphasizes the different uses of linguistics as a tool for CSs such as *semantic contiguity*, *circumlocution*, *metalinguistic clues*. However, he considers the use of linguistic context such as idioms and proverbs and idiomatic transfer as CSs under the heading of the contextual approach. As for the contextual approach, he focuses on paraphrasing of the intended message as *demonstration*, *exemplification* and *metonymy*.

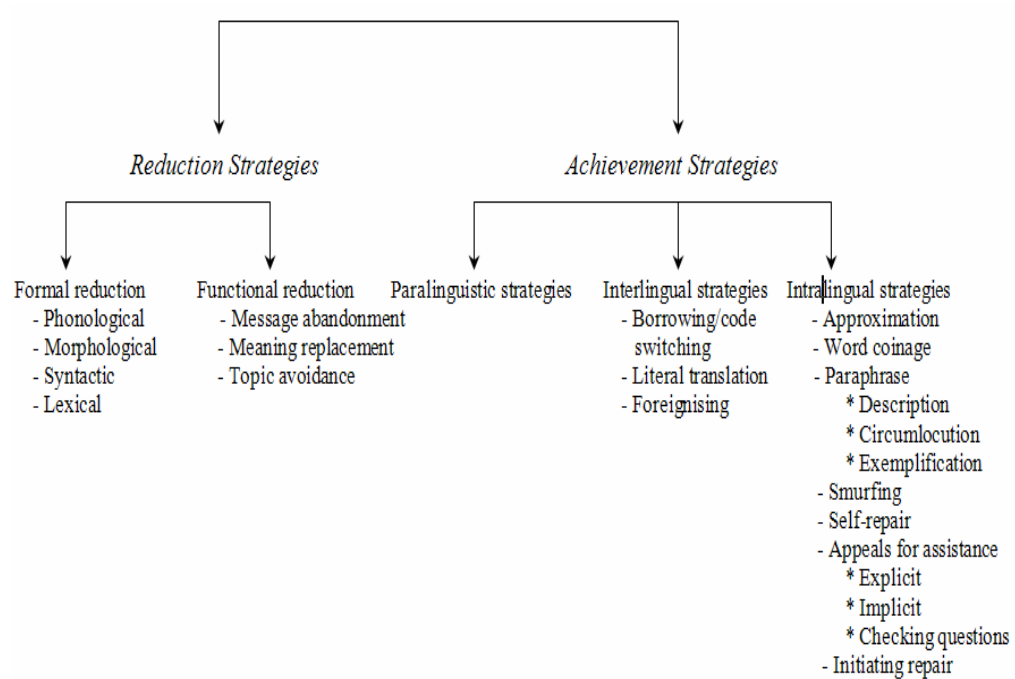
Figure 10: Paribakht' taxonomy (1985)



### 3.2.2.5 WILLEMS' TAXONOMY

Willems (1987) classifies CSs in two groups as *reduction strategies* and *achievement strategies*. In reduction strategies, he discusses two terms: *formal reduction*, which is about the formation of language linguistically such as the phonological, morphological, syntactic aspects, and *functional reduction*, such as message abandonment, meaning replacement, and topic avoidance. For achievement strategies, he discusses paralinguistic strategies, interlingual strategies, and intralingual strategies. He uses the terms code switching, paraphrase, self-repair, appeals for assistance, etc.

Figure 11: Willems' taxonomy (1987)



### 3.2.2.6 BIALYSTOK'S TAXONOMY (2)

Bialystok (1990) conceptualized two main classes of CSs, 'analysis-based' and 'control-based'. According to this classification, while "analysis-based" strategies involve attempts "to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features" (p.133), "control-based" strategies involve "choosing a representational system that is possible to convey and that makes explicit information relevant to the identity of the intended concept" (p.133).

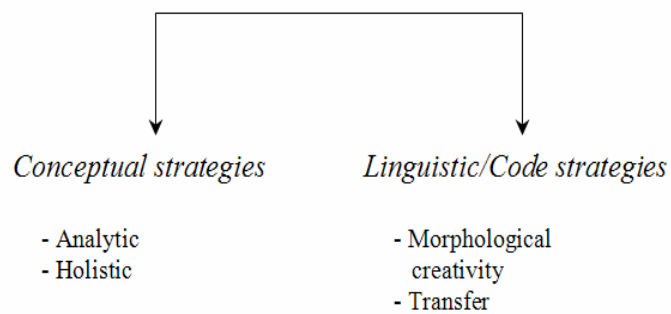
Figure 12: Bialystok's taxonomy (1990)



### 3.2.2.7 NIJMEGEN GROUP'S TAXONOMY

The Nijmegen Group's taxonomy discusses CSs in two groups as *conceptual strategies* and *linguistic/code strategies*. In the conceptual strategies, it is essential to make a concept become expressible by the help of linguistic resources (Kellerman 1991). They include strategies such as approximation, circumlocution, and semantic word coinage. On the other hand, linguistic strategies include literal translation, code-switching, foreignizing, and grammatical word coinage which attempt to control the speaker's linguistic knowledge.

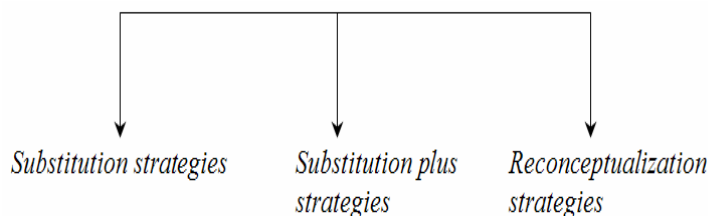
Figure 13: Nijmegen Group's taxonomy



### 3.2.2.8 POULISSE'S TAXONOMY

Poulisse (1993) identifies three different strategies as *substitution strategies*, *substitution plus strategies* and *reconceptualization strategies*. Substitution strategies are about “omitting or changing one or more features of a lexical chunk in search of a new lexical item (the L1/L2 specification being treated as one of the features) (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; 201-202). They include strategies such as traditional approximation or code switching. Substitution-plus strategies include foreignizing, accompanied by the “out-of-the-ordinary application of L1 or L2 morphological and/or phonological encoding procedures” (Poulisse, 1993: 190, cited in Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; 202). Reconceptualization strategies, on the other hand, are changes in the message that involve more than one chunk as in circumlocution (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997).

Figure 14: Poulisse's taxonomy (1993)



### 3.2.2.9 DÖRNYEI AND SCOTT'S TAXONOMY

The final classification is introduced by Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b). They classify CSs into three groups as *direct strategies*, *interactional strategies* and *indirect strategies*. Direct strategies concern problem-orientation. they include three separate categories, namely, *resource deficit-related strategies*, *own-performance problem-related strategies* and *other-performance problem-related strategies*. As they assert, “direct strategies provide an alternative, manageable, and self-contained means of getting the (sometimes modified) meaning across, like circumlocution compensating for the lack of a word” (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997: 198). Indirect strategies, on the other hand, are about maintaining conversation by using different

techniques such as use of fillers, repetitions, feigning understanding, etc. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) summarize the function of indirect strategies as below:

“Indirect strategies are not strictly problem-solving devices. They do not provide alternative meaning structures, but rather facilitate the conveyance of meaning indirectly by creating the conditions for achieving mutual understanding: preventing breakdowns and keeping the communication channel open or indicating less-than-perfect forms that require extra effort to understand” (Dörnyei and Scott : 198).

Interactional strategies, however, concern cooperation between speakers and listeners. In interactional strategies, speakers control the flow of communication by using strategies such as appeals for help, comprehension check, asking for repetition, asking for clarification, asking for confirmation, guessing, etc. In other words, interaction strategies are a way of setting precautions so as not to break communication through cooperating with the interlocutor.

While there are many different types of classification, it is seen that there are many similar points among them. For instance, when learners do not feel capable of talking about a topic, they may prefer to ignore it so as to avoid the challenge of struggling to explain themselves. However, although they are the same in nature, this strategy is given different names in different taxonomies. For instance; while Tarone (1977) called them as “avoidance strategies”, Faerch and Kasper (1983a) named them as “reduction strategies”. Examples such as this can be multiplied.

Although there are both similarities and differences in these different taxonomies, it is clear that they present a cohesive explanation of their functions. While some of them rely solely on the problematic nature of CSs, others focus on the interactional aspect of CSs. However, the recent study of these taxonomies carried by Dörnyei and Scott (1997) provides a comprehensive explanation regarding each aspect of CSs as problem-orientation, process-orientation, and performance-orientation. Therefore, this taxonomy is considered as the most appropriate one for our study in terms of its extensive clarifications.

Figure 15: Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy (1995a, 1995b) (1)

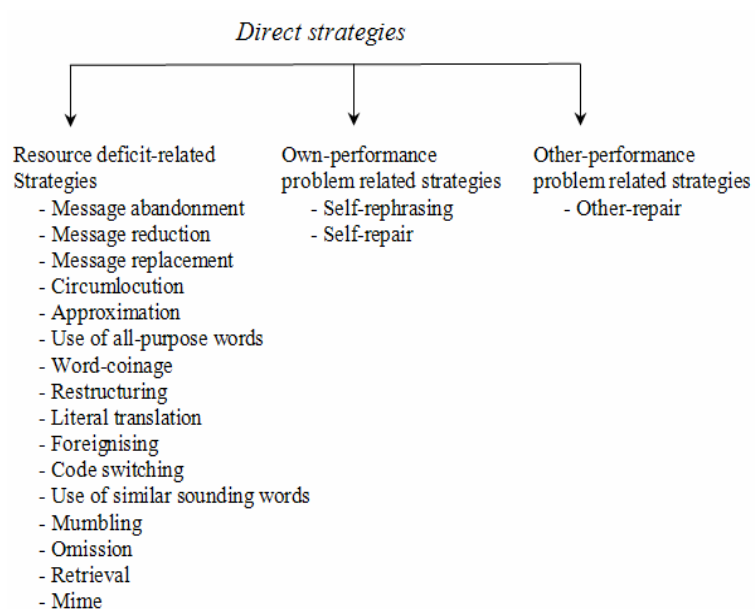


Figure 16: Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy (1995a, 1995b) (2)

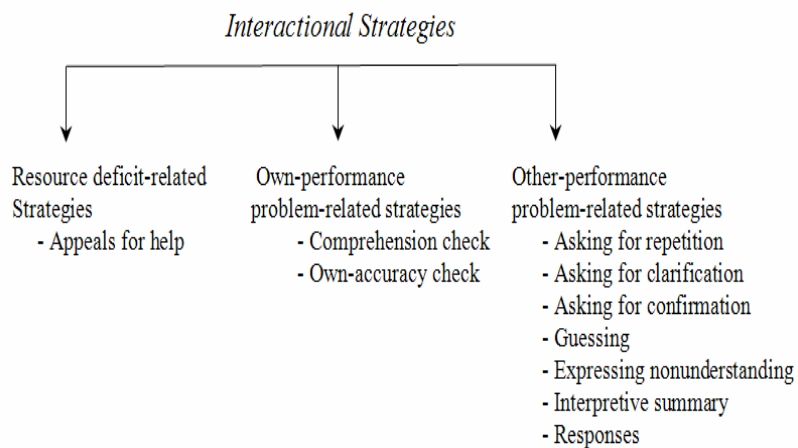
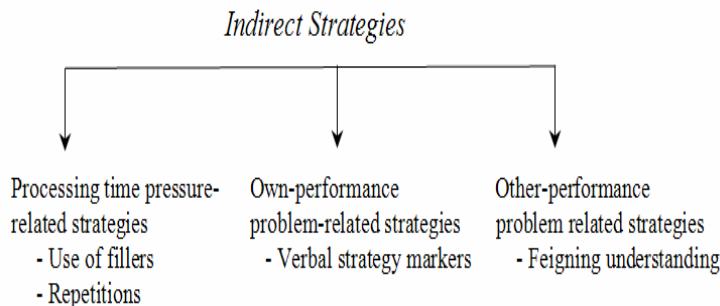


Figure 17: Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy (1995a, 1995b) (3)



### 3.2.3. STUDIES ON COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

#### 3.2.3.1 HISTORICAL OUTLINE OF STUDIES INTO COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

With the developments in understanding communicative competence, attempts have been carried out with the aim of investigating how to facilitate learners to acquire communicative competence. Since communicative competence includes various aspects as discussed above, acquiring this ability requires different skills in a language. For instance; so as to have sociolinguistic competence, it is essential for a learner to be knowledgeable about the cultural and traditional aspects of the target language. The skills that are required for having communicative competence differ according to the characteristics of the competence that it belongs to.

For that reason, scientists have tried to identify skills which are required for each competence. For strategic competence, which is about coping with conversational difficulties and maintaining conversation, the first term was coined by Selinker (1972). He discusses “strategies of second language communication” (p. 229, cited in Dörnyei and Scott 1997) as one of the five processes of L2 learning. After that, Savignan uses the term ‘coping strategies’ for communication strategies.



In 1977, Tarone focused on Communication Strategies by providing the first definition of CS and offering a taxonomy.

Another important contribution to the studies of CSs was introduced by Canale and Swain (1980) who included Strategic Competence as a major component in the model of communicative competence. He defines strategic competence as “verbal and nonverbal strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence” (p. 30, cited in Dörnyei 1995). Subsequently, studies to construct a definition of CSs have predominated. Faerch and Kasper (1983) made a collection of significant issues of CSs containing newly investigated topics (Bialystok, 1983; Dechert 1983; Faerch and Kasper, 1983c; Haastrup and Phillipson, 1983; Raupach, 1983; Wagnet, 1983).

In the second part of this edited book, empirical studies of communication strategies are presented, which are shown in Figure 18.

Figure 18: Overview on empirical studies (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a: 78)

	Varadi	Bialystok	Blum-Kulka/ Leventson	Haastrup/ Phillipson	Dechert	Wagner
<i>Data</i>						
Spoken	-	+	-	+	+	+
Written	+	-	-	+	-	+
Interactional	-	-	-	+	-	+
Type of task	Picture description + translation	Picture reconstruction	Sentence completion	Conversation	Narration of Picture Study	Instruction
<i>Learners</i>						
L1	Hungarian	English	Various	Danish	German	Danish
L2	English	French	[Hebrew]	English	English	German
Formal Instruction	+	+	+ -	+	+	+
Proficiency Level	Intermediate	Intermediate	?	Intermediate	Advanced	Beginner
<i>Methods of Analysis</i>						
Quantitative	+	+	+	-	-	-
Qualitative	+	-	+	+	+	+

As seen from Figure 18 above, various studies have been carried out to investigate the nature of communication strategies by focusing on their different aspects. For instance; in his study of learners' adjusting the message to their communicative resources, Varadi (1993) points out that interactional perspective is required to see the communicative effect of learners' utterances. On the other hand, Bialystok (1983) focuses on strategies that are employed by learners with the aim of compensating for gaps in their vocabulary. In other words, she investigates 'who uses which strategy when and with what effect' (Faerch and Kasper, 1983).

By collecting together such detailed research studies, Faerch and Kasper (1983) shed light upon various aspects of CSs, and they have facilitated other researchers to perceive the nature of the study of CSs. Thanks to this, researchers following were able to see the strengths and limitations of these research studies and they could plan new studies to overcome these limitations.

As summarized by Lafford (2004), empirical research studies on the use of CSs have demonstrated that there is a relationship between learners' proficiency level and their frequency of CS use. Research studies have shown that the higher proficiency level a learner has, the less frequently s/he feels the necessity of using CSs (LaBarca & Khanji, 1986; Poulisse & Schils, 1989; cited in Lafford 2004). This relationship about the use of CSs and learner proficiency level will also be investigated in this study of English as a foreign language.

### **3.2.3.2 STUDIES INTO COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN TURKEY**

Studies into communication strategies were conducted in the late 1990s in our country. Rather than attempting to carry out studies with the aim of presenting taxonomy and classifying the CSs, they tended to focus on the effects of different factors such as proficiency level, task types, language choice, etc. By presenting

different interactive environments, researchers observed the effects of particular variations on the use of communication strategies (see Figure 19).

As seen in Figure 19 below, among five recent research studies on the use of CSs, Özsarı (1997) compared the use of CSs of learners at different proficiency levels on the lexical level of oral production. This study involved 30 participants from 3 different levels. By giving 10 concrete and 10 abstract lexical items, it was intended to examine whether it is determinative to use concrete or abstract items in selecting which CS to use. It was observed that while elementary learners used L1 based strategies more than higher proficiency learners, higher proficiency learners used L2 based strategies more than lower proficiency learners.

Another study was conducted by Sümme (2001) with the aim of investigating the effects of task types on the use of CSs. Participants were presented with three different task types, namely, an interview, a picture-based conversation, and problem solving tasks. The CSs were identified to see which CSs were used in particular tasks and it is concluded that the task type had an effect on the types and frequency of communication strategies employed.

In the third study, Doğruöz (2001) investigated the effects of learner characteristics in terms of their being monolingual or bilingual learners on the use of CSs. Participants were presented with a task which included interaction to describe and complete a puzzle. As a result, it is seen that bilingual EFL learners used more CSs than monolingual EFL learners.

Another study, which was carried out by Kandamış (2003), investigated the relationship between CSs and second language acquisition. Since second language acquisition is a complex process, a direct relationship could not be observed. However, it is concluded that CS interaction has impact on the development of learners in a foreign language such as enhancing learner autonomy and self confidence, and creating the chance to obtain exposure to more input.

The last study was carried out by Gümüş (2007). She investigated the effects of language proficiency on high school students' use of communication strategies. She worked with 175 students in two groups; students who had studied English in preparatory classes and students who had not studied in preparatory classes. The Communication Strategies Inventory was used as a data collection instrument to see how frequently the participants report using communication strategies. Additionally, a communication task was conducted which included 19 students who were expected to describe a picture given by the researcher. As a result, in that study, it was concluded that “appeals for assistance”, “inferencing”, “formal reduction”, “stalling strategies” and “literal translation” were the most commonly used strategies. Moreover, it was discovered that there was no significant difference between prep and non-prep students in terms of their use of communication strategy.

As explained above briefly regarding the five studies carried out in our country, it has been demonstrated that the use of CSs is such a complex process that is affected by various factors, such as proficiency level, presented tasks, characteristics of learners, etc. However, no study has been carried out to compare the use of CSs of students in different proficiency levels by presenting a real interactive environment. Additionally, the effects of visible and invisible interaction have not been investigated so as to see whether observing the body language of the interlocutor determines the use of CS. For these reasons, in this study, it is intended to create a natural interactive environment in different visibility conditions and students of different proficiency levels participated to see the effect of proficiency level.

Figure 19: Studies into Communication Strategies in Turkey

	Study I	Study II	Study III	Study IV	Study V
<b>Author</b>	Rengin Özcan	Sema Sümmen	Ayşe Seza Doğruöz	Aslı Kandarnış	Pelin Gümrüş
<b>Date</b>	1997	2001	2001	2003	2007
<b>Title</b>	A Study on comparison of CSs of Turkish EFL Learners at different proficiency levels	A Study on the use of CSs	Comparison of CSs used by Turkish monolingual and bilingual EFL learners	The Impact of Communication Strategies on Second Language Acquisition	A Study into the Impact of Language Proficiency on the Use of Communication Strategies by High School Students
<b>Aims</b>			differences similarities between bilingual and monolingual EFL learners		Does perceived proficiency of English influence the use of communication strategies?
<b>Participants</b>	30 participants (3 different levels)	60 first year ELT students	60 EFL learners: 30 monolingual, 30 bilingual : German and French	30 EFL learners in prep class	175 High School Students
<b>Data Collection</b>	Concrete & abstract lexical items	CAE, Interview, Picture based conversation	Puzzle description	SILL, Questionnaire, The Barsch Learning Style Inventory, The Bram Dominance Inventory	The Communications Strategies Inventory; Semi-structured oral interview; Picture Description
<b>Taxonomy</b>		Faerch taxonomy (1984)	Faerch and Kasper (1983)	Dömyei and Scott's taxonomy	Dömyei and Scott's taxonomy
<b>Results</b>	Elementary learners : more L1 based Higher proficiency : more L2 based	Task type affects types and frequency of CSs	Bilinguals : more CSs than monolinguals	The CS instruction has contributed to the development of the learners in foreign language	Positive relationship between communication strategy use and self-perceived language proficiency. Instructions of communication strategies help learners improve their communicative skills.

### **3.3 SUMMARY**

This chapter attempted to describe learning and communication strategies. The role of learning strategies in language learning was highlighted with reference to their function. Additionally, the nature of communication strategies was discussed in detail and different approaches to conceptualising and categorising communication strategies were pointed out. After that, the studies into communication strategies were discussed briefly by referring to their contributions to the field. Finally, the conception of communication strategies was illustrated with reference to the studies carried out to investigate communication strategies.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter starts with a brief discussion of approaches to investigating communication strategies. Secondly, details of the pilot study will be given with reference to the aims of the pilot study and implications for the main study. Thirdly, the methodology of the main study will be described in detail.

#### **4.1. APPROACHES TO INVESTIGATING COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES**

Investigations on communication strategies date back to the 1970s. Researchers have aimed to classify communication strategies by presenting different taxonomies of it. In doing so, mostly questionnaires were used as a data collection method with the aim of classifying communication strategies in terms of their functions. Therefore, it was not necessary to create a natural interactional environment. (Dörnyei and Scott 1997)

After these classification studies, scientists such as Bialystok (1990), Nijmegen Group (i.e. Bongaerts, Kellerman and Poullisse), Dörnyei and Scott (1997) were interested in the inner side of communication strategy use. Different studies were applied with the aim of understanding when particular communication strategies were preferred in order to overcome different communication problems. However, administering questionnaires would not serve this purpose since it was essential to create a natural communicative environment so as to understand the rationale of preferring the particular strategy. As a result, different data collection

methods such as experiments were used that included different tasks which stimulated participants to communicate with each other.

#### 4.1.1. QUESTIONNAIRES

According to Brown (1988: 6), “questionnaires are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to reach either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers”. By giving the opportunity of collecting different data about the respondents, such as *factual, behavioural and attitudinal* (Dörnyei 2003), questionnaires are one of most commonly used data collection methods. By administering a questionnaire, a researcher can collect data not only about who the respondents are, such as their age, gender, occupation, etc., but also about their habits, background knowledge, attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and values.

Additionally, questionnaires are such a researcher-friendly method that data can be collected from a great number of participants at a time without making any effort (Bell 1993). However, despite this usefulness, there are many problematic issues in collecting data through questionnaires. Dörnyei (2003) groups these disadvantages under nine titles. Initially, in *simplicity and (superficiality - noun form) superficially of answers*, he highlights the proficiency level of students in understanding the items of the questionnaire. He claims that “questions need to be sufficiently simple and straightforward to be understood by everybody” (p. 10). For the second disadvantage, *unreliable and unmotivated respondents*, he discusses the eagerness of respondents to fill in the questionnaire. In *respondent literacy problems*, he focuses on the ability of respondents to read and write well. Moreover, he asserts that researchers have *no opportunity to correct the respondents’ mistakes*, which will affect the validity of the instrument since the researcher should be able to rely on what it is said by the respondents. Another point is about the accuracy of the responses. In *social desirability bias*, he discusses the fact that people do not always providing the correct answer about themselves. Related with this, in *self-deception*,



he focuses on the reasons for giving incorrect answers by asserting that “respondents do not deviate from the truth consciously but rather because they also deceive themselves” (Dörnyei 2003: 13). On the other hand, for *acquiescence bias*, he discusses the tendency of respondents to agree with the statements that they are unsure about and of course this tendency will affect the validity of the data relatively. Another point, which is called the *halo effect*, is about the impression of respondents towards researchers or topics. He claims that respondents may give positive or negative answers in consequence of their feelings towards researchers or the topics. For the last disadvantage, *fatigue effects*, she highlights the nature of questionnaires as being a demanding activity. According to her, responding to a long questionnaire will affect the accuracy of the responses since respondents will fill-in the questionnaire cursorily

As emphasized by Bell (1993) and Dörnyei, the main problem is with the respondents of the questionnaire. Respondents may be unmotivated or they may not be sufficiently disciplined to fill in the questionnaire or they may deceive the researcher. On the other hand, their responses may be affected by different reasons such as the monotony of the questions, or their feelings towards the researcher, etc. As a result of these disadvantages, it will be impossible for such kind of response to be considered as reliable and valid.

In conclusion, although questionnaires are one of the most practical ways to collect data, there are a lot of limitations which will affect the validity of the study dramatically. Therefore, it is wise to avoid using solely a questionnaire to collect data and support the result of a questionnaire by different techniques such as interviews, diaries, experiments, etc.

#### 4.1.2. EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

Nunan (1992) defines experiments by highlighting their functions, “experiments are carried out in order to explore the strength of relationships between variables”. In the exploring process, it is essential to select two identical groups and after giving special treatment to the experimental group, it is vital to check whether there is significant difference between the two groups (Bell 1993). As stated by Mackey and Gass (2005), this process is called the between-groups design “which can be made in one of two ways: two or more groups with different treatments; or two or more groups, one of which, the control group, receives no treatment” (p. 146).

As stated above, by conducting experiments, researchers can collect data on the effects of different variations on particular situations. There are three categories of experiments, *pre-experiment*, *quasi-experiment*, and *true-experiment* (Nunan 1992). While pre-experimental studies are distinctive since they contain one experimental group; in quasi-experimental and true-experimental studies, there are two groups: experimental and control groups. The difference between studies of quasi and true experiments is in the method of randomization. While samples are assigned randomly in true-experimental studies in accordance with their particular characteristics, samples participate in their natural settings for quasi-experimental studies. Therefore, the results of true-experimental studies are more reliable than other types of experiments since the effects of different variations on the outcome are controlled by assigning samples in accordance with their particular features.

Figure 20: Contrasting Pre-experiments, Quasi-Experiments, True Experiments Nunan (1992: 41)

<i>Type</i>	<i>Characteristics</i>
Pre-experiment	May have pre- and posttreatment test, but lacks a control group
Quasi-experiment	Has both pre- and posttests and experimental and control groups, but no random assignment of subjects
True-experimental	Has both pre- and posttests, experimental and control groups, and random assignment of subjects

#### **4.1.2.1 INTERACTION BASED RESEARCH**

Interaction-based research studies one of the main data collection methods whose objective is to analyze the conversational process of participants. By performing different tasks, it is intended to observe the natural procedure of participants' coping with the presented situations. Mackey and Gass describe the objective of interaction-based experimental study design as follows:

“the goal is usually to manipulate the kinds of interaction in which learners are involved, the kind of feedback they receive during interaction, and the kind of output they produce in order to determine the relationship between the various components of interaction and second language learning” (2005: 65).

However, analyzing this very natural process is very challenging job. Presenting an effective interaction-based research environment not only requires different equipment such as a good microphone or video, but a suitable environment in which participants will be able to concentrate on the tasks they perform. Additionally, researchers should be knowledgeable about the process so that they are aware of how to react in coping with the difficult situations that are faced by the participants. On the other hand, another challenging job with interaction based research is the analysis of the outcome. Researchers should transcribe all the process to be able to analyze the process in accordance with the objective of the study (Mackey and Gass).

There are different data collection techniques that can be used in the interaction paradigm. Mackey and Gass group these techniques into six headings as:

Figure 21: Techniques used in interaction-based experimental studies

Technique for data collection	Tasks
Picture Description Tasks	Describing a picture which is invisible for the interlocutor
Spot the Difference	Finding the differences in a picture by working together
Jigsaw Tasks	Solving a problem together by sharing information
Consensus Tasks	Trying to persuade the interlocutors to solve a problem in a particular way
Consciousness-Raising Tasks	Expressing opinions about how to solve a problem
Computer-Mediated Research	Communicating through a computer to solve a problem

#### 4.1.3. INTERVIEWS

Moser and Kalton (1971: 271) describe interviews as “a conversation between the interviewer and respondent with the purpose of eliciting certain information from the respondent”. It is one of the most subjective methods since it requires direct interaction with the respondent. Therefore, it is time-consuming in terms of both application and analysis (Bell 1993). However, especially to support data gathered by different approaches, interviews play a crucial role since they reflect the insight of the participants. Consequently, it is possible for a researcher to understand the rationale for the particular behaviour of a participant by the help of interviews.

There are three types of interviews, the *unstructured*, *semi-structured*, and *structured interview* (Bell 1993). The distinction is in the amount of control by the interviewer. In the structured interview, the questions are prepared in advance and they are directed to respondents one by one without considering the answers. In the unstructured interview, no preparation is made by the interviewer in advance. The flow is guided according to the responses of the interviewee. It is rather flexible and difficult to control. In semi-structured interviews, the interviewer has a general idea about what to talk about but there are no prepared questions. The flow is designed according to the responses of the interviewee by considering the general aim of the

interview. Because of its flexibility, semi-structured interviews are more preferable. As stated by Dowsett (cited in Nunan 1992: 149), “the advantages of the semi-structured interview are that it gives the interviewee a degree of power and control over the course of the interview”. Thanks to these, participants feel relaxed because of not being directed towards answering listed questions, and the researcher can control the flow by taking the general idea into consideration without seeming as the controller of the conversation.

#### **4.2. RATIONALE FOR AN INTERACTION-BASED EXPERIMENTAL STUDY DESIGN**

This study intends to examine the effects of visibility and proficiency level on the use of communication strategies. In an attempt to collect data with the aim of investigating these effects, it was crucial to present conditions in which participants perform particular tasks in different conditions. In doing so, it was crucial to design an experimental study which would be useful in comparing different variations.

This interaction based study, which include a narration task, was appropriate for our study since our aim was to identify the communications strategies that are used by learners in visible and invisible conditions. Rather than asking questions about their choice of dealing with a particular communication problem, it was intended to see participants’ use of communication strategies in a natural interactional setting.

#### **4.3. RATIONALE FOR SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW**

Interviews are a good way of investigating ideas, motives, and feelings. By the help of interacting with participants, a skilful researcher can be provided with information that is not revealed in a written response. (Bell 1993). Nunan (1992) categorizes interviews into three groups as being structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. In structured interviews, participants are directed questions regardless of their responses. However, in semi-structured interviews, interviewers have a general idea about what kind of questions to direct concerning the responses

of the interviewee and the flow of the interview is directed in according with the ideas of participants. In unstructured interviews, researchers do not control the flow of interview but the interview is guided by the responses of interviewee (Nunan 1992).

In this study, besides presenting a comfortable environment for the interviewees, it was vital for the interviewer to control the flow of the interview. Consequently, the semi-structured interview was the most appropriate type of interview since “the interviewer has general idea of where he or she wants the interview to go, and what should come out of it” (Nunan 1992: 149). The researcher did not prepare questions but he identified the points to be highlighted. In the process of the interview, the researcher and the story teller watched the performance together, and by pausing the video they talked about the feelings and thoughts of the story teller so as to clarify the reasons for their dealing with a problem in a particular way.

On the following day of the narration process, story tellers were interviewed individually. Interviews were conducted on the following day with the intention of preventing story-tellers from forgetting their thoughts and feelings in the process of narrating the movies. For the researcher to be prepared for the interview, the narration process was transcribed and communication strategies were identified on the same day.

#### **4.4. OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study aims to discover the effects of proficiency level and visibility on the use of communication strategies. The research questions addressed are as follows.

***RQ1-** What communication strategies are used?*

***RQ2-** Does presence of visible aids influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3-** Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3a-** Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in visible condition?*

***RQ3b-** Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in invisible condition?*

#### **4.5. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY**

This study consists of a pilot and a main study. The details of the process of these two studies will be explained in the following sections.

##### **4.5.1. PILOT STUDY**

###### **4.5.1.1. AIMS**

Since presenting the appropriate environment for interaction was vital for the validity and reliability of the study, it was essential to check whether the instruments were appropriate to collect the intended data. Consequently, the application of the pilot study was very helpful in terms of going through the procedure of the study and checking whether the aims indicated below were fulfilled or not.

**Aim 1 :** Is the room suitable for data collection?

**Aim 2 :** Is the seating of participants suitable for interaction?

**Aim 3 :** Is the panel designed appropriately to cover participants' body language?

**Aim 4 :** Are films suitable for making participants interact with each other?

**Aim 5 :** Is the recording clear enough to analyse video and sound?

**Aim 6 :** Is a semi-structured interview suitable for data collection about the reasons for using particular communication strategies?

**Aim 7 :** Is the time allocated adequate?

**Aim 8 :** How many pairs should participate in the study on the same day?

#### **4.5.1.2 SETTING**

The pilot study was conducted in the YADEM office within the English Language Teaching Department of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. The study was completed in three days during the winter semester of 2006-2007 academic year. Three pairs of students, composed of a story teller and an interlocutor, participated in this study. Five students were fourth grade students and one student was a first grade student, all from the English Language Teaching Department (see Figure 22)

Regardless the analysis of the data, it is intended to see whether the experimental environment is designed appropriately enough to fulfil the objectives of the study.

#### **4.5.1.3 PARTICIPANTS**

Six female students from the English Language Teaching Department participated in this study in three pairs. Each pair consisted of one story teller and one interlocutor. All of the three interlocutors and two of the story tellers were fourth grade students, and one story teller was a first grade student in the English Language Teaching Department. While the fourth grade students were considered highly proficient, the first grade student was considered of low proficiency regarding her studies in the English Language Teaching Department. The characteristics of the participants of the pilot study are displayed below in Figure 22.

After selecting the participants of the pilot study, each student was informed about the process of the study and they signed a consent form which indicated the confidentiality of the study. By signing this form, they accepted that they participated in this study willingly. (see Appendix A)



Figure 22: Participants in pilot study

Pair	1 <sup>st</sup> pair		2 <sup>nd</sup> pair		3 <sup>rd</sup> pair	
Role	Story teller	Interlocutor	Story teller	Interlocutor	Story teller	Interlocutor
Proficiency	Low	High	High	High	High	High

#### 4.5.1.4. MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTATIONS

##### 4.5.1.4.1 TWO SILENT MOVIES

Two silent movies were used as a stimulus for story tellers. These two movies were chosen from the video book of Oxford English Video (Streamline English Video), “A Week by the Sea’ by Peter Viney and Karen Viney (1987). These two videos were chosen from among six episodes since they included events which are suitable to understand without hearing the speech of the characters. And it was not required to have special knowledge to narrate these movies because both included daily events such as introducing the main characters, their preparations for going on a holiday, events take place in a camping place, leisure time activities, etc. For the details of each movie, see Appendix B and C.

##### 4.5.1.5 PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

As shown in Figure 23 below, in the pilot study, the study was conducted over two days with each pair. On the first day, both story teller and interlocutor participated in the study. However, on the second day, only the story teller participated and interviews were conducted by viewing the performance of the story teller on the previous day.

Each story teller narrated two of the films to her interlocutor in different conditions. The story teller entered the room and watched the movie silently twice. After watching the movie, story tellers were given a minute to be prepared to retell

the story. Afterwards, the interlocutor entered the room and the story teller started to narrate the story.

For the first condition, a panel was placed between speakers to prevent them seeing each other. Therefore, in the first condition, the speakers could not see each other and they tried to communicate solely by hearing their voices. After the end of their communication, the story teller left the room and the interlocutor was asked to retell the story to the researcher. In this process, the researcher did not intervene by asking questions.

For the second condition, a different movie was watched by the same story teller. After watching the movie twice and preparing for a minute, the interlocutor entered the room again. Like the first condition, the story teller started to narrate story. However, in the second condition, there were no panels and speakers were able to see each other. After the end of communication, the interlocutor was asked to retell the story to the research in order to see how much they had comprehended the story.

In the following days, story tellers of each group were interviewed individually with questions about their performance in video with the aim of clarifying the communication strategies they had preferred to understand and retell the story. Interviews were transcribed on the same day and the strategies that had been used were identified in order to be able to clarify reasons for their preferences for these strategies. These interviews were also videotaped in order to be able to get some visual data since CSs also contain non-linguistic visual properties. Figure 23 describes the flow of procedure for data collection.

Figure 23: Procedure flow of data collection in pilot study

1 <sup>st</sup> Day	Part I 1 <sup>st</sup> Day	Story teller views the first movie	6-11 min.
		Story teller views the first movie again	6 min.
		Preparation to retell the story	1 min.
		The interlocutor enters the room	
		<b>ACTION</b>	5 min.
		Interview with interlocutor	5 min.
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>23-28 min.</b>
	Part II	Story teller views the second movie	6-11 min.
		Story teller views the second movie again	6 min.
		Preparation to retell the story	1 min.
		The interlocutor enters the room	
		<b>ACTION (PANEL)</b>	5 min.
		Interview with interlocutor	5 min.
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>23-28 min.</b>
2 <sup>nd</sup> Day	Part III 2 <sup>nd</sup> Day	Performance view	12-20 min.
		Interview about performance with story teller	10-15 min.
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>22-35 min.</b>
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>58-91 min.</b>

#### 4.5.1.6. FINDINGS AND OBSERVATIONS

**Aim 1:** Is the venue suitable for data collection?

The pilot study was conducted in the office of the Director of YADEM (Foreign Language Research and Practice Center). In the process of data collection, it was observed that an allocated room would be necessary for our study in order to present a more suitable interactional environment to the participant. Since the data collection procedure would be completed during more than a month, a manager's office would not be appropriate for use. To avoid delays and problems which might affect the procedure of data collection, it would be wise to conduct the study in an allocated room.

**Aim 2:** Is the seating of participants suitable for interaction?

Seating of participants was very crucial issue for our study since we needed to see their body language while they were talking with each other. Participants were seated face to face so that they could observe their gestures and body language and

the camera was placed suitably to see the speakers' body language and record speech clearly. In the pilot study, it was seen that there were not any problematic points in terms of observing their body language. (see Appendix E)

**Aim 3:** Is the panel designed appropriately to cover participants' body language?

In the pilot study, a piece of cardboard was used. However, while watching the video, it was seen that the view of the panel was not aesthetic. Therefore, a new panel which would present a better view for participants was necessary.

**Aim 4:** Are films suitable for making participants interact with each other?

In the process of narration in the pilot study, no student had trouble in organizing their speech. It was concluded that the events that take place in both films are appropriate for participants in terms of their proficiency level and interest. However, since the second film was longer and more complicated than the first one, it was decided to swap the conditions that were narrated for each film. For instance, while the first pair narrated the first movie in visible and the second movie in invisible condition, the second pair performed vice versa by narrating the first movie in invisible and the second movie in visible condition.

**Aim 5:** Is the recording clear enough to analyse video and sound?

In the process of transcription, it was seen that there were no problematic issues in identifying the conversations of the participants.

**Aim 6:** Is a semi-structured interview suitable for data collection about the reasons for using particular communication strategies?

After transcription, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the aim of perceiving the feelings and thoughts of speakers while using a communication strategy. In the pilot study, rather than using structured or un-structured types of

interviews, it was concluded that conducting a semi-structured interview would be more suitable. Thanks to this, the researcher would know which points of the process to emphasize and conduct the interview according to the responses of the interviewee and students would feel relaxed since they would not be directed to questions that were prepared beforehand.

**Aim 7:** Is the time allocated adequate?

In designing the procedure of the pilot study, it was estimated that sixty minutes would be adequate for each pair. However, it was observed that the study took much more time since story tellers watched each movie two times. Therefore, the schedule was rearranged in a way that students could perform more than ninety minutes.

**Aim 8:** How many pairs should participate on the same day?

Before the pilot study, it was thought that three pairs might participate on the same day. However, since the transcription of the narration took longer than expected, it was concluded that it was not possible to work with three pairs on the same day. Since it was crucial to transcribe the narration process and identify the communication strategies on the following day with the aim of being prepared for the interview, it was decided not to apply the study with more than two pairs in one day.

#### **4.5.1.7 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MAIN STUDY**

This section covers the aspects of the pilot study in terms of its contribution to the main study. In the process of the pilot study, it was observed that the films chosen were suitable for the levels of students. The films also provided enough stimuli since students had no difficulty in finding something to talk about. However, although it was estimated that half an hour would be enough for one pair, it was seen

that the performance of each pair lasted almost an hour. Therefore, it was wise to allocate an hour for each pair.

The problematic point was the setting of the pilot study. When the videos were watched, it was obvious that the panel which was placed between the speakers were not designed well. Additionally, seeing as the process took much time, it was concluded that a private room was needed for the study. Therefore, it was decided to change the setting of the study and design a new panel.

Another important issue which seemed problematic in the pilot study was the interviews. In the process of conducting the interviews, it was understood that the researchers should analyze data carefully before the interviews. Otherwise, interviews would not yield the desired data triangulation. Therefore, it was essential for the researcher to transcribe and analyze the conversation process on the same day of data collection.

#### **4.5.2. MAIN STUDY**

##### **4.5.2.1 SETTING**

The study was conducted in English Language Teaching Department of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University with thirty-four students. The study was carried out during the spring semester of the 2006-2007 academic year. Students were selected from the ELT department since the researcher was employed in the department; and it was unproblematic to choose the most appropriate students by the help of lecturers' opinions of students' personal characteristics.

##### **4.5.2.2 PARTICIPANTS**

34 Turkish learners of English as a foreign language participated in this study. The participants were students of the English Language Teaching Department at

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. Due to the fact that the department did not have many males, the participants were all selected among female students. The most proficient participants were selected as the interlocutors of story-tellers. Story-tellers consisted of 8 low and 9 highly proficient students. While low proficiency students were selected among first grade students who had been studying English for twelve years, high level students were selected from among 4<sup>th</sup> grade students who had the ability to use English in an academic setting. These interlocutors interacted with the story tellers and tried to understand the story by addressing questions to their partners. Since it was crucial for us to have highly proficient participants as interlocutors, we selected these participants from the 4<sup>th</sup> grade students.

In selecting the participants with low proficiency level, we took 1<sup>st</sup> grade students' mid-term exam results of their 'Oral Communication Skills' course. We also observed the procedure of this testing to see whether it was appropriate to choose our participants with reference to these results. The procedure of this testing was consisted of two different stages. In the first section, students were asked questions about the stories that they had already read, such as its plot, major characters, setting, etc. In the last stage, students were asked questions such as describing a photograph, comparing two people in different photographs, etc. We selected ten medium students from among 80 students.

In selecting high level students, we observed their presentations on the Testing and Evaluation Course and we asked the opinions of the educators who had been studying with these classes for more than two years whether they would be helpful for our study or not.

After selecting the participants, a meeting was held with the aim of informing participants about the process of the study. Here, it was intended to make the participants knowledgeable about the expectations by presenting the procedure of the study including its aims and methods. After the meeting, participants were asked whether they are willing to participate in the study or not. Students who were willing signed a consent form which shows that they participated in the study without any

forcing. In place of unwilling students, other suitable students were invited and they were informed about the process of the study. They were asked whether they were willing to participate or not.

Initially, forty-six students were invited to the meeting which was held to inform students about the procedure of the research study. While twenty-five students agreed to participate in the study, twenty-one students did not attend the meeting or refused to participate in the study. This absence was compensated by inviting extra nine students who had similar characteristics with previous students.

Figure 24: Proficiency levels of participants

	Story teller	Interlocutor
	Proficiency	
1 <sup>st</sup> pair	High	High
2 <sup>nd</sup> pair	High	High
3 <sup>rd</sup> pair	High	High
4 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	High
5 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	High
6 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	High
7 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	High
8 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	High
9 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	High
1 <sup>st</sup> pair	Low	High
2 <sup>nd</sup> pair	Low	High
3 <sup>rd</sup> pair	Low	High
4 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	High
5 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	High
6 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	High
7 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	High
8 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	High

#### 4.5.2.3 MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTATION

##### 4.6.2.3.1. TWO SILENT MOVIES

The same movies, which were chosen from among six episodes of the video book of Oxford English Video (Streamline English Video) , “A Week by the Sea” by Peter Viney and Karen Viney (1987) were used for the main study.



#### **4.5.2.4 PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION**

As shown in Figure 25, the data collection procedure included twelve different parts which were performed over two days.

For the first part, the story teller watched the movie silently. In the second part, story-tellers were asked to watch the same movie again with the aim of helping them to clarify uncertain points. After watching the same movie twice, a minute was given to story tellers and they were asked to organize their speech. Afterwards, the interlocutor entered the room and story tellers narrated the movie to them. There was no time limit and they could ask questions to each other with the aim of comprehending the story better. In the fifth part, the story teller left the room and the interlocutor retold the story to the researcher. Here, the researcher did not intervene in her speech and he did not direct any questions so as not to make the interlocutors feel confused.

The same procedure was followed for the second movie and the other five tasks were performed similar to the previous tasks. However, the condition was different for this narration process. The pairs, who performed the first part of the study in visible condition, narrated the second movie in invisible condition or vice versa.

These ten tasks were completed on the first day, and only story tellers were invited on the second day of the study. While watching the video of their performances, questions were directed about why she had reacted in particular ways to overcome communication problems.

Figure 25: Procedure flow of data collection in main study

1 <sup>st</sup> Day	Part I 1 <sup>st</sup> Day	Story teller views the first movie	6-11 min.
		Story teller views the first movie again	6 – 11 min.
		Preparation to retell the story	1 min.
		The interlocutor enters the room	
		ACTION (VISIBLE)	5 min.
		Interview with interlocutor	5 min.
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>23-28 min.</b>
	Part II	Story teller views the second movie	6-11 min.
		Story teller views the second movie again	6 min.
		Preparation to retell the story	1 min.
		The interlocutor enters the room	
		ACTION (INVISIBLE)	5 min.
		Interview with interlocutor	5 min.
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>23-28 min.</b>
2 <sup>nd</sup> Day	Part III 2 <sup>nd</sup> Day	Performance view	12-20 min.
		Interview about performance with story teller	10-15 min.
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>22-35 min.</b>
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>58-91 min.</b>

#### 4.5.2.5 PROCEDURE FOR DATA ANALYSIS

##### 4.5.2.5.1 CODING AND TRANSCRIPTION

Coding refers to making decisions about how to label or organize the raw data (Mackey and Gass 2005). This organization process is crucial since it helps researchers to identify any messy data with reference to the objectives of the study. Another important point is the transcription of the oral data which enables researchers to analyze it in written form. In this study, the process of the narration of movies by story tellers was transcribed so as to identify the communication strategies used by story tellers. Transcription conventions, which are displayed in Figure 26 with reference to symbols and their meaning, are adapted from Altay (2004).

Figure 26: Transcription conventions (adapted from Altay 2004)

Symbols	Meanings
[brackets]	Non-linguistic devices
...	Pause
Err	Filler words
[unclear]	Unclear record

In identifying the communication strategies, Dörnyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy of Communication Strategies was employed since it was the most recent and detailed study of classifying CSs. In classifying CSs, Dörnyei and Scott (1995) identified forty different CSs, whose definitions are given below.

Figure 27: Classification of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei and Scott 1995)

<i>Direct Strategies</i>		
Strategy	Description	Example
<b>Message abandonment</b>	Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	<i>It is a person er... who is responsible for a house, fort he block of house... I don't know... [laughter]</i>
<b>Message reduction</b>	Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures	<i>Retrospective comment: I was looking for "satisfied with a good job, pleasantly tired" and so on, but instead I accepted less</i>
<b>Topic avoidance</b>	Reducing topics considered problematic languagewise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources	
<b>Message replacement</b>	Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it	<i>Retrospective comment : after saying that the pipe was broken in the middle instead of "the screw thread was broken" [I did not know "screw thread" and well, I had to say something]</i>
<b>Circumlocution</b>	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action	<i>"It becomes water" instead of "melt"</i>
<b>Approximation</b>	Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure.	<i>"Plate" instead of "bowl"</i>
<b>Use of all-purpose words</b>	Extending a general "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking	<i>The overuse of thing, stuff, make, do, as well as words like thingie, what-do-you-call; e.g. I can't work until you repair my...thing</i>
<b>Word-coinage</b>	Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word	<i>Retrospective comment after using dejunktion and unjunktion for "street clearing": I think I approached it in a very scientific way: from "junk" I formed a noun and I tried to add the negative prefix "de-"; to "unjunk" is to 'clear the junk and "unjunktion" is 'street cleaning'.</i>
<b>Restructuring</b>	Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan.	<i>On Mickey's face we can see the.... So he's he's he's wondering</i>
<b>Literal translation</b>	Translating literally a lexical item, idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2	<i>I'd made a big fault (translated from French)</i>

<b>Foreignising</b>	Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e. with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology	<i>Reperate for "repair" [adjusting the German word 'reparieren']</i>
<b>Code switching</b>	Including L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns	<i>Using the Latin ferrum for "iron"</i>
<b>Use similar-sounding words</b>	Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item.	Retrospective comment explaining why the speaker used <i>cap</i> instead of "pan". <i>Because it was similar to the word which I wanted o say : "pan"</i>
<b>Mumbling</b>	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about	<i>And uh well Mickey Mouse looks surprise or sort of XXX [the sort of marker indicated that the unintelligible part is not just a mere recording failure but strategy]</i>
<b>Omission</b>	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said.	<i>Then. err...the sun is is.. hmm sun is... and the Mickey Mouse... [Retrospective comment : I did not know what 'shine' was.]</i>
<b>Retrieval</b>	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form	<i>It's brake er... it's broken broked broke.</i>
<b>Mime</b>	Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration	Retrospective comment: <i>I was miming here, to put it out in front of the house, because I couldn't remember the word</i>
<b>Self-repair</b>	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech	<i>Then the sun shines and the weather get be.. gets be</i>
<b>Other repair</b>	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.	Speaker: <i>...because our tip went wrong...</i> Interlocutor: <i>Oh, you mean the tap.</i>
<b>Self-rephrasing</b>	Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase	<i>I don't know the material... what it's made of..</i>
<b>Indirect Strategies</b>		
<b>Use of fillers</b>	Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty	Examples range from very short structures <i>as well; you know; actually; okey</i> to longer phrases <i>such as this is rather difficult to explain; well, actually, it's a good question</i>
<b>Self-repetition</b>	Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said	[Retrospective comment:] <i>I wanted to say that it was made of concrete but I did not know 'concrete' and this is why "which was made, which was made" was said twice</i>
<b>Other-repetition</b>	Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time	<i>Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time</i>
<b>Feigning understanding</b>	Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand	Interlocutor : <i>Do you have the rubber washer?</i> Speaker: <i>The rubber washer? No I don't.</i> [Retrospective Comment: <i>I didn't know the meaning of the word, and finally I managed to say I had no such thing</i> ]
<b>Verbal strategy markers</b>	Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.	<i>Using phrases as I don't really know what its called in English. Some kind of.. we call them..</i>
<b>Interactional Strategies</b>		
<b>Direct appeal for help</b>	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge	<i>It's a kind of old clock so when it strucks err... I don't know, one, two or three o'clock then a bird is coming out. What's the name?</i>
<b>Indirect appeal for help</b>	Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally	<i>I don't know the name... [rising intonation, pause, eye contact]</i>
<b>Asking for repetition</b>	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly	<i>Pardon? What?</i>
<b>Asking for clarification</b>	Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure	<i>What do you mean? You saw what? Also 'question repeats,' that is, echoing a word or a structure with a question intonation.</i>
<b>Asking for confirmation</b>	Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly	<i>Repeating the trigger in a "question repeat" or asking a full question, such as You said..? You mean...? Do you...?</i>

<b>Guessing</b>	Guessing is similar to a confirmation request but the latter implies a greater degree of certainty regarding the key word, whereas guessing involves real indecision.	<i>Oh. It is then not the washing machine? Is it a sink?</i>
<b>Expressing non-understanding</b>	Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally	Interlocutor: <i>What is the diameter of the pipe?</i> Speaker: <i>The diameter?</i> I: <i>The diameter.</i> S: <i>I don't know this thing</i> I: <i>How was the pipe?</i>
<b>Interpretive summary</b>	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly	<i>So the pipe is broken, basically, and you don't know what to do with it right?</i>
<b>Comprehension check</b>	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you	<i>And what is the diameter of the pipe? Do you know what the diameter is?</i>
<b>Own-accuracy check</b>	Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation	<i>I can see a huge snow... snowman? Snowman in the garden.</i>
<b>Response repeat</b>	Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other-repair)	
<b>Response repair</b>	Providing other-initiated self repair	Speaker: <i>The water was not able to get up and I ...</i> Interlocutor: <i>Get up? Where?</i> Speaker: <i>Get down.</i>
<b>Response rephrase</b>	Rephrasing the trigger	Interlocutor: <i>And do you happen to know if you have rubber washer?</i> Speaker: <i>Pardon?</i> Interlocutor: <i>The rubber washer...it's the thing which is in the pipe.</i>
<b>Response expand</b>	Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context	Interlocutor: <i>Do you know maybe er what the diameter of the pipe is?</i> Speaker: <i>Pardon?</i> Interlocutor: <i>Diameter, this is er maybe you learnt in mathematics and you sign er with this part of things.</i>
<b>Response confirm</b>	Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested	Interlocutor: <i>Uh, you mean under the sink, the pipe? For the...</i> Speaker: <i>Yes yes.</i>

#### 4.5.2.5.2. INTER-RATER RELIABILITY FOR IDENTIFYING COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

A random transcription was selected and communication strategies were identified by two raters through Pearson Correlation Coefficient Procedure. A high correlation coefficient was found between the two raters ( $r: .920$  and  $p < .01$ ), which was consistent enough to proceed to further statistical analysis.

#### 4.5.2.5.3 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The use of CSs and the effects of proficiency and visibility on the use of CSs were investigated by using descriptive and inferential statistical tests of Statistical

Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 10.0. The research questions of the study are given below:

***RQ1** - What communication strategies are used?*

***RQ2** - Does presence of visible aids influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3a** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in visible condition?*

***RQ3b** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in invisible condition?*

Each research question was analyzed independently. The significance level for the results was set at .05.

For RQ1, descriptive statistics were employed to see the frequencies of CSs, total use and strategy repertoire size.

Paired Samples T-Test was employed for RQ2 to identify the relationship between the use of CSs and visibility condition.

For RQ3, a Kruskal Wallis test was used to see if proficiency level affects the use of CSs.

#### **4.6 SUMMARY**

This chapter described the methodology of research. The rationale for implementing particular data collection methods is presented. By describing the results of the pilot study, it was intended to highlight its contribution to the main study. Afterwards, the data collection procedure of the main study was explained in detail.

## **CHAPTER FIVE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

### **5.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter starts with a brief discussion of the aim and research questions of the study. The results of numerical data are presented with reference to examples of participants' use of particular communication strategies. Afterwards, statistical analysis of the data for each research question is discussed.

#### **5.1. AIM OF THE STUDY**

This study aims to investigate the effects of visibility in interaction on the use of communication strategies. Additionally, it is intended to explore whether proficiency level influences communication strategy use.

#### **5.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study dealt with the following research questions:

***RQ1** - What communication strategies are used?*

***RQ2** - Does presence of visible aids influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3a** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in visible condition?*

***RQ3b** - Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in invisible condition?*

In the following sections, the findings of the study will be reported.

### 5.3. RESULTS OF NUMERICAL ANALYSIS

#### 5.3.1 WHAT COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES WERE USED?

This section explores two different aspects of the use of Communication Strategies. Firstly, it presents which strategies are used and how they are employed. Secondly, it presents frequency of strategies.

##### 5.3.1.1. IDENTIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Dörnyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy was made use of in this study as a source of reference. Although the taxonomy was useful, it was often challenging to identify communication strategies. While some strategies were easy to recognize, others were problematic to classify. For some strategies such as *mime*, *restructuring*, *use of fillers*, *self repetition*, *self repair*, *guessing*, *appeals help*, *code switching*, the interpretations of the speaker in rationalizing the use of particular strategy were not required since these strategies were easy to recognize. Examples are given below:

Figure 28: Examples of communication strategies which are easy to identify

Student	Example	Strategy
Student 2	The first pair <b>err</b> are two women and one of them is a hair dresser	Use of fillers
Student 4	<b>There were there were</b> three stories	Self repetition
Student 8	And he gets angry with him <b>and they err and then</b> the painter starts to paint the house	Restructuring
Student 11	Tailor. <b>Kuaför demek istedim</b>	Code switching
Student 13	Firstly <b>there was there were</b> two women err in a hairdresser	Self repair

As shown in Figure 28, since the functions of these strategies were obvious, the comments of speakers were not required to identify them. For instance, it was clear that Student 2 had difficulty in what to say next, so she uttered *err* so as to gain time to think about the flow of communication. Therefore, it was possible to categorize these kinds of strategies as *use of fillers* without asking the speakers since the intention was obvious. This was the same for other strategies illustrated in the table above. It is obvious that Student 4 employed *self repetition* and Student 8



*restructured* the statement she meant to explain. And it was unquestionable that Students 11 and 13 employed the strategies *code switching* and *self repair*. Therefore, in the interviews, questions to understand the function of these strategies were not addressed to interviewees but participants were asked questions to perceive the rationale of their use of these strategies.

However, this was not the case for all strategies. It was not possible to identify strategies by analyzing the transcription of the story narration. Therefore it was necessary to ask the intentions of speakers to see whether they had employed a strategy or not. These strategies included *approximation*, *message replacement*, *message abandonment*, *topic avoidance*, and *literal translation*.

Figure 29: Examples of communication strategies which are difficult to identify

Student	Example	Strategy
Student 10	And she err <b>make hair</b> also	Approximation
Student 11	And err in first event <b>there was a tailor</b>	Message replacement
Student 1	<b>Because he had a neyse önemli değil</b> the others are also shocked	Message abandonment
Student 17	The painter man try to do err learn golf the small area and he is able to play. <b>That's all</b>	Topic avoidance
Student 11	he hit the golf ball but it <b>went to tree.</b>	Literal translation

Sample sentences illustrated above demonstrate that these strategies are difficult to explore without consulting the speaker. For instance, Students 10 used “make hair” to describe the profession of a hairdresser. However, it was not possible to perceive the function of the use without asking the speaker’s intention. In the interview, when the speaker was asked to explain the reason for using “make hair”, it was clarified that she used it instead of “do hair”. This demonstrated that she employed *approximation* rather than literal translation. This was the same for other strategies. Student 11 used “tailor” instead of “painter”. To understand this reason, it was vital for us to interview the student. After the interview, it was discovered that the speaker used “tailor” instead of “painter” since she could not recall “painter” in the process of narration. Therefore she reduced the message.

### 5.3.1.2. TYPES OF STRATEGIES USED

In this study, it is observed that of thirty-nine communication strategies proposed by Dörnyei and Scott (1995), thirty-two of them were employed by the participants. In other words, nearly all of the strategies (82 %) were employed. Figure 30 shows communication strategies that were employed and not employed by the participants in the study.

Figure 30: Strategies employed and not employed in the study

Classification	Nature	Strategies employed	Strategies not employed
Direct Strategies	Resource deficit-related strategies	Message abandonment Message reduction Topic avoidance Message replacement Circumlocution Approximation Use of all purpose words Word coinage Restructuring Literal translation Code switching Omission Retrieval Mime	Mumbling Foreignizing Use Of Similar Sounding Words
	Own performance related strategies	Self rephrasing Self repair	
	Other performance related strategies	Other repair	
Interactional Strategies	Resource deficit-related strategies	Direct appeal for help Indirect appeal for help	
	Own performance related strategies	Comprehension check Own accuracy check	
	Other performance related strategies	Asking for repetition Asking for clarification Asking for confirmation Guessing Expressing non-understanding Interpretive summary Response confirm Response repeat Response reject	Response expand Response repair
Indirect Strategies	Processing time pressure-related strategies	Use of Fillers Self repetition	
	Own performance related strategies		Verbal strategy markers
	Other performance related strategies		Feigning understanding

As displayed in the table above, strategies that were not employed in the study are mainly related to the performance of interlocutor and deficiency of the resource. Specifically, it is illustrated that participants did not employ strategies such as *feigning understanding*, *response expand*, and *response repair* that refer to another person's performance; and strategies such as *mumbling*, *foreignising*, and *use of similar sounding words* that are about the deficiency of the resource.

This illustrates that rather than using *feigning understanding* as a communication strategy, which means carrying on the conversation in spite of not understanding something (Dörnyei and Scott 1997), participants prefer to use strategies which would help them to understand the narrated film better, such as *asking for repetition*, *asking for clarification*, *asking for confirmation*, *guessing*, *interpretive summary*, *responses*, *appeals for help*, *repairs*, etc.

Another remarkable point was participants not preferring to use *verbal strategy markers* such as *some kind of*, *we call them*, *I don't know what*, etc. but employing *self-repair*, *self rephrase*, or *self repetition* when they felt they were unable to express themselves clearly.

*Response repair* and *response expand* were other two strategies that were not employed by the participants. It is obvious that learners need to talk a lot to employ *response expand*, which is defined as putting the problem word/issue into a larger context (Dörnyei and Scott). In doing so, learners need to go into detail which requires having self confidence or feeling relaxed. Another point of *response expand* is self-monitoring. Speakers should monitor their performance in the process of communication to see whether they need to expand the intended message or not. Participants may not be using self-monitoring to check their performance and this may be reason for their not using *respond expand* as a communication strategy. Affective reasons may also affect the use of *respond expand*. Since some of the participants tried to narrate story as briefly as possible, they did not prefer to expand on what they had just said. And for *response repair*, it is observed that interlocutors

did not correct story-tellers' responses. This may be a result of interlocutors' not having an idea of what is being explained. Therefore, they could not correct the responses but they accepted as it is narrated by the story tellers.

Other strategies that were not employed in the study were *mumbling*, *foreignizing*, and *use of similar sounding words*.

Among nineteen story tellers, no one was observed employing *mumbling*, which is defined as swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word whose correct form she is uncertain about (Dörnyei and Scott 1995). On the contrary, they used different strategies such as *appeal for help*, *mime*, *message reduction*, *message abandonment*, and *topic avoidance*, etc. when they felt uncertain about what to say next.

Additionally, no use of L1 word by adjusting L2 phonology was identified. Rather than employing *foreignizing* as a communication strategy, participants prefer to use *approximation* and *literal translation* when they were unsure about which vocabulary to use.

The last strategy which was not employed in the study was *use of similar sounding words*. This strategy is defined as compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word which sounds more or less like the target item (Dörnyei and Scott 1995). As explained above, participants prefer to use *approximation* and *literal translation* when they had difficulty with vocabulary.

### **5.3.1.3. MANNER OF USE OF STRATEGIES**

In the process of analyzing the communication strategies employed by pairs, it was seen that many distinct points occurred among pairs. It is observed that while some participants spent much time on narrating the story, little time was spent by others. This difference is shown in Table 1 the duration of each narration process for each pair.

Table 1: Duration of each narration process

Pair	Proficiency	Condition	Movie	Duration
1	High	Vis	1	11"
		Invis	2	15"
		<i>Total</i>		26"
2	High	Vis	2	4"
		Invis	1	3"
		<i>Total</i>		7"
3	High	Vis	1	4"
		Invis	2	6"
		<i>Total</i>		10"
4	High	Vis	2	6"
		Invis	1	8"
		<i>Total</i>		14"
5	High	Vis	1	5"
		Invis	2	7"
		<i>Total</i>		12"
6	High	Vis	2	7"
		Invis	1	7"
		<i>Total</i>		14"
7	High	Vis	2	6"
		Invis	1	4"
		<i>Total</i>		10"
8	High	Vis	1	3"
		Invis	2	7"
		<i>Total</i>		10"
9	High	Vis	2	9"
		Invis	1	9"
		<i>Total</i>		18"
	<b>HIGH</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>121"</b>
10	Low	Vis	1	4"
		Invis	2	11"
		<i>Total</i>		15"
11	Low	Vis	2	4"
		Invis	1	3"
		<i>Total</i>		7"
12	Low	Vis	1	6"
		Invis	2	10"
		<i>Total</i>		16"
13	Low	Vis	2	3"
		Invis	1	5"
		<i>Total</i>		8"
14	Low	Vis	1	5"
		Invis	2	4"
		<i>Total</i>		9"
15	Low	Vis	1	2"
		Invis	2	2"
		<i>Total</i>		4"
16	Low	Vis	1	4"
		Invis	2	4"
		<i>Total</i>		8"
17	Low	Vis	2	2"
		Invis	1	3"
		<i>Total</i>		5"
	<b>LOW</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>72"</b>
	<b>HIGH + LOW</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>193</b>

As illustrated in the table above, 193 minutes were spent in total by 17 pairs to narrate two different movies. While 63% of this was time (121") spent by highly proficient students, lowly proficient students spent only 37% (72") of the total time.

In the process of data collection, it is observed that lowly proficient learners tried to summarize the movies so as to complete the task as soon as possible. Since they felt not proficient enough to retell the story in detail, they just attempted to narrate the gist of the story. Inevitably, this affected the number of strategies employed by low proficiency learners.

Another remarkable point was the difference in time that each student spent on the same task in the same visibility condition. As can be seen in the table above, while Student 1 narrated Film 2 in 11 minutes in the visible condition, Student 17 spent 2 minutes to narrate it. In other words, while Student 1 tried to retell the movie in detail by controlling whether it was comprehended by the interlocutor or not, the 17<sup>th</sup> student narrated the story generally so as to avoid difficulties in narration. Namely, individual differences may have biased the data.

Generally, similar points were also observed in the use of communication strategies. One such similarity was about the speakers' need to gain time to think. In doing so, *use of fillers* and *self repetition* were employed commonly. Students uttered "err" or they repeated the word or phrase they had just said. This is illustrated in protocol extracts in Figures 31 and 32.

Figure 31: Examples of the use of fillers

Student	Use of fillers
Student 1	He is <b>err</b> [body language] <b>errrr</b> drinking
Student 6	Err the older one <b>err</b> goes to the err coiffeur and <b>err</b> wants to make her hair <b>err</b> [body language]
Student 11	And <b>err</b> they are <b>err</b> after somewhere they had an argument and woman saw one of her friends and her friend
Student 16	And then <b>err</b> she look at the mirror again and then <b>err</b> at this time she err like it

Figure 32: Examples of the use of self repetition

Student	Self repetition
Student 3	Because <b>she is</b> I think <b>she is</b> going to change her hair style.
Student 5	...and <b>when the time when the time</b> come to the lady to see her hair...
Student 13	<b>The first couple's the first couple's</b> man who sits in the restaurant couldn't manage to play tennis
Student 16	There is a man <b>who is who is</b> a extraordinary

As illustrated in Figure 31 and Figure 32, *use of fillers* or *self repetition* are employed when students need time to think about and plan the next part of their speech.

Another common point was the use of *approximation*. In the process of identification of communication strategies, it was seen that approximation was employed by almost every story teller by using an alternative word or phrase which is semantically similar to the intended one. This is illustrated in Figure 33.

Figure 33: Examples of the use of approximation

Student	Approximation
Student 8	And err the man err was trying to <b>make a tent</b>
Student 9	A woman in a blue shirt appears and she is <b>making her hair</b>
Student 10	Err then the golf the hairdresser's husband try <b>to study by himself</b>
Student 17	He kicks the ball wrongly and cannot <b>kick</b> the ball

Sample sentences displayed in Figure 33 illustrate that students used similar words. Student 8 used “make a tent” instead of “put up a tent”, Student 9 described the profession of hair dresser as “making hair” instead of “doing hair”, Student 10 explained a “training” activity in the film as “studying”, and Student 17 used “kick” as a verb instead of “hit”. These examples show that students used *approximation* when they did not or could not recall the target word. Instead, they used similar words which were contextually and semantically inappropriate to use but helpful for the interlocutor.

*Self repair* was another common strategy that was employed in the study. Some sample sentences about the function of *self repair* are illustrated in the Figure below:

Figure 34: Examples of the use of self repair

Student	Self repair
Student 1	I think he is a little bit lazy not hardworking and <b>don't doesn't</b> want to work
Student 7	In fact there was a camping like a camping because <b>there were there was</b> a tent with them
Student 10	her hair is good and the old lady <b>is happy was happy</b>
Student 14	And err in front of her a woman <b>there are there is</b> a woman

As shown in Figure 34, speakers repeated the phrase by correcting the mistakes they had just made. These mistakes were commonly about tense usage.

*Self-rephrase* was strategy which was employed commonly with similar intentions to *self-repair*. It is observed that story tellers needed to rephrase the word or phrase they had just said since they thought that they were not able to send the intended message clearly.

Figure 35: Examples of the use of self rephrase

Student	Self rephrase
Student 2	Later on we see that <b>the man I mean the husband</b>
Student 6	while he was err preparing the he was setting the tent err they went to <b>place camping place</b> err
Student 10	And <b>a woman hairdresser</b> didn't like there
Student 12	<b>They are depressed err they do not feel relaxed</b>

Sample sentences illustrated above demonstrate that students use *self rephrase* with the aim of clarifying the meaning. For example, Student 2 thought that the interlocutor might be confused in identifying who the man was; so she explained that this man was the husband. This rephrasing of unclear words or phrases was used by almost all pairs.



*Restructuring* was other commonly used strategy. Story tellers employed restructuring when they discontinued the statement and attempted to explain the intended message in a different way.

Figure 36: Examples of the use of restructuring

Student	Restructuring
Student 1	<b>She is very she prepared</b> err herself err very well
Student 7	<b>Because they when they went</b> each other they smile
Student 13	<b>And the hairdresser is a little err is making mistakes</b>
Student 15	he woman is a hairdresser and <b>the man's job he paints a wall</b>

As can be seen in the table above, *restructuring* is used with the aim of restarting the statement as a result of some communication problems. Sample sentences illustrate that students decided to explain the intended message in a different way after having trouble with the statement they uttered. In other words, they rephrased the statement.

The findings on the manner of strategy use in this study correspond to previous studies which were carried out to explore the nature of these CSs. In other words, the intentions of participants in employing particular communication strategies seem parallel to their functions and definitions, as proposed by Dörnyei and Scott (1997).

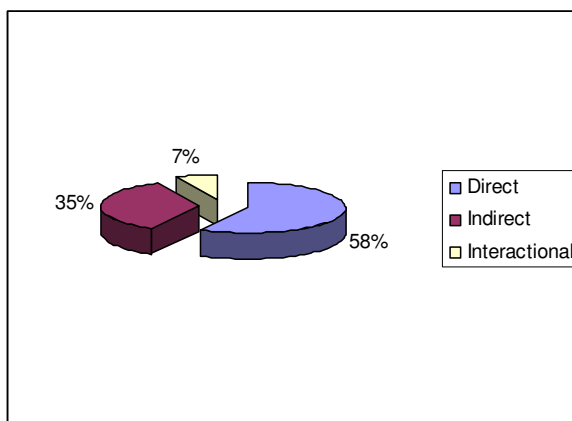
#### 5.3.1.4 FREQUENCY OF USE OF STRATEGIES

A descriptive tabulation of each token use of strategies revealed that some strategies were preferred more than others. Table 2 displays the frequency of the use of these strategies.

Table 2: Frequency of the strategies in accordance with classification

	%		%
Direct Strategies	57.6	Resource deficit-related strategies	34.1
		Own performance problem-related strategies	23.3
		Other performance problem-related strategies	0.2
Indirect Strategies	35.3	Processing time pressure-related strategies	35.3
		Own performance problem-related strategies	-
		Other performance problem-related strategies	-
Interactional Strategies	7.1	Resource deficit-related strategies	0.5
		Own performance problem-related strategies	1
		Other performance problem-related strategies	5.6

Figure 37: Frequency of the strategies in accordance with classification



As displayed in Table 2 and Figure 37, more than half of the strategies employed in the study were *direct strategies* (57.6%). This shows that strategies employed in the study are commonly related to speaker's lack of knowledge. This is supported by Dörnyei and Scott (1997) in defining the function of direct strategies as the "provider of an alternative, manageable, and self-contained means of getting the (sometimes modified) meaning across, like circumlocution compensating for the lack of a word" (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997: 198). In other words, in this study, rather than interacting with the interlocutor, participants employed strategies after recognizing that the explanation was not clear.

Direct strategies are followed by *indirect strategies* (35.3%) whose aim is to maintain conversation by presenting different meaning structures (Dörnyei and Scott

1995). These strategies are not problem-oriented but about gaining time with the aim of providing a better explanation.

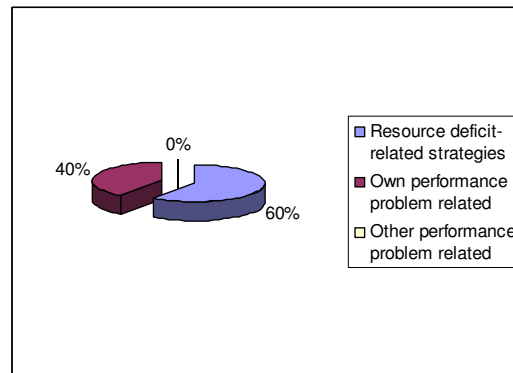
The least commonly used strategies are *Interactional strategies* (7.1%). These strategies require interacting with the interlocutor. Being cooperative in nature, these strategies are employed with the aim of establishing rapport between speakers. In interactional strategies, speakers attempt to check the flow of the interaction and reach mutual understanding.

Besides the classification of communication strategies relating the three main categories, *direct*, *indirect* and *Interactional strategies*, Dörnyei and Scott (1995) proposed three sub-categories for each. These strategies are called as *resource deficit*, *processing time pressure*, *own-performance problem related*, *own-performance problems* and *other performance problems*.

#### **5.3.1.5. DISTRIBUTION OF DIRECT STRATEGIES**

As shown in Figure 38, of the three sub-categories of direct strategies, *resource deficit-related strategies* are most commonly employed strategy (60%) followed by *own performance problem related strategies* (40%). However, *other-performance related strategies* were observed rarely (0.2%). These results indicate that communication strategies are employed as a result of participants' being not knowledgeable enough to explain the intended message clearly.

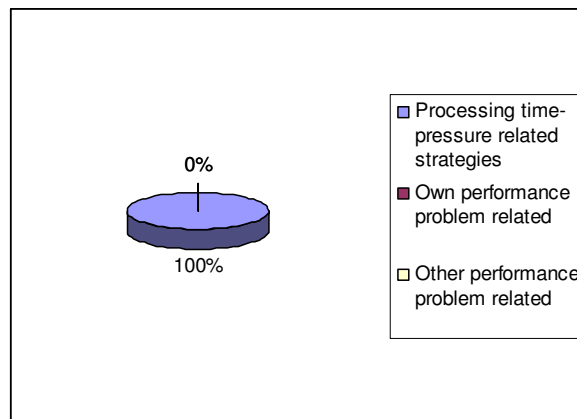
Figure 38: Distribution of Direct Strategies



### 5.3.1.6. DISTRIBUTION OF INDIRECT STRATEGIES

Figure 39 displays participants' preference of using indirect strategies. As can be seen in the figure below, only one strategy was observed as an indirect strategy. Strategies related to *own* and *other performance problem* were never employed in the study. On the contrary, all the indirect strategies employed in the study were related to processing time pressure. This illustrates that participants use particular strategies such as *use of fillers* and *repetitions* when they intended to gain time.

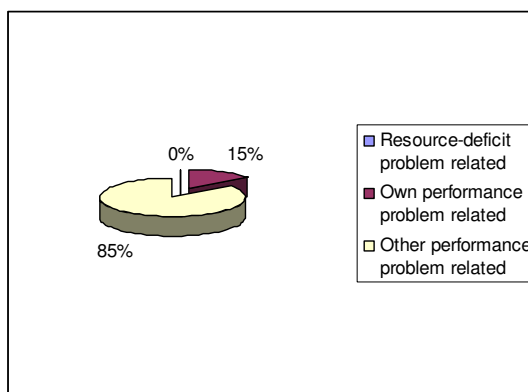
Figure 39: Distribution of Indirect Strategies



### 5.3.1.7 DISTRIBUTION OF INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES

Of three sub-headings of Interactional strategies, only two of them were observed in the study. They were *own* (15%) and *other-performance problem related* (85%) strategies. This result shows that rather than appealing for help, which is a resource deficit-related strategy, participants prefer strategies that refer to establishing mutual understanding such as *asking for clarification*, *guessing*, *responses*, etc.

Figure 40: Distribution of Interactional Strategies



### 5.3.1.8 DESCRIPTION OF USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Another point of the study was to explore students' repertoire of the use of communication strategies. It is intended to investigate if students use various CSs to overcome particular problems or whether they have a limited repertoire of CSs.

Table 3 displays the frequency of the use of each strategy. As tabulated below, results illustrate that the most frequently used strategy is *use of fillers* followed by *self repair* and *self repetition*. *Self rephrase*, *mime* and *approximated* are other commonly employed strategies by the participants of the study with the aim of dealing with communication problems.

As indicated by Table 3, there is a clear distinction between the frequency of the use of these six strategies and other the twenty-eight strategies. In other words, rather than employing various communication strategies, it is clear that participants commonly prefer to use these six strategies. As can be seen in the table below, of 1518 strategies employed, 21.8% were *use of fillers* and 81.6% were these six strategies, whose nature is explained in detail in the next part of this section.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of the frequency of the use of communication strategies

		Strategy	N	Freq.	%
ID.	T. P.	Use of Fillers	17	331	21.8
D.	OW.P	Self repair	17	207	13.7
ID.	T. P.	Self repetition	17	204	13.5
D.	OW.P	Self rephrase	17	147	9.7
D.	R. D	Mime	17	141	9.3
D.	R. D	Approximation	17	133	8.7
D.	R. D	Restructuring	17	76	5
D.	R. D	Literal translation	17	32	2.1
D.	R. D	Circumlocution	17	27	1.78
D.	R. D	Use of all purpose words	17	24	1.58
INT.	O.P	Guessing	17	20	1.32
D.	R. D	Message Replacement	17	19	1.25
D.	R. D	Topic Avoidance	17	16	1.06
D.	R. D	Code switching	17	15	0.99
INT.	O.P	Response confirm	17	13	0.86
D.	R. D	Message reduction	17	12	0.79
INT.	O.P	Asking for clarification	17	11	0.73
INT.	OW.P	Comprehension check	17	11	0.73
INT.	O.P	Asking for repetition	17	10	0.66
INT.	O.P	Response repeat	17	10	0.66
D.	R. D	Retrieval	17	8	0.53
D.	R. D	Message abandonment	17	8	0.53
INT.	O.P	Interpretive summary	17	6	0.4
INT.	O.P	Response reject	17	5	0.33
INT.	O.P	Expressing nonunderstanding	17	4	0.26
D.	R. D	Personification	17	4	0.26
INT.	R. D	Indirect appeal for help	17	4	0.26
INT.	OW.P	Own accuracy check	17	4	0.26
INT.	R. D	Direct appeal for help	17	3	0.2
INT.	O.P	Response repeat	17	3	0.2
D.	R. D	Word coinage	17	2	0.13
D.	R. D	Omission	17	2	0.13
D.	O.P	Other repair	17	2	0.13
INT.	O.P	Asking for confirmation	17	2	0.13
		TOTAL	17	1516	
		Valid N (listwise) □	17		

*Use of fillers:* This strategy is classified as a *processing time pressure-related* strategy of *interaction strategy* according to Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy. Use of fillers was the most frequently employed strategy in the study. It was employed 331 times. It is observed that rather than using different strategies, participants preferred using fillers such as err, you know, well, etc. with the intention of filling pauses, stalling and gaining time in order to keep communication channels open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty (Dörnyei and Scott 1997). When participants were asked to explain the rationale of their preferring to employ *use of fillers*, it is concluded that *use of fillers* is seen as the easiest way to gain time when they got stuck in the process of communication process. This fact is clearly stated by Student 12.

Figure 41: Sample use of use of fillers

<b>Student 12</b>	
Example	“she is a she is a very energetic woman <b>err</b> I think she is <b>err</b> she looks as if she is a doing some sports”
Comment	I intended to say that “she has just given up doing sport” but I could not decide how to say it. Therefore I utter err to gain time to think how to say that expression.

This comment of Student 12 supports the definition of *use of fillers* since this student signified that she could not recall the intended message. She had to gain time to think and she uttered err with the aim of gaining time to think how to explain the intended message.

*Self repair:* According to Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy, *self repair* is making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech. They accepted this strategy as a direct and own performance problem related strategy. Of 1518 strategies employed in this study, this strategy was employed 207 times (13.6%). During the interviews, when we asked story-tellers why they used self-repair as a communication strategy, it was understood that this strategy was employed as a result of self-monitoring of the speaker. According to the responds of the interviewees, they employed *self-repair* when they realised that they had just made a mistake after uttering the sentence. And

they corrected these mistakes by uttering the corrected form of the sentence. An example of this use and rationale of employing this sentence are displayed in the table below.

Figure 42: Sample use of self repair

Student 6	
Example	The girl want to wants to go on a holiday
Comment	After uttering the sentence I realized that I made a grammatical mistake and I uttered the word again in correct form.

As illustrated in Dörnyei and Scott's definition above, this strategy was used immediately after the wrong usage of a verb. This student denoted that she repeated the correct form of the verb after realizing that she had used it in its wrong form.

*Self repetition:* In addition to the use of fillers, this strategy is the second strategy that is classified as a *processing time pressure-related* strategy of interaction strategy. Dörnyei and Scott define this strategy as “repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said”. This strategy was employed 204 times in the study. In other words, 13.4% of all strategies employed in the study was self repetition. When we investigated the rationale of using *self-repetition* as a communication strategy through interviews, we observed that they were similar to the use of fillers in nature. They were both employed with the aim of gaining time and maintaining the conversation. However, rather than uttering sounds such as err, you know, speakers repeat the word or phrase they had just said with the aim of gaining time to think what to say next.

Figure 43: Sample use of self repetition

Student 14	
Example	“And also <b>while she is trying err while she is trying</b> ”
Comment	I was thinking what to say next



The comment of Student 14 supports the function of self repetition. As illustrated in the table above, the student repeated the phrase “while she is trying” so as to gain time to think.

*Self rephrase*: Self rephrase is defined as repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase (Dörnyei and Scott 1997). Like self-repair, it is classified as a direct and own performance-problem related strategy. This strategy was employed 147 times (9.6%). When the responses of interviewees are analyzed, it is concluded that this study is about monitoring the flow of communication. Participants stated that they had employed *self-rephrase* when they thought that their explanation was not clear enough for the interlocutor and when they felt that they needed to add some more explanation in order to make the interlocutor understand it better.

Figure 44: Sample use of self rephrase

Student 3	
Example	“Then <b>she the hairdresser</b> show her hairs new err her new hair style”
Comment	I thought that the interlocutor may be confused. Therefore I thought that I should broaden the meaning by clarifying “she”.

As explained above in detail, *self rephrase* is employed with the aim of expanding the meaning. In explaining the rationale of using this strategy, Student 3 highlights this function of rephrasing oneself. She said that she was unsure whether she had sent the intended message correctly. Therefore she expanded the meaning of “she” by explaining that she was a hairdresser.

*Mime*: This strategy, which is defined as describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration (Dörnyei and Scott), was employed 141 times. After analyzing the responds of interviewees, it can be said that learners use mime as a visual aid when they were not able to find the correct word. By using mime, they intended to help interlocutors to understand the intended message that was not clarified by using verbal communication.

Figure 45: Sample use of mime

Student 1	
Example	and he says what are you doing here and err look at his err [ <b>showing watch</b> ] [laugh] clock
Comment	I could not recall “watch” and I knew that “clock” would be wrong. Therefore I did not want to say clock and I used my body language to make the interlocutor that I mean “watch” rather than “clock”.

This sample sentence displayed in Figure 45 demonstrates how mime is used when speakers get stuck in a conversation. In the example above, the speaker was unable to recall “watch”. She used “clock” and showed her wrist. She tried to imply that it is not a “clock” but a “watch” by using her body language.

*Approximation:* Approximation is the sixth most commonly employed strategy of the study. Dörnyei and Scott defined this strategy as using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure (1997). This strategy was used 133 times and it was employed when speakers could not recall the exact word. They said that they had used *approximation* by using similar meaning words when they could not remember the exact word they intended to use. The following extract is selected as an example of this function of *approximation*.

Figure 46: Sample of use of approximation

Student 10	
Example	I: What is his job? S: <b>Wall drier.</b>
Comment	I could not recall “wall painter” so I said wall drier.

As illustrated in figure above, the student called the job of the character in the film as “wall drier” since she could not remember “painter”. In other words, she used the approximated meaning of the intended message.

### Variation among pairs of students

Apart from heavy use of only a few communication strategies, another important point that was recorded in the study was the variation in the number of communication strategies employed by different story-tellers. The analysis revealed that there were differences in terms of the number of employed strategies among the participants. These distinctions are displayed in Table 4.

*Table 4: Number of strategies employed by each pair*

<b>Pair</b>	<b>Story Teller proficiency</b>	<b>Number of employed strategies</b>
1 <sup>st</sup> pair	High	274
12 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	174
6 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	125
13 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	109
10 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	103
4 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	101
9 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	91
5 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	75
3 <sup>rd</sup> pair	High	70
14 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	64
2 <sup>nd</sup> pair	High	60
16 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	56
7 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	54
8 <sup>th</sup> pair	High	45
17 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	42
11 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	41
15 <sup>th</sup> pair	Low	34

As tabulated in Table 4, there is a great distinction among pairs in terms of the number of employed strategies. 274 strategies were employed by the first pair of highly proficient learners. This is followed by the 3<sup>rd</sup> pair, low proficiency learners, who used 174 strategies. Another important point was that of 1518 strategies employed by seventeen pairs, 886 strategies were used by six pairs, three of which were highly proficient. In other words, 58% of strategies were employed by only six pairs.

Many different reasons may cause the great distinctions that are explained above. Learners' use of communication strategies may be affected by various factors. These factors are grouped in four headings by Özarı (1997) as *personality*, *problem source*, *learning situation*, and *proficiency level*. In the study, it is concluded that *task motivation* is also a determinative factor of the use of communication strategies.

*Proficiency level:* In relation to the proficiency level, in this study, it is observed that low proficiency learners were more nervous than highly proficient learners. Thence, they preferred not to narrate the movies but to explain it generally. For this reason, they ignored the events that occurred in the movies that they would have difficulty in narrating. This attitude caused distinctions between low and highly proficient learners in terms of a lesser number of strategies employed by low learners.

*Task motivation:* Another significant point that may give rise to the distinction among learners is their motivation to participate in the study. Although learners who are not willing to participate were not forced to participate, in the process of collecting data, it was observed that while some students were eager to participate and narrate the movies, others were feeling anxious about their performance. This concern affected their motivation and performance in the study and they preferred to summarize the film with the aim of completing tasks as soon as possible. On the other hand, motivated students tried to narrate the story in detail. Therefore, these learners employed more communication strategies than unmotivated students.

*Personality:* Learners' ability to express themselves may be another reason for this distinction. In the process of data collection, it is seen that, regardless of their proficiency level, some learners were more successful in narrating the story. This ability is highlighted by Brown (1987, cited in Özarı 1997) as "extrovert and introvert learners might employ different strategies in the learning process" (p: 22). Some low proficiency learners had less difficulty than highly proficient learners since they were more skilful in expressing themselves. This caused the similarity in

the use of communication strategies employed by low and highly proficient students. This illustrates that being expressive may not be related to the proficiency level of students.

### 5.3.2 DOES THE PRESENCE OF VISIBLE AIDS INFLUENCE USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES?

To find the answer to this research question, a paired samples t-test was conducted, pairing the frequency of CSs by each student under the two visibility conditions. The significance level was set at .05. Results of the *paired samples test* illustrate that there is a significant difference in terms of the total use of communication strategies in visible and invisible conditions. However, when the results of the use of particular strategies in different conditions are compared, it is concluded that while the use of some strategies is affected by the visibility condition, others were not influenced by that conditions.

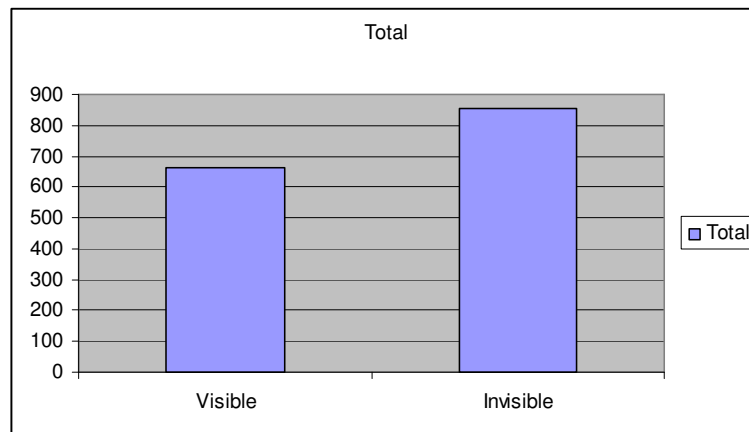
Table 5: Effects of visible aids on the use of communication strategies

Strategy	Group	Mean	Sd	Mean Difference	T	df	Significance	Comment
Self repetition	Vis.	4.4118	5.5120	-3.1765	-2.714	16	.015	Significant
	Inv.	7.5882	7.0539					
Self repair	Vis.	4.7059	2.9104	-2.7647	-2.079	16	.054	Significant
	Inv.	7.4706	6.4238					
Asking for clarification	Vis.	5.882E-02	.2425	-.5294	-2.045	16	.058	Significant
	Inv.	.5882	1.1213					
Total	Vis	39.0588	32.9421	-11.1765	-2.093	16	.053	Significant
	Invis	50.2353	30.9890					

As indicated by Table 5, there is a significant difference between the use of strategies such as *self repetition*, *self repair*, and *asking for clarification* at  $p < 0.05$ . Additionally, there is a noticeable difference between the use of *use of fillers* in visible and invisible conditions ( $p < 0.82$ ). However, although there is not a significant difference between the use of these strategies in visible and invisible conditions for other strategies, it is concluded that the number of strategies used in invisible condition outnumbered the number of strategies used in visible condition.

This difference is supported by the significant difference of total communication strategies employed in visible and invisible conditions ( $p < 0.05$ ). This difference is tabulated in Figure 47 below. This demonstrates that speakers experience more communication problems while they are interacting without observing their interlocutor's body language.

*Figure 47: Distribution of CSs in visible and invisible conditions*



As shown in Figure 47, participants employed more communication strategies when they could not observe the body language of their interlocutor. In other words, they had more communication problems to overcome when they spoke without seeing the reactions of listeners. This finding supports the idea of the function of body language as the facilitator of the communication process since it was determined in this study that observing the body language of the interlocutor leads to the use of less CSs.

### 5.3.3. DOES PROFICIENCY INFLUENCE THE USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES?

With the aim of exploring the answer to this research question, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. The frequency of the use of communication strategies were paired at two proficiency levels. The significant level was set at .05. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Effects of proficiency level on the use of CSs

Strategy	Group	N	Mean rank	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Comment
Mime	Low.	8	11.94	5.349	1	.021	Significant
	High	9	6.39				
Self repetition	Low.	8	12.25	6.282	1	.012	Significant
	High	9	6.11				
Message reduction	Low.	8	6.25	5.418	1	.020	Significant
	High	9	11.44				
Topic avoidance	Low.	8	5.63	9.304	1	.002	Significant
	High	9	12.00				
Total (Vis)	Low.	8	10.13	.750	1	.386	Insignificant
	High	9	8.00				

As can be seen in the table above, there is no significant difference between low and highly proficient learners in terms of their use of communication strategies ( $p > .05$ ). Significant differences were observed in three communication strategies, namely, *mime*, *self repetition*, *message reduction* and *topic avoidance*.

When the nature of these four communication strategies is investigated, it is clear that they are all about the proficiency level of speakers and they are commonly used by low proficient learners.

*Message reduction* and *topic avoidance* are not separated in Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy. They defined these two strategies as one strategy by asserting that their function is "reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language-wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources". Despite this consideration, these strategies were separated in the present study by regarding them as different in

nature. For topic avoidance, learners' ignorance of topics was accepted as a strategy since learners avoided these topics because of not being capable enough to explain them. For message reduction, learners avoiding some grammatical structures were classified as message reduction. Two samples are illustrated in Figures 49 and 50 to clarify this distinction between the use of topic avoidance and message reduction.

*Figure 48: Sample use of topic avoidance*

Student 10 (Low proficiency)	
Topic avoidance	And a man which is customer didn't like his job. Then err couple decided to go somewhere to err stay and...

In the example above, it is seen that Student 10 ignores the events that occur between these two scenes. In other words, she avoided certain topics since she felt that she would have trouble if she tried to explain them.

*Figure 49: Sample use of message reduction*

Student 13 (Low proficiency)	
Message reduction	He was trying to play a golf in <b>a big area</b>

As illustrated in Figure 50, Student 13 avoided describing the area where the characters of the film played golf. By calling it as "a big area" she continued her speech without explaining the features of that area. Therefore, this student employed *message reduction*.

### 5.3.3.1 DOES PROFICIENCY INFLUENCE THE USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN VISIBLE CONDITION?

To discover the effects of proficiency level on the use of communication strategies in visible condition, a Kruskal-Wallis test was carried out. The significance rank was set at .05. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are displayed in Table 7:



Table 7: Effects of proficiency level on the use of CSs in visible condition

Strategy	Group	N	Mean rank	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Comment
Mime (Vis)	Low.	8	12.44	7.187	1	.007	Significant
	High	9	5.94				
Self rephrase (Vis)	Low.	8	11.50	3.806	1	.051	Significant
	High	9	6.78				
Topic avoidance (Vis)	Low.	8	6.75	5.428	1	.020	Significant
	High	9	11.00				
Total (Vis)	Low.	8	10.94	2.227	1	.136	Insignificant
	High	9	7.28				

As illustrated in Table 7, in total, no significant difference was discovered about the use of communication strategies between low and highly proficient learners. However, it was discovered that proficiency level affects the use of communication strategies such as *topic avoidance* ( $p < 0.020$ ), *self rephrase* ( $p < 0.051$ ) and *mime* ( $p < 0.007$ ).

As explained in Research Question 3, there was significant difference between low and highly proficient learners in the use of *topic avoidance*. However, a significant difference was found for *mime* in both visible and invisible conditions, and for *self-rephrase* in visible condition.

This result shows that there was an important distinction between low and highly proficient learners in their use of *self-rephrase*. This distinction may be the result of speakers' observing the gestures of the interlocutor. In the videos, it is observed that highly proficient story tellers rephrased their explanation when they noticed that the interlocutor could not comprehend the intended meaning. However, low proficient story tellers did not observe the expression of the interlocutor since they were concentrating on their own narration.

Another significant difference was found out in the use of *mime*. When the rationale of this difference is investigated, it is seen that highly proficient learners use their body language more than low proficient learners. This may be a result of highly proficient learners' being more motivated and feeling less nervous than low proficient learners.

### 5.3.3.2. DOES PROFICIENCY INFLUENCE THE USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN INVISIBLE CONDITION?

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to explore the effects of proficiency level on the use of communication strategies in invisible condition. The significance rate was set at .05. Results are illustrated in Table 8.

Table 8: Effects of proficiency level on the use of CSs in invisible condition

Strategy	Group	N	Mean rank	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Comment
Mime (Inv)	Low.	8	11.31	3.582	1	.058	Significant
	High	9	6.94				
Message reduction (Inv)	Low.	8	6.63	4.735	1	.030	Significant
	High	9	11.11				
Topic avoidance (Inv)	Low.	8	6.19	7.286	1	.007	Significant
	High	9	11.50				
Total (Inv)	Low.	8	9.63	.232	1	.630	Insignificant
	High	9	8.44				

Although no significant difference was found about the total use of communication strategies, it is discovered that proficiency level affects the use of strategies such as *message reduction* ( $p < .039$ ), and *topic avoidance* (.007) in invisible condition.

The differences in the use of *message reduction* and *topic avoidance* were also found out in answer to research question 3, which refers to the use of communication in both visible and invisible conditions.

#### **5.4. SUMMARY**

This chapter started with a brief discussion of the aim and research questions of the study. The results of numerical data were presented with reference to examples of participants' use of particular communication strategies. Afterwards, statistical data analysis of the data for each research question was discussed.

## **CHAPTER SIX CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

### **6.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter aims to give a summary of the study by introducing brief descriptions of the objectives, methodology and main findings of the study. This will be followed by conclusions. The last part of this chapter presents the pedagogical and methodological implications. The final aim of the chapter is to guide future researchers for further research studies.

### **6.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY**

#### **6.1.1 AIM OF THE STUDY**

This study aimed to discover the effects of the proficiency level of speakers on their use of communication strategies. It is also intended to investigate the effects of visibility in interaction on the use of communication strategies. In doing so, three questions are addressed, one of which was divided into two different sub-questions.

The research questions that the study addressed are as follows:

***RQ1-** What communication strategies are used?*

***RQ2-** Does presence of visible aids influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3-** Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies?*

***RQ3a -** Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in visible condition?*

***RQ3b-** Does proficiency influence the use of Communication Strategies in invisible condition?*

### 6.1.2 SUMMARY OF METHODOLOGY

An interaction-based experimental design was conducted in the study. Participants were divided into two groups as high proficiency and low proficiency students. Each participant worked in pairs which included a story teller and an interlocutor. While interlocutors and highly proficient learners were selected among 4<sup>th</sup> grade students of the English Teaching Department, low proficiency learners were 1<sup>st</sup> grade students. The study was carried out over two days for each pair. The whole procedure was videotaped. On the first day, each story teller narrated two movies to their interlocutor in two different conditions, visible and invisible. After this narration process, interlocutors were asked to retell the movie to the researcher. After that, the videos were transcribed and communication strategies were identified so as to be prepared for the second day of data collection. On the second day, the performance of the story-teller was viewed together with that story teller and interviews were conducted to understand the reasons for story tellers' choosing particular communication strategies. The data collected were then analysed qualitatively and quantitatively to seek answers to each research question.

### 6.1.3 SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

The study dealt with three main research questions. While RQ1 focused on a description of CSs employed in the study, RQ2 asked whether the visibility condition affects the use of CSs. RQ3 seek answers to the question of whether the proficiency level of speakers affects the use of CSs.

On the basis of our statistical analysis for RQ1, it was observed that students employed a limited repertoire of CSs. In other words, rather than using different communication strategies, participants preferred to use particular CSs to overcome communication problems. Of 1518 occasions where a communication strategy was employed in the study, 21.8 % was *use of fillers*. 81.6 % was *use of fillers, self*

*repair, self repetition, self rephrase, mime and approximation.* This shows that out of 34 communication strategies, 6 of them were employed very commonly.

Another remarkable point was the heavy use of direct strategies. While 57.6 % of strategies employed in the study were direct strategies, 35 % were indirect strategies and only 7 % was interactional strategies. This illustrates the fact that students do not employ CSs to provide alternative structures or establish rapport with speakers but to overcome difficulties which occurred because of their lack of knowledge.

To find an answer to RQ2, a paired samples t-test was conducted and the results demonstrated that there is a significant difference in terms of the total use of communication strategies in visible and invisible conditions. Although there is no significant difference for each communication strategy in different visibility conditions, significant differences were observed for strategies such as *self-repetition, self-repair, and asking for clarification.*

Results of Kruskal-Wallis test, which was conducted to seek answers to RQ3, illustrated no significant difference between low and highly proficient students in terms of their use of CSs ( $p > .05$ ). However, significant differences were observed for particular CSs such as *literal translation, message reduction and topic avoidance.*

## 6.2. CONCLUSION

According to the results of the study, three conclusions can be drawn.

First, regardless of proficiency level, learners use a limited repertoire of communication strategies. No matter how different the problem is, they rely on particular communication strategies. When trouble occurs in the process of communication, they firstly try to gain time to think what to say next either by uttering fillers such as *err, you know, etc.* or making repetitions, or using mime. In addition, this study illustrates that participants prefer using direct strategies more willingly than indirect and interactional strategies, which indicates the main reason

for their using CSs is a lack of proficiency (Dörnyei and Scott 1997). In employing CSs, they do not interact with the interlocutor by asking questions, or ask for help, but attempt to overcome the difficulties by self-monitoring.

Second, observing the body language of the interlocutor affects the number of strategies employed by the speaker. Since using more CSs can be regarded as coping with more communication problems, this result demonstrates the function of body language as a facilitator for the speaker (Bucker and Van Lear 2002). Participants faced more communication problems and consequently employed more CSs in the condition where they could not observe the body language of their interlocutors. In contrast, when they could see the reactions of their interlocutors in a visible condition, the need for employing CSs decreased.

Third, developing proficiency level does not lead to the use of more varied CSs since the proficiency level of speakers does not directly influence their use of CSs. Regardless of proficiency level, students use a limited repertoire of CSs. This illustrates the negative correlation between proficiency level and the use of CSs.

### **6.3 IMPLICATIONS**

The results of this study suggest that observing the body language of the interlocutor affects the number of CSs employed by the speaker. This study demonstrates that body language prevents speakers from using different communication strategies. In other words, by the help of observing the body language of the interlocutor, speakers may perceive if there is a problem in establishing rapport with the interlocutor and they understand whether using CSs is required or not. Consequently, it is wise for teachers of English to regard body language as the facilitator of the communication process. Thanks to this, they should not overlook the idea that nonverbal communication decreases the need for employing communication strategies and they should monitor their nonverbal reactions towards different situations so as to assist learners in using different communication strategies.

This study also reveals that developing the proficiency level of students does not mean improving their ability to use different CSs. For that reason, proficiency level and ability to use CSs should be regarded as separate skills by educators. Teachers of English should not ignore improving students' ability to use different CSs by solely focusing on developing students' proficiency level. Conversely, the teaching procedure should be planned in accordance with the idea that learners need to not only develop their proficiency level but also their ability to employ different CSs.

### **6.3.1 METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS**

Since the study was conducted as an interaction-based experimental study design, the performance of each pair was transcribed to make a content analysis of the qualitative data. Therefore, it was not possible to work with a large number of participants. There is no doubt that larger groups of students could give more significant results.

Participants may differ in terms of their ability to employ communication strategies since being proficient does not necessarily mean that s/he has the ability to use different communication strategies. Therefore, it is wise for further researchers to consider various factors, such as ability to express oneself, feeling confident in speaking, etc, which may affect the speaker's ability to use communication strategies.

Task motivation is another variation which is important to control in designing an interaction-based experimental study. Participants' attitudes towards the task which they are expected to deal with may affect their performance. Consequently, further researchers are advised to take the attitudes of participants towards the task into consideration.



### **6.3.2 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS**

In this study, no positive relationship between students' proficiency level and their ability to use different CSs was observed. It is concluded that no matter how proficient the students are, they use a limited repertoire of CSs. In the light of these findings, teachers of English may be recommended to include activities which aim to improve students' perceptions about the functions of communication strategies. Regardless of the proficiency level of their learners, it is wise to train learners in terms of overcoming particular communication problems.

Another important finding of the study is about the function of body language in communication. In the study, it was observed that participants used more CSs when they could not observe the body language of their interlocutors. In other words, they have more communication problems in an invisible condition. This demonstrates the importance of body language in creating an effective communicative environment.

Considering these findings, it may be recommended for teachers of English to be aware of the function of body language by trying to use their own body language effectively. Additionally, it would be wise to teach this vital role to their students. In consequence, students would be knowledgeable about the function of body language and they would be able to use their body language more effectively.

### **6.3.3 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

This study did not deal with the effectiveness of CSs. The communication achievement was not tested regarding the CSs employed by speakers. Additionally, this study was not conducted to explore which strategies are more useful in visible and invisible conditions. Further research may deal with the effectiveness of CSs in different conditions concerning the comprehension of the interlocutor.

Further research may deal also with the communication strategy training of learners with different proficiency levels. The relationship between proficiency level and ability to employ different communication strategies could be investigated.

This study was carried out with advanced learners of English as a foreign language. There is a need of replication of the research for less proficient readers.

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**APPENDICES**

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**APPENDIX A****CONSENT FORM**

04.12.2006

Dear Participant,

You are being asked to participate in a MA Project which will investigate the effect of visibility on the communication process. Your participation will help me enormously with my MA studies.

You will be asked to meet me twice in one week. The meetings will be about telling and listening to short movies and trying to understand your opinions about each condition. In each session, I would like to video tape the process so that I can analyse it later on for my thesis. In total, we will study for two hours.

The results of the study will not evaluate or judge you. This study is not a part of your course assessment and I assure you that identity data I will collect from you will remain **confidential** and **anonymous**. You are free to withdraw any time you feel uncomfortable with the study. If you wish to join the study, please read the statement below and sign the form. I would like to thank you for your help in advance.

Mehmet Sercan UZTOSUN  
 MA Student  
 Research Assistant  
 English Language Teaching Education  
 Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University

-----  
 -----

I have read the instruction above and I understand the requirements of the study and that there is no risk to my privacy and I am free to withdraw from participating any time I wish to. I agree to participate in the study.

Name : -----

Signature : -----

Date : -----

## **APPENDIX B**

### **THE STORY OF THE FIRST MOVIE**

In the first episode, there are two main characters. They are married. The film begins in a hairdresser studio. The main female character is introduced initially. She is a hairdresser but instead of dealing with the customer's hair, she is combing her own hair. It is seen that all customers in this shop have strange hair styles. An old woman appears, she has her hair dyed. But when she sees the result she is shocked because the hairdresser has dyed her hair white. However, when she looks around, other customers imply to the old woman that this new colour of her hair is good. After that, the old woman feels relaxed. The second scene of the first episode takes place in front of a house. The main male character appears. He is a painter but he is very lazy. Instead of doing his job he is drinking tea. Then his boss comes into view and he warns the painter by showing his watch. Afterwards, the painter climbs the ladder and starts to paint the house. But he is so clumsy that he drops the brush on the face of his boss. The third scene takes place in the house of our main characters. Here, it is understood that they are preparing to go on a holiday. The woman is scanning a book which is about hotels and the man is trying to learn how to set up a tent by reading the guide. However, he is too clumsy to set up a tent but he doesn't accept this and he insists on staying in a tent. The woman is not happy with this situation and she wants to stay at a hotel. In the last scene, we see that the couple is setting off for the holiday. They go to a camp site. The weather is too windy and the man is not able to set up the tent. But he is sure of himself and he doesn't give up trying to set it up. However, the woman can't bear this situation and she goes to a telephone box and she calls a hotel for a reservation. After making the reservation, the film ends by her coming back to her husband and hitting his head with that book.

## **APPENDIX C**

### **THE STORY OF THE SECOND MOVIE**

A different couple takes part in the second episode. Initially, we see this new couple having breakfast at a restaurant. They are quarrelling about something. They give orders to the waitress. In the meantime, the woman of the new couple sees the hairdresser. They wave each other and the hairdresser comes over to the table. The man is not interested and he continues to read his newspaper. The two women talk for a while and they plan to do something together. And in the second episode, we see the two men of the couples in the golf area. While the man knows how to play golf, the painter doesn't know anything about golf. Therefore, the man tries to teach how to play golf to the painter. But the painter is so clumsy that he can't even hit the ball. In the third scene, the women of the couples appear. They are wearing tennis clothes and they talk with a man about a reservation for the tennis court. In the fourth scene, the painter tries to play golf but he is still not able to do it. He hits the ball into the tree. He tries to get the ball by using the golf club. The ball falls on his head and he falls down as if he had fainted. Then the man comes in a panic but when he recognizes that the man is joking, he gets angry. In the fifth scene, the women are playing tennis on a tennis court. The woman hits the ball very well but the hairdresser cannot return them at first. But afterwards, the hairdresser starts to play very well and the other woman is surprised because she doesn't expect the hairdresser to play tennis in such a way. In the last scene, while the women are sitting on a bench and resting, the men come and they talk about their day. However, the men start to argue about their performances playing golf and they decide to play golf in front of their wives. They all go to play mini golf and the man who can play golf very well cannot manage to hit the ball and the painter is very successful and he beats the other man.

## APPENDIX D

### SAMPLE TRANSCRIPTION

S : There is a couple. The woman is a coiffeur. And the man is a painter [body language]. And in the beginning of the day err firstly err the film starts with the woman. And err she is trying to make err [pointing her hair] make err make [pointing her hair] a woman's hair. I think this woman is middle aged but after err the err [body language] coiffeur made his hair her hair [body language] I think she is now

I : Younger

S : Old.

I : Old.

S : Because the woman is always err thinking I think himself herself her hair [body language]. She is trying to make her hair [body language]. And I think there is a err picture her husband's picture maybe. I think it is [body language] similar. And err the woman the customer is not happy for her hair [body language]. But then there is a man in the other [body language] err chair in the coiffeur and his hair is very bad like a horse [body language]. Think about it very bad. And he says to woman humm very nice [body language] and after this err the woman thinks mm it is nice [gesture] and maybe she is happy now. But the coiffeur woman is not err thinking his her customers. She is thinking another thing I think. It is a holiday. At the same time, while these are happening, her husband, as I said before, a painter but err I think he is a little bit lazy not hardworking and don't doesn't want to work. He is I think eating or drinking hot chocolate [body language] yes maybe a hot chocolate. He is err [body language] INDIRECT APPEAL err [karıştırmayı söylemek istiyor] hatırlamayınca drinking. Then he is a man is coming. I think he is responsible for this husband. His not boss but you know [body language] hierarchy

I : Yes

S: hi hi. He is responsible and he says what are you doing here [gesture] and err look at his err [body language] INDIRECT APPEAL [laugh] clock.

I : Watch?

S : Watch. And says. And then the husband OK [gesture] stop to drink and [body language] INDIRECT APPEAL

I : Go on.

S : Yes.

I: Paint

S: No. [Body language] Böyle step by step. Neydi onun adı. Not lift. If there is not lift err

I : Stairs.

S : We can say. Ok. And then in his hand [body language] a a tool for painting I could not remember. You know [Body language]

I : Brush?

S : Yes, brush. And he [body language] err fall this brush down and [body language] it comes the other man's face. And white face [body language] he has now. But the man as I said is lazy and don't care for it. Then the film is going on err in the house of this couple. The woman err is reading a book. Err where where to stay in England. And I think they will go to England for their holiday. Err he is she is reading his book and trying to find a hotel may be. His husband err thinking a little bit different and trying to err [body language] make his tent but err they are maybe quarrelling err a little bit. They are not in the same idea. They don't think the same thing. Err but the man insisting on the husband insisting on that err they will stay in the tent. Err the woman has a sun glasses, it is very interesting but they go to England is very cold. She has sunglasses. She is very she prepared err herself err very well err for a sunny holiday [body language] nice holiday but err the weather his husband are the hints for his holiday I think. She is not happy. They start they go they went [laughs] they had has they have [laughs] they have a white car. I think they are not very rich. Their car is not a good one. And err when they go there are small trees [body language] and anything else but they are in holiday. The woman is not happy. She is still err reading that book. But her husband doesn't care. She also doesn't care her husband [body language]. They go to holiday together but they are I think in the err in different areas different ideas. And the man is still trying to make their tent but the wind is very strong [body language]. Maybe thunderstorm maybe come. But the man still insisting. Then the woman go to a telephone booth and call one of the hotel he she I think she err looked its telephone number from that book. And she is trying to book a place err suit for them. And I think it is OK because she is talking happily OK she is looking his watch again [body language]. And err she make their reservation. And go went his her husband's near near [laugh]. And err he is still trying to make the tent [body language]. Then err with that book err the woman [body language] his not kick but like you [body language] think like kick his her husband's err [body language]

I : Head.

S : Head. And says something to him. I think she talked about the reservation. [unclear] and the man like this [body language] err yes it is OK it is finished. Is there anything do you want to ask me?

I : No in fact she talked very well.

S : Any problems? Any questions?

I : Something err in the coiffeur you said that there is a picture of a man I did not understand the relationship with the story.

S : I also not could not very clear couldn't have a clear idea for this but I think he is husband. Coiffeur is you know the woman has there the woman's coiffeur saloon. And I think that picture is his husband's this lazy man

I : Himm OK.

S : Maybe. He is not handsome. And she is not beautiful. Blond hair. He has she has long blond hair. Curly [body language]. And like this [saçımı toplayış şekli].

I : Are all there details necessary?

S : I don't know but I try to tell everything. But the other's man I think never no body err never go goes that coiffeur saloon because the hairs are very bad. You can't believe. I want you to see it.

I : ok. I think there is something that you don't tell me.

S : No no nothing. [laugh] only the hairs are strange.

I : They are strange.



S : they are different people. They are not normal. Not a normal coiffeur not a normal painter [body language] not a normal holiday. Everything is abnormal.

*Film 2 – Vis.*

S : Firstly there are four people. Two of them are men and two of them are women. Now I want them to name. to give names. For example womens names are Mary and Sally. Sally is the blond one. And Mary is the other one. He She has I think brown hair like black brown. Does not matter. And for mens for example Sally's friend Sally's maybe he is her husband or a special friend. His name OK it is Tom. Sally and Tom. And the other one err the other couple is Marry and Jack. And firstly err they are in a restaurant. Mary and Jack are in a restaurant. Jack is reading a newspaper and they are err two cup of maybe tea or coffee. And Mary is err a waitress is there also. And Mary again err wants something err then err waitress go goes err when the waitress went the couple Mary and Jack starts to quarrel. I think they did not start because I think this quarrel is had this quarrel had start before. But because of the waitress they stopped quarrel then they start again. After err then the waitress came back with new err drinks err like orange juice I don't I am not sure. And they again stopped quarrel. The man starts Jack starts to read his newspaper and Mary talked talked with waitress and Jack also said something to waitress. I don't know what he had he said. And then waitress went. Then the other woman a blond one the blond one we said she is Sally. She is looking for this couple Mark and Jack in the restaurant. Maybe it is a café I am not sure. And she came that café and start to look around. Then err she saw Mary and Jack. Then err she goed she went near them and she is she is not err she is like walking running err [laugh] she is not static [laughs] seni görmek istiyorum. She is running but not running she is in the somewhere in front of the table but she is running err because she wants to go err sport a sport center. [body language] And she starts to talk with them. The man is not happy. He he wants to talk with Jack wants to talk with Mary because as I said before they quarrel there is a problem between them but they could not talk with each other. Because of first waitress then Sally came and Sally's talking wants them to make to do something. Then Mary I think err Mary maybe Sally's friend. And she said OK. Ok Sally. Don't talk more [laughs]. We accept your offer. And err then err Sally and Mary went together to a tennis club. I think it is a club. It is a special place for tennis players. And err then err Tom and Jack go to a place. They err they play golf but the place is not a special place for golf. It is not err a golf center a place. There are [body language] there are a lot of green things as you know like trees. And it is a high place I think. Firstly, err Tom goes there went there. Then Jack came because Jack has err a lot of Jack made a lot of preparations [body language] for this day that day. He is very volunteer he is very willing to learn to learn err how to play golf. Because err the first couple they are as you remember err they are sitting in a restaurant. These are the people who are a little bit normal. The others not. These people knows err Mary knows how to play tennis. This is not table tennis. Normal tennis. And Mary knows how to play tennis and his friend Jack Tom muydu o ya Tom [laugh] knows how to play golf.

I : Jack.

S : Jackdi di mi tamam. Jack. Sorry. Jack knows how to play golf. But the other couple err Sally and Tom doesn't know. Tom wants to learn golf from Jack and Sally wants to learn tennis from Mary. Err then err they are I said they are in a place. They had err [body language] ball for golf ball. And err [body language] you know I couldn't I don't know its name. Err but err Jack err couldn't do it. I think they are maybe rich but err not clever they are a little bit stupid. I am sorry but. They want everything [body language] to do but they could not actually. And Tom is err becoming mad with Jack because any of the tryings of Jack is not OK. For example, err when Jack err kick the ball err the ball err [body language] goes on a tree and it is there. Then Jack run there and try to take [body language] the ball. Then he suddenly fall down [body language]. Like a dying people died body. And err Tom came look him and err he is afraid then Jack starts to started to smile. He is teasing he is a joke. He thinks but Tom is very angry now. At the same time the women Sally and Mary are in the tennis club as I said. Now Marry know knows how to play and Sally does not know. And Mary is a little bit patient err then Tom. She is trying to smile she is trying to calm down Sally Ok Sally try again [body language] like

this I think. But Sally is again a stupid woman [laughs] she could not do it but she is insist on. She will do it she will learn how to play tennis. And err they try then they are very tired especially Mary because Sally kick the ball and ball goes somewhere else and Mary tries to [body language] Mary goes to take these balls. And she is very tired. Then, at the end of the day, sorry before they when they come there is a man. He he asks for their maybe membership I think. I turned back. Is it OK Güler?

I : About woman?

S : Yes. Woman go to tennis club and there is a girl there is a man who is a worker in the tennis club err there is a list his in his hand. There is a list and the woman err sign it. OK?

I : OK.

S: It is a club I think they are Mary is the member of this club I think. Err now at the end of the day Mary and Sally err Sally is happy again she thinks that she do it well [body language] she did everything well she is still energetic [body language] but Mary is tired angry not happy like Sally. They err they sit a bank and err they are waiting for the men. The two men. And Tom and Jack came and they talked about the day their day I think. Mary and Sally talked their talked about their day and Tom and Jack also talked about their day. And err Tom Jack said that Tom is not good I think it is err not skilful and Sally is Sally becomes böyle crazy she becomes mad err how cant you do it [gesture]. You should do it you have to I think err she thinks golf and tennis you know rich people err do these sports. Maybe Sally and Jack Jack o Jack tamam Sally and Jack are rich but they become rich later maybe. Is it OK? Anlatabildim mi?

I : Yes. [laughs]

S : Maybe they are not rich in their childhood think that after they became rich not in rich they are around them a lot of rich people and as you know men plays golf and women plays tennis and Sally thinks that we are now rich and we are err around this people. How can err how could not we do this. We should do this. She is insisting. And then err the men err two men said that but it is not OK. I could not do Tom had said he could not. Sally does not accept this did not accept this and err I think she had an an idea. They go a special center for golf. And there are specially prepared places for new learners of golf sport. And the men Tom Tom ben bile karıştırdım ya Tom err Tom started to practice golf and now surprisingly [gesture] he is successful and I don't know how did he this but each every of his err tryings is OK. He is successful and the others are also surprised. They are shocked. How can he do. Because he had a neyse önemli değil the others are also shocked. And they could not believe but Sally is very happy [body language]. OK My friend maybe my husband now started to play golf. Ok. Like this. It is finished I think. Yes. OK. [laughs]. Anything you want to ask?

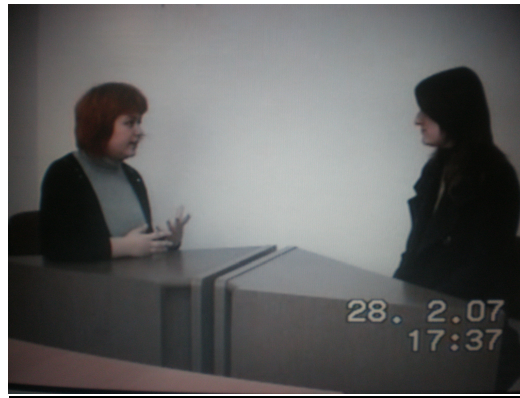
I : If I can remember [laughs]. Ok. There was a misunderstandings about names but I think Sally and Tom Mary and Jack.

S : OK. It does not matter. [laughs]

I : No question.

**APPENDIX E**

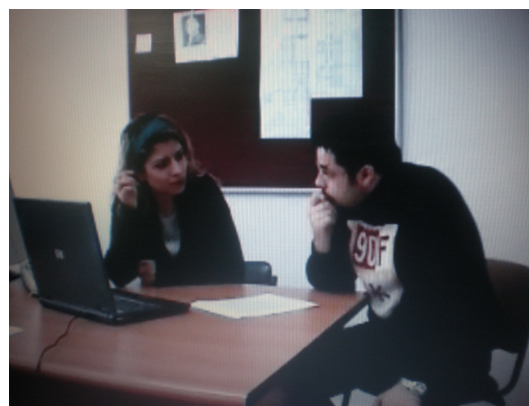
**PICTURES**



Picture 1 : Story Telling (Visible Condition)



Picture 2 : Story Telling (Invisible Condition)



Picture 3 : Interview with story-teller