

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES OF TURKISH SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

In this research it is hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between the type of communication strategy employed and the competency level of a second language learner. An experiment designed to test this hypothesis. Five Turkish postgraduate students contributed to the research. To elicit data, the informants were asked to label the parts of three different pictures of car design. In order to determine the competency level of each subject an interview session was included in the task design. In the data analysis, although no clear cut empirical evidence to support the hypothesis was found, Kellerman's (1990) classification was applied successfully and another strategy use, *monitoring*, distinct from others was observed. The results presents significant insights in terms of both research design and classification of lexically-based communication strategies of second language learners.

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INTRODUCTION

Increasing interest in the process oriented approach in applied linguistics necessitated a review and reanalysis of the approaches to second language learners' communication strategies (Kellerman et.al. 1987, Bialystok 1990 and Kellerman 1990). In the works that have been cited, communication strategies are recognized as one of the features of a language, not as a distinctive feature of second language learners' language. However, by the nature of learners' language, (the) motives behind the need to resort to use communication strategies has^{ve} some particular distinctive features which are hypothesized to illuminate the way to infer ~~to~~ the language learning and processing. To this end, second language learners' communication strategies are of a distinct concern within the domain of applied linguistics.

Accordingly

In ~~this~~ context, in this research it was hypothesized that there is a correlation between the competency level of the learners and the choice of the strategy type.

In the first part of chapter one, four traditional taxonomies set up by Corder (1983), Tarone (1980 & 1981), Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) and Faerch and Kasper (1983 & 1984) are summarized and a comparison between these studies are given. In

these works the taxonomies of communication strategies are based on the linguistic product. ~~The~~ comparative summary of more recent research is given in the second part of the literature review, which comprises three different classifications of communication strategies in terms of the strategic behavior underlying ~~the~~ linguistic product. That is, they are based on cognitive aspects of language processing rather than ~~the~~ linguistic product.

The main concern of chapter four is, the research methodology which was designed to take into account the factors examined in chapter 3 which might bring about variation in the language learners' language (interlanguage). Care was taken lest the data elicited from the subjects should not be contaminated by these variation factors. The hypothesized distinct relationship between research in communication strategies and the variation phenomena within the context of second language research is explained in detail.

In chapter five, the method followed in identifying strategy use in the present research is explained by giving examples from the data. The categorization of strategies is based on Kellerman's (1990) classification. In addition, different embedded strategy uses found in the data corpus are explained and exemplified. Another phenomenon observed in the data corpus is multi-strategy use across all types of strategies; and a second order strategy use, **monitoring strategy** is also explained. At the end of the

Data Analysis the number of strategies used by each subject, on which the conclusions are based, are given in table 1.

Chapter One

DEFINING COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Language, as a medium of communication, is used by different speakers to achieve a particular goal in daily life. In each context the way it is used is determined by some external constraints such as the status of the language user and the interlocutor. For example a sales assistant does his\her best to persuade a customer to buy a product, a student chooses the words with care when s\he writes an application letter for a scholarship, a mother responds to her four-year old child's curious questions in a simplified language (Bialystok 1990a). In each case there is a communicative goal and strategic language use to achieve it. These are all what all language users may experience or observe every day.

In learning a second language, learners as native speakers of a language already have a potential resource in the use of communication strategies. Thus, communication strategies in language learner's language are closely related to first language acquisition and communication and cognitive procedures of problem solving in language (Bialystok 1989,

2). As Bialystok (1989) claims

It would seem odd if the cognitive mechanisms that

produced communication strategies in a second language were fundamentally different from those responsible for the strategic use of a first language (Bialystok 1989, 2).

Bialystok (1990a), Kellerman et al. (1987), Kellerman (1990) and Poullisse et al. (1989) suggest and set out to show that the cognitive procedures which lie behind native speakers' communication strategies are not expected to be very different when compared to second language communication strategies. In a native speaker's language usually, in Corder's (1983) terms, the means are sufficient to realize the ends. That is, when a native speaker wants to express a message, s\he has adequate linguistic resources to make his/her choice. However, a second language learner may sometimes not possess a sufficient number of choices which enable him/her to reach communicative goals.

Strategies of second language communication are described as one of the five central processes of second language learning by Selinker (1972). The other four processes are: "language transfer, transfer-of-training, strategies of second language learning and overgeneralization" (Selinker 1972, 215). Because of the specific scope of this paper, only communication strategies are dealt with in detail. Since the second language learning process is a whole with its all aspects, it is inevitably necessary to interpret one aspect within the whole phenomenon. At the same time this poses difficulties in

distinguishing communication strategies not only from other strategies in second language learners' language but also from the entire communication process (Bialystok 1990a,24).

Tarone (1981) defines communication strategies in an interactional view in the frame of sociolinguistics . She defines communication strategies as

a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning and structures do not seem to be shared (1981,288).

Tarone explains them in the interactional perspective frame which includes a speaker, an interlocutor and negotiation of meaning. The speaker makes use of communication strategies to compensate for deficiency in his\her second language (Tarone 1981, 287). Accordingly , Tarone summarizes

- [The] following criteria characterise a communication strategy:
- (1) a speaker desires to communicate meaning x to a listener;
 - (2) the speaker believes the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure desired to communicate meaning x is unavailable , or is not shared with the listener; thus
 - (3) the speaker chooses to
 - (a) avoid - not attempt to communicate meaning x - or
 - (b) attempt alternate means to communicate meaning x. The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning (Tarone 1981, 258).

Faerch and Kasper (1983a and 1984) take a more cognitive approach and analyze communication strategies in a more complicated and detailed way. They give a psycholinguistic

definition of communication strategies which are

Potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal (Faerch and Kasper 1983a, 36).

Faerch and Kasper put emphasis on the aspect of the learner's cognitive plans to solve problems in achieving a communicative goal. However, Kasper (1984) claims that taking the interactive criterion in defining communication strategies does not take into account other types of discourses such as written communication and one way communication on TV (Faerch and Kasper 1984). They emphasise that

In the area of communication strategy , some strategies are restricted to specific discourse types, others are not (Faerch and Kasper 1984, 53).

Thus, according to Faerch and Kasper (1984) the interactional perspective ignores the fact that some communication strategies are peculiar to certain type of discourse. Therefore, they claim, this approach does not seem to be applicable in every discourse.

Ellis (1985) also adopts a psycholinguistic perspective and defines communication strategies as follows:

Communication strategies are psycholinguistic plans which exist as part of the language user's communication competence . They are potentially conscious and serve as substitutes for production plans which the learner is unable to implement (Ellis 1985, 182).

Like the others, for Ellis communication strategies are conscious ways of solving communication problems.

In addition, Corder (1983, 16) defines a communication strategy as

....a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty .

For Corder communication strategies are systematic techniques - means - in language learners' linguistic resources. Corder believes that the word "difficulty" is a vague term. He explains it as follows:

Difficulty in this definition is taken to refer uniquely to the speaker's inadequate command of the language used in interaction (1983, 16).

A second language learner sometimes does not possess enough options or analyzed knowledge to achieve his/her communicative goals.

For Faerch and Kasper (1983a, 1984) problem-orientedness is a distinctive criterion for communication strategies.

the criterion of problem-orientedness presupposes a distinction between goals which the individual experiences no difficulty in reaching and goals which present themselves to the individual as "problems": only plans that relate to the later type of goals will be considered strategies (Faerch and Kasper 1983a,32).

For Faerch and Kasper there are two types of problems. The first is in the planning stage when the user realizes that his\her second language linguistic resources are not sufficient to achieve the goal, and the second is in the execution stage when "non-automatized" items in the learner's language fail him\her in the implementation stage, which

causes non-fluent speech production (Faerch and Kasper 1983a, 34).

On the other hand, Bialystok (1990a) presents a critical approach to the problem orientedness of communication strategies while acknowledging that communication in the second language can be highly problematic by its nature. However, Bialystok asserts that problematcity cannot be a defining criterion, since native speakers of a language make use of communication strategies when there is no linguistic problem in communicating. The worries of making oneself more explicit and keeping the communication channel open are two of the reasons which may lead native speakers of a language to employ communication strategies.

In the studies cited above, the other feature that has been suggested as a defining phenomenon is the state of consciousness of the language learner in using communication strategies (Ellis, 1985; Tarone, 1981; Faerch and Kasper, 1983a, 1984). In Faerch and Kasper (1983a) the plans for communicative strategies are at least potentially conscious, which means that consciousness phenomena are gradable plans of communication strategies (Faerch and Kasper 1983a). This is explained by Faerch and Kasper (1984) as follows

....consciousness is not a permanent psychological state -the presence of consciousness depends on individual and situational variables as well as on the linguistic material and physiological

procedures involved (1984, 47).

Consciousness is not a static state of mind. It can be changed over time as a result of instruction and, consequently, as the language awareness of the learner is improved (Faerch and Kasper 1984, 47).

In contrast to Faerch and Kasper (1983a) and Ellis (1990), Bialystok (1990a) adopts a critical perspective which states that

Consciousness is implicit in most of the definitions proposed for communication strategies. If communication strategies are truly conscious events of language use, then it follows that speakers who employ them are aware (to some extent, in some undefined way) of having done so (Bialystok 1990a, 4).

She points out that it has not been shown yet empirically whether speakers are in fact aware of their making use of language strategies (Bialystok 1990a, 4).

In this section the ways of defining communication strategies have been summarized. The summary presents an overview of different attitudes towards communication strategies. A clear cut definition necessitates the use of well defined characteristics but the recent research by Kellerman et al. (1987) Bialystok (1990a) and Kellerman (1990) has shown that characteristics like problematicity and consciousness are not sufficient means of defining communication strategies. We do not have enough process oriented empirical evidence to

understand what is going on in a speaker's mind during language processing.

In the next part the history of different attempts to classify communication strategies are looked at in more detail. The discussion covers seven different point of view though some of them seem very similar.

Chapter Two

CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Since Selinker's (1972) seminal work, the research conducted has accumulated a great amount of information about communication strategies. Since then, the typologies designed have been based on this data. Accordingly, it is quite normal to find similarities between various typologies though they are based on different criteria. For this reason, it is possible to see some subtypes of one typology resembling the types and/or subtypes of a different typology. Below is given a summary of recent work on typologies. Some of the concepts have been repeated in order to give the information about the underlying behaviour explicitly.

Corder's (1983) Classification

Corder (1983) puts emphasis on the competence of a second language user to reach his\her aims. Communication strategies are alternative routes to achieve communication for second language learners. His classification is communicative goal oriented. As was summarized before, a learner manipulates his\her available language resources to reach a particular communicative goal.

According to Corder (1983), a learner either adjusts his\her message by making use of **message adjustment strategies** or s\he expands it by employing **resource expansion strategies**. One of the message adjustment strategies in Corder's classification is *topic avoidance*, which is the most extreme type. The learner simply avoids speaking since his\her linguistic resources are not sufficient to express the message. Another type of topic avoidance is *message abandonment* Corder (1983, 17). The learner tries to express the message but gives up. In message adjustment a learner may choose to express more or less the same meaning in different words (semantic avoidance).

....that is, saying something slightly different from what you intended but still broadly relevant to the topic of discourse (Corder 1983, 17).

For Corder this is a less extreme case of topic avoidance. The last type that Corder (1983) explains is *message reduction strategies*. The learner decides that his\her knowledge is

insufficient to express a particular message. Then, s/he reduces the message itself in such a way that his\her linguistic knowledge will allow him\her to convey it. In this case, the message is expected to be vague.

Resource expansion strategies, on the other hand, comprise borrowing, paraphrasing, circumlocution and paralinguistic devices. The learner borrows rules and linguistic items from another language (mother tongue or a third language). At the extreme, s\he may switch to another language which is the most risky way of communication. The second type is paraphrasing and circumlocution by which the speaker achieves his\her communicative goal in a roundabout way. A less risk-taking one is using body language and mimicry. They help to expand language resources for a word or a concept.

Corder (1983) scales both sub-groups - message adjustment and resource expansion strategies- within themselves. The former is scaled according to the extremity of avoidance that the speaker adopts and the latter is scaled according to the degree of risk taken by the speaker in communication. Corder (1983) points out that the type of strategy chosen depends on the learner's personality, the nature of the message and the situation.

Tarone's (1980 & 1981) Classification

Tarone worked with 9 subjects from three different language backgrounds. They were asked to describe two simple drawings and a complex illustration. Her classification comprises three main groups: **paraphrase, borrowing and avoidance.**

Paraphrase

Tarone (1980) assigns paraphrasing a superordinate role in her typology and describes three types of paraphrasing strategies: **approximation, word coinage, and circumlocution.**

In Corder (1983), paraphrase and circumlocution are put under the title expansion strategies; however we are not given the examples which led him to make such classification. Thus, it seems impossible to infer beyond these titles to see what he really means by paraphrasing. For instance, we cannot decide if Corder's (1983) paraphrase covers Tarone's (1980) word coinage.

approximation

Tarone (1980) defines approximation as

.... use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e.g. pipe for waterpipe) (Tarone 1980, 286).

In Tarone (1980) approximation seems to cover conscious lexical item substitutions. Sometimes substitutions may be conceptually correct but inappropriate. Corder (1983) includes approximation in his message adjustment strategies and refers to it as semantic avoidance. According to Corder (1983) the

learner avoids using a particular lexical item and makes an approximation to meet his/her ends. On the whole, both approaches are basically very similar though they are put in different words.

word coinage

The learner creates a new word in order compensate for his\her insufficient vocabulary. For example "airball for balloon" (Tarone 1980, 286). In Corder (1983) word coinage is not mentioned though the use of invented items is included in the borrowing strategy.

circumlocution

In Tarone (1980) circumlocution is the way a learner describes the characteristics and functions or other features of an object or an action in second language. Tarone's example is :

She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name . That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of (Tarone 1980, 286).

[Bialystok (1990a) points out that circumlocution provide all semantic features of an item; however, in paraphrasing the learner can only provide "a rough equivalent". In this respect, Bialystok (1990a) claims that paraphrase does not seem to be a superordinate term in the typology.]

Borrowing

literal translation

The speaker translates words or phrases from his\her language into the target language. Tarone's Mandarin speaker produced

"He invites him to drink," for "They toast one another" (Tarone 1980, 286).

language switch

In some cases the learner uses words from his\her native language; for example, she uses "tirtil" from Turkish for caterpillar.

appeal for assistance

The learner asks help from his\her interlocutor. A question like "What is this?" is one of the ways of asking help in Tarone's corpus.

mime

The learner uses body language and other non-verbal ways of expressing lexical items. In Tarone "the learner claps her hands to express applause" (Tarone 1981, 286). In Corder (1983) borrowing and mime are included in the resource expansion strategies.

Avoidance

Second language learners prefer to remain silent simply because vocabulary on a particular topic and/or a few grammar rules are not known. This behaviour is referred as **avoidance** by Tarone (1980) and Corder (1983). In Tarone's classification avoidance is divided into two groups : ***topic avoidance*** and ***message abandonment*** which corresponds very closely to Corder's similarly-named categories. In the first particular topics and words are avoided. Bialystok (1990a) interprets this as a kind of way of control of conversation on the behalf of the

learner. That is, the learners avoid becoming involved in some topics which may present difficulties for them. On the other hand, in message abandonment, the learner starts to work out a topic which is too difficult and then stops trying and changes the topic. But sometimes this strategy may be a sign of change of intentions just as with native speakers. In this case, it is difficult to decide if it is a linguistic challenge or just a wish to speak about X but not about Y.

A Summary of Tarone's (1981) Classification

Paraphrase

approximation

word coinage

circumlocution

Borrowing

literal translation

language switch

appeal for assistance

mime

Avoidance

topic avoidance

message abandonment

Bialystok and Frohlich's (1980) Oral Communication Strategies

In Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) three groups of native

speakers of English were asked to describe a picture and give instructions in French to a native speaker of French so that the person could reconstruct it.

Based on the results of this experiment, Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) divide communication strategies into three main groups: L1-based strategies, L2-based strategies and paralinguistic strategies.

L1-based Strategies

They include **language switch** which is very similar to Tarone's (1981) language switch and which is included in Corder (1983) as borrowing (a cover term which refers to non L2 linguistic resources). But in Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) only L1 - based strategies are included. Bialystok and Frohlich's (1980) example is *Il y a deux candles sur la cheminee*. The learner used "candles", an English word, instead of French version. The second L1-based strategy is **Foreignizing** native language item. In this strategy learners create

....non-existent or contextually inappropriate target language (L2) words by applying L2 morphology and/or phonology to L1 lexical items.... (Bialystok and Frohlich 1980, 10).

Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) give these examples

Il y a deux /kadl/ sur la cheminee.

Il y a une cloche sur la cheminee.

The learner created a heterogeneous word by mixing French

pronunciation with the English word "clock ". Actually in French there is a word "cloche" which means *churchbell* which is inappropriate in this context.

Bialystok and Frohlich's (1980) third strategy based on the L1 is *transliteration* which is very similar to Tarone's (1981) "literal translation". As an example for transliteration they give "place de feu" for English "fireplace".

L2 Based Strategies

The second group, L2-based strategies, includes *Semantic Contiguity* which appears to resemble Tarone's (1981) Approximation and Corder's (1983) message adjustment- semantic avoidance. The point in this strategy is that the learner finds the correct semantic field and makes an approximation but fails to find the exact word. For example in Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) the subjects used *chaise* (chair) or *table* (table) instead of *tabouret* (stool). The second L2 based strategy that Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) identify is *description* which is very much like Tarone's (1981) circumlocution and one of Corder's (1983) resource expansion strategies. However, Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) give a detailed explanation of it and divide it into three sub-classes, which are descriptions based on "general physical properties", "specific features" and "interactional \functional characteristics". Bialystok and Frohlich (1980)

point out that these three types may be integrated and used together with semantic contiguity. The example they give is that

"tabouret", for example, could be described as "Une petite chaise de bois, pour reposer les jambes quand on est fatigué, elle n'a pas de dos." This description combines semantic contiguity (une chaise), size (petite), material (de bois), function (pour reposer les jambes) and a specific feature (elle n'a pas de dos) (Bialystok and Frohlich 1980, 11).

The third L2 based strategy in Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) is *word coinage*. This is again along the same lines as Tarone (1981). The example they present is the use of *heurot* which was used to refer to "clock" in their data corpus. The noun suffix "-ot" was added to *heure* which means time in French. Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) point out that the words that were coined by the learners usually do not exist in the second language lexis. Even if they exist, it is not unusual that the learners fail to use them in a particular context appropriately.

Paralinguistic Strategies

The third strategy group is paralinguistic strategies. In Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) it was observed that the subjects used gestures or sounds to express or explain lexical items. This group and Tarone's (1981) mime, one of the borrowing strategies, refer to the same behaviour though Tarone assigns mime a subcategory rather than a category on its own right. Similarly, in Corder (1983) paralinguistic

strategies are one of the resource expansion strategies.

Faerch and Kasper's (1983) and (1984) Classification

Faerch and Kasper (1983a) classify communication strategies according to the behaviour type that the learner adopts for the problem at either the planning or executing stage. A learner may either change the communicative goal by adopting **avoidance behaviour** or by developing an alternative plan to solve the problem, which Faerch and Kasper (1983a) refer to as **achievement behaviour**. In this respect, as Bialystok (1990a) points out, this classification is based on that of Corder (1983). Avoidance behaviour results in **reduction strategies** and achievement behaviour (paraphrasing or circumlocution) applies **achievement strategies**. In reduction strategies, the communicative goal needs to be changed, and in achievement strategies developing an alternative plan is needed to cope with the necessities of the communicative goal (Faerch and Kasper 1983a and 1984).

According to Faerch and Kasper (1983a) the choice of strategy is not only determined by the underlying behaviour type but also by the nature of the problem.

Formal Reduction Strategies

While Faerch and Kasper (1983a) assigned a special place to formal reduction, in Faerch and Kasper (1984) they subclassify

it as a component of reduction strategies in general. In Faerch and Kasper (1983a) formal reduction is referred to as a special type of communication strategies, distinct from others since "...it is neutral with respect to the underlying behaviour...." (Faerch and Kasper 1983a, 37) and it is used with reduction and achievement strategies integratively. When a learner reduces one aspect of his\her language due to an implementation problem, s\he has to develop an alternative plan to continue to speak, which necessitates the use of achievement strategies (Faerch and Kasper 1983a).

Formal reduction strategies are employed at all levels of language. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) explain formal reduction on four main levels of language: phonological, morphological, syntactical and lexical levels.

In short, in formal reduction the speech of the language learner is reduced with respect to some parts of the linguistic system at all levels of language and

[it] is often accompanied by the use of other strategies [functional reduction and achievement] (Faerch and Kasper 1984, 48).

Functional Reduction Strategies

Functional reduction strategies are used when a second language learner has problems in either the planning phase or the execution phase. The problems in the planning phase are

due to imperfect language knowledge and the ones in the execution phase are due to retrieval problems. The solution is to reduce the communicative goal of which the elements are *actional, modal* and *propositional* (Faerch and Kasper 1983a and 1984). Language learners are taught grammar rules, vocabulary, phonetics, syntax and morphology. Since classroom teaching does not seem to be sufficient in teaching language for natural communication situations, learners have difficulties when they need to communicate in a natural language environment such as buying something in a shop. Although they have already practised the particular language in an artificial classroom environment, when it comes to application in natural transactional communication, the learners may have difficulties in activating discourse and speech act patterns at their disposal.

In Faerch and Kasper (1984) *actional functional reduction* is summarized as follows:

By actional functional reduction is meant that the learner avoids performing certain speech acts or discourse functions, for instance initiating acts (Faerch and Kasper 1983a, 49).

Modal functional reduction can be employed in speech acts. For example the learner prefers not to use politeness markers since s\he does not know how to use them appropriately (Faerch and Kasper 1984).

Propositional functional reduction includes strategies like

topic avoidance, message abandonment and meaning replacement (Faerch and Kasper 1983a and 1984). Topic avoidance is related to the linguistic resources. In the planning phase the topics which are predicted to be problematic due to the insufficiency of linguistic resources are eliminated. Message abandonment is used in the execution phase when a speaker starts to talk about a topic but s\he cannot continue because of linguistic problems. These are therefore essentially the same as in Corder's (1983) and Tarone's (1981) categorization but a refinement has been added by indicated^{ing} the timing of the strategy use. In meaning replacement, the learner does not give up but s\he makes use of his\her linguistic resources to express the problematic concept (Faerch and Kasper 1983a). In this case, the meaning may not be clear, which may cause misunderstandings.

Bialystok (1990a) points out the fuzzy boundaries between these three strategies. It seems to be difficult for a researcher to understand whether the reduced phenomenon is the topic or the message. In addition, the reason for avoiding a topic may not be really related to linguistic factors. It may be because of the fact that the speaker does not like to speak about a particular topic.

Faerch and Kasper (1983a) describe functional reduction strategies as a continuum of which one end is topic avoidance

and the other meaning replacement.

Achievement Strategies

Achievement strategies are described by Faerch and Kasper (1983a) as resource expansion strategies. These strategies can be observed in every language level.

Faerch and Kasper (1983a) divide achievement strategies into two main groups: **compensatory and retrieval strategies**. Compensatory strategies are executed to solve linguistic problems in the planning stage. They are the ways of compensating for the linguistic gaps in learner's language. They are classified according to the solution that learners find. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) define six types of compensatory strategies.

Compensatory Strategies

Code Switching

A language learner switches from the target language either to the learner's mother tongue or to another language. At the lexical level, in Corder's (1983) term, s\he "borrows" from another language. In code switching not only lexical items but also long stretches of discourse may be transferred to the target language (Faerch and Kasper 1983a).

Interlingual Transfer

In interlingual transfer linguistic features from IL and first language (and from a third language) are transferred to the second language. The difference between code switching and interlingual transfer is explained as follows:

Whereas with the code switching strategy learners ignore the IL code, strategies of interlingual transfer result in a combination of linguistic features from the IL and L1 (or other languages different from the L2 in question) (Faerch and Kasper 1983a, 46).

Inter-/intralingual Transfer

When second language and first language forms are considered to be similar, mother tongue forms are transferred to second language. In Faerch and Kasper (1983a) such a strategy used by Danish learners of English is given as an example:

....Danish learners of English might generalize the regular -ed suffix to irregular verbs on the basis of the way verbs in Danish are distributed between the regular and irregular declensional classes (e.g. Danish svømme-svømmede (past tense), English swim-swimmied) (Faerch and Kasper 1983a, 47).

IL Based Strategies

Interlanguage based strategies are operated to solve problems by making use of the learner's interlanguage (Faerch and Kasper 1983a). They comprise four sub-strategy groups.

Generalization

In generalization the problems encountered in the planning phase are solved by making use of learner's available

resources in order to fill the gaps in such a way that a native speaker of the language would not do normally (Faerch and Kasper 1983a). For example in Faerch and Kasper (1983a) an informant makes a generalization and uses "animals" to refer to "rabbit".

Paraphrase

Paraphrase strategies are similar to generalization strategies with respect to the underlying implementation procedure since in both a learner employs a strategy to fill the gaps in his\her plan. In paraphrasing s\he either **describes** or **exemplifies**. In exemplification a hyponymic item can be used instead of an unavailable term and in description properties and functions of the concept in question expressed by the learner (Faerch and Kasper 1983a, 49).

Word Coinage

A learner uses his\her IL creatively to construct a new word in the second language.

Restructuring

In restructuring, the linguistic structure in the plan that the learner has already executed is changed without changing the communicative goal. The learner needs this because s\he realizes that IL resources are not sufficient to complete the plan (Faerch and Kasper 1984). A common way of restructuring as explained by Faerch and Kasper (1983a) is to stop in the middle of the sentence and restructure the form of the message

while keeping the communicative goal the same. For Bialystok (1990a) this strategy is another controversial area. She asserts that the distinction between topic avoidance and formal lexical reduction and restructuring is fuzzy.

Cooperative Strategies

In some cases the learner appeals for assistance to his/her interlocutor. This is done indirectly. That is, s/she may ask a question like "How do you they say/ call this?". Sometimes an unsuccessful non-cooperative strategy may lead to a cooperative strategy. When the speaker is handicapped by his/her insufficient vocabulary for example, the interlocutor may take it as an appeal for assistance and help. The second type is unintentional on the part of the learner.

For Faerch and Kasper (1983a) cooperative strategies may be used because of the problems which are induced by an unsuccessful non-cooperative strategy which leads the speaker to use a cooperative strategy to reach the communicative goal.

Non-Linguistic Strategies

These are mime, gesture and sound imitation (Faerch and Kasper 1983a,52). They support linguistic strategies. It is also pointed out that they indicate an appeal for help from the interlocutor.

Retrieval Strategies

These strategies are employed in the execution phase when the learner has difficulty in retrieving a particular language item. Under the pressure of time, these strategies are brought into operation in order to gain time. In Faerch and Kasper (1983a) six retrieval strategies are cited:

waiting for the term to appear, appealing for formal similarity retrieval via semantic fields, searching via other languages, retrieval from learning situations, sensory procedures (Faerch and Kasper 1983a, 52).

However, no further explanation is given.

A Comparison between Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Corder (1983), Tarone (1980 and 1981)

The reduction strategies in Faerch and Kasper (1983a) correspond to Corder's (1983) message adjustment strategies. Corder describes message adjustment strategies as a continuum, one end of which is topic avoidance resembling Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) propositional functional reduction strategy. ~~At the other end there is message reduction, that is very much like Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) propositional functional strategies.~~ In addition, the achievement cooperative strategies and non-linguistic strategies described in Faerch and Kasper (1983a) seem a modified explanation of Corder's (1983) resource expansion strategies. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) distinguish borrowing from first language or a third

language and language learner's language (IL). In this sense they provide a very detailed version of Corder's (1983) classification.

One of Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) functional reduction strategies, propositional functional reduction, covers Tarone's (1980 and 1981) avoidance strategies. Paraphrase, one of the achievement strategies in Faerch and Kasper (1983a), becomes a blanket term for approximation, word coinage and circumlocution in Tarone (1980 and 1981) under the title of borrowing which includes literal translation and language switch. In addition, Tarone (1980 and 1981) includes appeal for assistance and mime ~~to~~^{to} borrowing as an archistrategy, whereas in Faerch and Kasper (1983a) each one is a sub-type of achievement strategies: cooperative and non-linguistic.

The research summarized up to this point has taken the class of communication strategies as a type of language behaviour in relation to its linguistic outcome. Various researchers refer to the same behaviour by using different names. The configuration of sub-classes and archistrategies varies according to the criteria chosen in each research. For instance Tarone's (1980 and 1981) archistrategy borrowing can be found as a sub-class in Corder's (1983) resource expansion strategies.

It is perhaps the variation in the classification of

communication strategies that has led some other researchers to take another view ^{which is} based on psycholinguistic grounds. This view ^{is} very much concerned with the process ^{which} underlying ^{res} the speaker's choice and ^{the} use of what Faerch and Kasper (1983a) refer to as compensatory strategies. Kellerman (1990) distinguishes lexical compensatory strategies from others and deals with them particularly due to practical reasons such as the great amount of research having been accumulated particularly on this aspect and also due to pedagogical reasons such as the significant role of lexis in language teaching.

For Kellerman (1990) compensatory strategies

"....are used to maintain the integrity of the learner's original communicative goal" (Kellerman 1990, 143).

Specifically lexical compensatory strategies are for filling the gaps in the speaker's lexicon. In Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) classification compensatory strategies are dealt with as one of the sub-types of achievement strategies which covers code switching, interlingual transfer, inter-\intralingual transfer, IL based strategies, cooperative strategies, and non-linguistic strategies. However, in Kellerman (1990) an attempt is made to analyse and classify the cognitive and linguistic processes underlying these behaviours. In this sense, ~~the~~ process oriented approach takes language use as a cognitive ~~the~~ process which involves making grammatically and ^{includes in}

semantically appropriate choice for language users.

Another difference between the traditional approach and the process oriented approach is that the work carried out on the classification of compensatory strategies within the framework of underlying process does not distinguish communication strategies employed by native speakers from the ones employed by second language learners (Kellerman et al. 1987; Kellerman 1990, Bongaerts, T. and Poulishse, N., 1989). Kellerman (1990) claims that although compensatory strategies are typical characteristics of language learners' language, native speakers also use them. He also emphasizes the importance of research on native speakers' compensatory strategies in understanding language learning and production processes. He asserts that

....if it can be shown that such strategies are part and parcel of normal native speaker communicative life, then they already constitute a ready-made resource to be exploited in the second language. If learners seem unable to make full use of this resource (....) then we must look to other causes such as a lack of linguistic ability in second language or to factors inherent to classroom setting (Kellerman 1990, 144).

What Kellerman (1990) stresses is that compensatory strategies are inherent in the language that learners are expected to learn. That is, these strategies are to be acquired within the language learning process.

put into practise

To this end, Kellerman (1990) revises the aim of developing

descriptive taxonomies of communication strategies. He points out that

....for the researcher interested in the way second languages are acquired and used, ...a more obvious concern would be with the psychological processes underlying those strategies (Kellerman 1990, 144).

Putting emphasis on the psychological processes of second language learning, Kellerman (1990) suggests different criteria for classifying communication strategies. It is not the linguistic behaviour but the type of cognitive process of second language use. Taking this criterion as a base Kellerman (1987, 1990) and Bialystok (1990a) attempt to find out the processes underlying strategic behaviour in language processing. In a way the new approach classifies these processes in terms of both cognitive and linguistic aspects of language processing.

In the following pages the work carried out by Kellerman et al. (1987) , Kellerman (1990) and Bialystok (1990a) will be summarized.

Kellerman, Bongaerts and Poulishse (1987) Referential Communication Strategies

The study conducted by Kellerman et al. (1987) presents a quite different point of view from those outlined in the previous section. Kellerman et al. (1987) include only

referential communication in their classification. In a referential communication situation a speaker conveys a message in such a way that the interlocutor understands what the message refers to (Kellerman et al. 1987). In referential communication strategies the speaker does not change his/her initial goal to avoid giving the message or reduce it due to linguistic difficulties. Accordingly, in Kellerman et al. (1987), reduction strategies, which are a part of Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) classification, are not dealt with. Compensatory strategies, one of the main classes -achievement strategies- in Faerch and Kasper (1983a), are explained in relation to referential strategies as follows,

In our framework, compensatory strategies are used in referential communication typically when the speaker has to resort to ad hoc solutions to bridge linguistic (e.g. lexical) gaps without sacrificing the integrity of his intended message (Kellerman et al 1987, 100).

In their work, a process oriented approach is adopted and the traditional product oriented approach is criticized. They claim that the traditional product oriented approach describing learner behaviour fails

....to distinguish clearly the psychological process from the linguistic product, and [fails] to consider the linguistic and non-linguistic constraints that influence the particular choice of strategy in ongoing discourse (Kellerman et al. 1987, 100).

They point out that the motives leading to the strategic use of language are as important as the linguistic output.

Kellerman et al. (1987) present three main groups of compensatory strategies. They refer to them as "archistrategies" (Kellerman et al. 1987, 105). These are **approximative, analytic** and **linguistic**, the first of which are *cognitive* while the last is *holistic*.

Approximative Strategies

These are known as approximation, generalization and exemplification in the literature. A learner substitutes a lexical item for the one that s\he does not know or cannot retrieve.

In some cases s\he is not sure about its usage. S\he is aware of the fact that substitution is not satisfying; however, since it shares the same semantic domain, it is expected to convey the message .

Analytic Strategies

The second *archistrategy* that Kellerman et al. (1987) propose is the analytic strategy, which is a blanket term for traditional circumlocution and paraphrase. The form of the strategy adopted is determined by the particular attributes of the referent. The attributes may be conceptual, functional or perceptual. The purpose of the speaker is to create the picture of the referent in the interlocutor's mind. Thus, the

choice depends on the speaker's view of the interlocutor's perception. At the same time, the analytic description is very much influenced by the context in which the referent is communicated. If the speaker's analysis of the referent is in terms of its particular function s\he employs a *functional analytic* description. In some cases, functional description would not be an efficient choice when the context includes similar concepts of which the functions are alike. Then, the attribute would be *criterial* and *comparative*, which really distinguishes the referent amongst others (Kellerman et al. 1987). When there is no need to distinguish a particular "knife" for example from other cutlery, its *cutting* function is a distinctive feature. Therefore, its function is a criterion in referring to the device. But when there are other devices which are used in *cutting things*, another distinctive attribute is needed to distinguish the referent from another by comparing its *sharpness* and *size*. Kellerman et al. (1987) give the following example

Thus the learner may refer to a particular knife as the 'large sharp thing' as distinct from 'the small blunt one' (Kellerman et al. 1987, 106).

Analytic strategies then can be either linguistic or cognitive. That is the speaker needs a compositional analysis of not only the referent as a subject or a linguistic item, but also the concept which covers all distinguishing features of the referent.

Linguistic Strategies

The third type of strategies that Kellerman et al. (1987) identify is linguistic strategies, of which their conception is very much in line with the others in the literature. They include interlingual strategies which have been referred to as borrowing, foreignization and transliteration. Kellerman et al. (1987) classify them as lexical strategies. These strategies are, as Kellerman et al. (1987) point out, based on the assumption that speaker and interlocutor share the same linguistic background.

Another point on compensatory strategies made by Kellerman et al. (1987) is the embeddedness of these strategies. A learner may employ both approximative and analytic strategies for the sake of success of his\her communication.

Bialystok (1990a) Analysis and Control in Communication Strategies

Bialystok presents a similar approach to Kellerman et al. (1987). She also emphasises the underlying process of communication (conceptual realization) not surface (linguistic) form. For her the criteria in classification of communication strategies are the differences between the processing means employed by the different learners. These

means through which second language learners achieve a communication goal are ways of making linguistic choices. Accordingly, Bialystok (1990a) claims that

.... the taxonomies based on surface structure differences of utterances provide an inventory of the linguistic possibilities for expressing a given idea. But the arguments presented here do not constitute strategies in that they do not capture the cognitive choices available to speakers during communication (Bialystok 1990a, 131).

For her, communication strategies are components of language processing; and they are also processes within themselves. Thus, a classification of communication strategies is expected to explain these processes.

In Bialystok's (1990a) classification two main strategies- analysis-based and control-based strategies- are explained. She bases her classification on Corder's (1983) idea which claims that communication strategies are the means of meeting communicative ends. That is, when linguistic means are not available and/or sufficient enough to meet ends (goals), the learner either tries to compensate for this gap by using the resources available (message adjustment) or just avoids speaking or expands his/her resources by using another language, mime or appeal to others (resource expansion). However, Bialystok's (1990a) approach seems to be more cognition oriented compared to Corder's (1983). In Bialystok (1990a) the first aspect of communication strategies is the cognitive process in which an essential feature is the

learner's conceptual knowledge.

The second aspect of second language learning process is the ability that the learners already have in their mother tongue. That is, they have already gained the power of control of labelling conceptual knowledge.

Analysis-Based Strategies

In the case of adult second language learners, they have a resource of knowledge of the world which is not specific to a particular language. Thus, they already have had conceptual knowledge which is represented explicitly in their mother tongue. The symbolic representation of concepts in their first language makes them aware of linguistic structures. That is, they know, for example, linguistic relationships between lexical items like synonymy and hyponymy. Accordingly, it can be concluded that they have a basic language processing system which is dominated by mainly conceptual knowledge, and they try to analyze the relationship between conceptual knowledge and linguistic structures of second language in their resources. Then, they choose a symbolic representation to express the intended meaning. Bialystok (1990a) claims that the processing need not necessarily be conscious. In terms of descriptive taxonomic approach these processes involved include *circumlocution, paraphrase, transliteration, word coinage and mime* (Bialystok 1990a).

In this respect, Bialystok's (1990a) explanation is similar to Kellerman et al.'s (1987) Approximative and Analytic strategies since they are closely related to the learners' processing their conceptual knowledge within their second language resources.

Control - Based Strategies

In these strategies the initial communication goal is kept but the chosen system of labelling is changed. In order to achieve the initial goal, attention is focused on a different linguistic system (L1 and L3) which is more available at present. In addition, Bialystok (1990a) includes gestures, objects, other symbols and appealing to other resources like dictionaries among the means of *control-based strategies*. In the descriptive taxonomies this way of processing is described as language switch (L1 or L3), appealing for help and mime.

In Kellerman et al. (1987) linguistic strategies include some parts of what Bialystok (1990a) refers to as control-based strategies. However, they do not talk about mime explicitly.

Kellerman (1990) Compensatory Strategies in Second Language Research

In Kellerman (1990) the classification of compensatory strategies becomes more compact and the relationship between

compensatory strategies of native speakers is much more explicitly presented. Kellerman (1990) identifies strategic behaviour processes rather than classes of compensatory strategies of second language learners. Accordingly, he describes two categories of strategies: **conceptual** and **code**.

Conceptual Strategy

In the conceptual strategy learners manipulate the concept in their minds in order to express it by means of their linguistic and mimetic resources. There are two aspects of this process: *holistic* and *analytic*.

In *holistic conceptual strategies* the speakers tend to use a cover term to refer to the referent like "bird" for "sparrow", "vegetables" for "peas" or "cooker" for "microwave oven". Kellerman (1990) claims that speakers prefer to signify the use of this strategy by starting with "It looks like a" and "It's a sort of".

In *analytic strategies* speakers resort to either explaining the target referents' properties (e.g. function or other attributes) or refer to the target referent in a created form in the second language. In Kellerman (1990) a speaker explains the function of a bib "This you use for a baby so it can't make its clothes dirty". Another example of the analytic conceptual strategy is "haircutter" for hairdresser.

Kellerman's (1990) conceptual strategy is very much like Bialystok's (1990a) analysis based strategy and Kellerman et al.'s (1987) approximative and analytic strategies. Conceptual strategy covers word coinage, circumlocution approximation and description of properties in traditional taxonomies.

Code Strategy

Kellerman's (1990) *code strategy*, on the other hand, is explained as an alternative way of labelling the referents.

The code strategy is made use of in two ways:

The first to resort to either to another language (the L1 typically, but not inevitably), or to productive grammatical processes within the L2 (like morphological derivation) to create ad hoc labels in the L2 (Kellerman 1990, 150).

The second way is using non-verbal means like ostension, onomatopoeic devices and pictorial representations. Kellerman (1990) points out that

When the code strategy is used, no attempt is made by the speaker to substitute another referent, nor to represent conceptual properties of the target referent (Kellerman 1990, 151).

In Kellerman (1990) it is reported that a Dutch speaker refers to "wig" as "pruke" which is influenced by Dutch "pruik" and to "to iron" as "to ironise".

In traditional taxonomies code strategy is referred  as borrowing, foreignizing and grammatically motivated word coinage. Kellerman's (1990) code strategy seems to be similar

to Bialystok's (1990a) control-based strategies and Kellerman et al.'s (1987) linguistic strategies.

In this section, the literature accumulated on communication strategies during the last three decades has been reviewed starting with Selinker's (1972) seminal work which establishes the place of strategic competence in the domain of second language acquisition research. In this context, attempts to define and identify the features of communication strategies have been summarized. The review presents the gradual development of approaches towards research on communication strategies. The first four studies which pursue traditional a taxonomic approach give way to a more process oriented approach. The last three studies cited in the review of literature point out that the attitude toward research in second language acquisition process has changed significantly. It is the change that has led the researchers to adopt another perspective in the last three studies summarized. The new aspect of research has been actually initiated by the previous work done on the second language communication strategies. The main aim of second language research is apparently to infer the process of learning and production so that research could provide help to teach languages more efficiently.

The research on second language communication strategies started with explaining and classifying the linguistic structure of

language learners' errors. Then, it appeared to stagnate since all researchers could do was to invent a new terminology to refer to similar concepts. A way out was sought by the introduction of another perspective which attempts to explain second language learners' communication strategies within the context of both first and second language learning and using. This assumption is based on the fact that, being speakers of a mother tongue, all second language users have actually inherited the ability to use languages strategically when it is necessary during the communication. The ~~strategic~~ use of language strategically is dependent on the context of situation and the type of discourse. The native speakers of a language are capable of manipulating their language resources. That is, they have enough lexico-grammatical choices and pragmatic and phonetic intuitions to achieve this. When it comes to the second language learning, they may not have that many choices and pragmatic and phonetic knowledge of the language. Therefore, it becomes vital to develop a range of strategies to compensate for the lack of resources. At this stage the conceptual knowledge that they have at their disposal is brought into operation through either second language or first language.

The discussion of the experiment that is the subject of the present study, it is the process-oriented approach, particularly as set out in Kelerman (1990), which is adopted. Before discussing the findings, however, it is necessary to explain the

methodological factors which influenced the design of the experiment.

Chapter Three

VARIATION IN INTERLANGUAGE AND INTERLANGUAGE RESEARCH DESIGN

The empirical evidence that has been gathered during the last three decades has indicated the existence of variation phenomena in interlanguage. Research has been carried out into the causes of these variations and their consequences in second language acquisition research. Variation phenomena have been explained in different terms by different researchers. Although different approaches refer to similar aspects with different terminology, within the same domain they all conclude that variation in interlanguage cannot be ignored, especially in second language acquisition research design.

In early studies it was taken for granted that, once a particular structure had been acquired, it would be used in all contexts and situations. Recent studies have shown that learners' performance depends on different variables imposed by non-linguistic factors and sometimes external factors (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991).

Tarone has summarized this issue as follows:

There can be no doubt now that the linguistic forms produced by second language learners vary markedly as those learners move from one situation to another, and one task to another (Tarone 1989b, 13).

One of the features of IL is that it is dynamic. That is, a learner's language is not stable. In normal conditions, it changes over time constantly though not necessarily in the direction of greater proficiency. In ideal conditions if it is assumed that the

learner improves his\her language abilities, s\he does not go through this process haphazardly. As Ellis (1985) explains:

....[The L2 learner] does not jump from one stage to the next, but rather slowly revises the interim systems to accommodate new hypotheses about the target language system. This takes place by the introduction of a new rule, first in one context and then in another, and so on. A new rule spreads in the sense that its coverage gradually extends over a range of linguistic contexts (Ellis 1985, 50).

A learner's language is ready to replace old information with new or to extend the functions of a linguistic rule as s\he learns more about the language itself and its usage.

According to Bialystok (1985) one kind of variation in a language learner's language is related to internal mental skills. Bialystok (1985) claims that this can be referred to as "cognitive variability". The second kind of variation that Bialystok refers to is "....at a particular point in time...." Bialystok (1985, 110). She explains this as follows

? (Certain linguistic forms, for example, may be used one way in some situations and another way in others (Bialystok 1985, 110).

This variation is related to the learner's ability to control language and the psycholinguistic constraints under which s\he puts his\her knowledge into practice. Since the two types of variation occur synchronically, the learner may not be sure which form or structure to use at a particular time or in a particular situation.

On the other hand, Tarone (1989a) suggests that the variation in

learners' performance is closely related to the amount of attention paid to the language form. According to the degree of attention that the style requires, Tarone (1989a) presents a model which describes second language learner's capability as an integration of a continuous range of styles: from a careful style (attention is paid to form) to vernacular style (the least amount of attention is paid to the form) with, it is suggested, intermediate styles in between. The careful style is more native like.

Variability in IL is caused by style-shifting along this continuum, which in turn is caused by variable shifts in the degree of attention which learner pays to language form (Tarone 1988, 41).

According to Tarone (1989a) the capability of second language learners differs along the continuum of styles. However, as she points out attention to the form is not an "explanatory factor" but an "intermediary factor" (Tarone 1989a, 11). What leads a learner to attend to form is the key question for the explanation of variation across styles.

As Tarone (1988) explains there are various causal factors in variation in language learner's language. These are, as cited in Tarone (1987 and 1988), social, situational and psychological factors, which will be summarized in the following pages in the context of second language acquisition research. As the reader can appreciate, the scope of this research is not wide enough to cover all the theoretical background which has contributed to the variation in interlanguage theory. However, since the domain of the

present research is the language learner's language, namely interlanguage, I felt obliged to include some discussion of this phenomenon, particularly since it has a bearing on the way my experiment was conducted.

In this sense, it is important to take into account these aspects of the IL continuum because what is emphasized is that the style of a certain IL speaker at a given time is not his\her overall competency. A learner may satisfy the demands of a certain task at a particular time. That is, his\her means are satisfying in assisting him\her to reach the ends for a particular task. However, it does not mean that the learner is always able to communicate in the same linguistic domain with the same success.

The fact that a learner's language varies in two dimensions across time and across discourse styles may cause misleading results in research. Accordingly, the factors causing variation are better determined beforehand and precautions should be taken if possible. For the present research, it was hypothesized that the relationship between interlocutor and the informant, the complexity and the familiarity of the task and topic the informants are asked to perform would induce variation in the informants' language. That is, they would create interference in collecting reliable data. These factors will be explained first within the course of the theoretical background as cited in the literature and then within the context of the present communication strategies research

design.

Interlocutor In Interlanguage Research Design

An important factor which may influence variation in learner's language is the interlocutor. Empirical studies (Zeungler, 1989; Gass and Varonis, 1989) have shown that second language learners shift their style according to their interlocutor. Accordingly, Tarone (1987) reports that

Decisions we make about the identity and the role of the interlocutor may affect the grammatical accuracy of the speaker (Tarone 1987, 37).

The interlocutor may be a native or a non-native speaker of the target language. S/he may have higher status than the subject (e.g. teacher/student) and /or both may have equal status. These all affect the subject's perception of his/her interlocutor and consequently affect the lexico-grammatical accuracy of the subject's performance. Young (1989) in his research on the degree of systematicity in one area of morphology in the English of Chinese speakers verified the hypothesis that

....audience design would be a significant factor in the variation found in the speech of second language learners....(Young 1989, 81).

Further he claims that

....this variable would be mediated by the degree to which speaker and interlocutor shared certain sociocultural attributes (Young 1989, 81).

Another aspect of the situation is the psychological effect of the identity of the interlocutor in the experimental setting on the

subject. In an experimental setting, the subject is under pressure because s/he expected to perform a task or answer questions. The pressure on the second language learner speaker in an experimental setting can be easily observable while s/he is struggling not to make mistakes. Intimacy between the subject and the interlocutor is expected to reduce the pressure that the subject is under. Thus, the identity of the interlocutor and the intimacy between informant and interlocutor is bound to be significant in terms of variation in the second language learner's language.

Task In terlanguage Research Design

In the literature it has been emphasized that the design of the tasks to elicit suitable data for particular second language research is a significant factor when pedagogic aspects of research in linguistics and variation in second language learner's language are considered (Tarone 1987, 1989a, 1989b). Therefore, the task needs to be designed carefully to achieve reliable results in research. The complexity of the task may have an effect on the accuracy of the learner's language. It is obvious that a task is chosen in order to elicit data about the subject's language ability not his/her IQ level. Therefore, the activity which the subject is asked to perform should normally not be complex. A very complicated task would put the subjects off from the very beginning. Since learner's language apparently varies according to the psychological mood of a learner, inevitably this would affect the reliability of the data elicitation procedure negatively.

Another crucial factor in task design is the type of discourse which is employed within the task. As Tarone puts it

....the style-shifting produced by these learners was governed not by a global attention to all language form but rather by the nature of the discourse which the tasks required and the degree of communicative pressure which the task brought to bear upon the learner....(Tarone 1989a, 13).

Task requirements determine the length of the discourse: for example in some cases the subjects are required to recognize an ungrammatical structure, while in a more complex one they are asked to produce the grammatically acceptable version. But this is a kind of discourse which is not connected by means of cohesive devices.

The degree of cohesiveness of discourse type and its effect on variation in second language learner's language is emphasized in Tarone (1989a) as follows

In particular, as tasks elicit increasingly cohesive discourse, and in circumstances which increasingly require that the speaker be clear in transacting information, some grammatical forms may improve in accuracy rate while others may decrease (Tarone 1989a, 13).

Whether the aim is to elicit a piece of cohesive discourse or the pronunciation of a list of words and analyze them in terms of the hypothesis affects the choice of the task type.

It is worth spending a long time at the beginning to find the right type of discourse to elicit the structure of language learner's language features on which we want to work. Tarone (1988) warns researchers:

...the language forms which we have selected to study

may occur with different degrees of frequency in different types of discourse (1988, 121).

It has been accepted that the mode of discourse [i.e. "...the role assigned to language...." (Halliday and Hasan 1989, 26) or "...what part language is playing" (Halliday and Hasan 1989, 12)] is related to the channel of discourse which puts certain constraints on the task that the subject is asked to perform. As Halliday and Hasan (1989) claim, "[Mode] is strongly pragmatic and task oriented" (p.34). That is, the mode and the task requirements would lead the subject to manipulate the language in different ways. In the case of non-native speaker subjects these factors are expected to become more challenging.

In her study on style-shifting Tarone (1985) found that subjects were more successful in terms of grammatical accuracy in narrative tasks when she compared their performance on non judgement tasks, oral descriptions of their field of study and oral narratives. Thus, the mode of discourse also has a significant effect on selecting task since it affects the variability of grammatical accuracy of the subjects.

As was pointed out before, the mode of a piece of discourse is related to its channel. This is because of the fact that the two channels require different cognitive processes. Performing the same task in both written and oral form would make a significant difference in grammatical accuracy.

It seems that different tasks which demand producing different discourse styles would supply the researcher with different aspects of a subject's language. It may thus be advisable to gather data of subjects' performance in different discourses depending on the researchers aims.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) advise researchers to make use of multiple tasks to obtain more feasible data on the subjects' particular feature of the subjects' language under consideration.

However, Ellis (1985) warns researchers about the danger of mixing data from different sources. He claims that

[It would make it] impossible to distinguish one interlanguage style from each other (Ellis 1985, 90).

And he concludes that

If the data from such a range of tasks are not kept separate, the systematicity of interlanguage will be disguised (Ellis 1985, 90).

Every experimental design is bound to present some factors which may or may not cause variation in informant's language. The problem is how to eliminate or mitigate them so that the data is reliable enough to reach a valid conclusion. I shall discuss in the method and methodology section how these issues have been applied to the present research.

Topic In Research Design

Tarone (1989a and 1989b) includes topic among the social factors which influence a subject's performance and consequently cause

variation in the informant's language. In second language research a tight control over the topic is necessary so that subjects' stream of consciousness will not cause the conversation to drift to an unpredictable topic development and discourse type. Tarone (1988) summarizes the techniques of topic control.

The researcher needs to decide whether for example, she\he wants a description of a particular series of events, and then provide the same stimulus material to all the subjects (Tarone 1988, 119).

At the same time, topic is very much related to the type of task the subject is asked to perform. In Woken and Swales (1989) and Zeungler (1989) it was found that when the topic is within the expertise of the non-native speakers, they dominate the conversation easily. That is, familiarity of topic is also important in gathering reliable data. Thus, topic should be tightly controllable and within the experience of the subject.

In this study the topic of the interview is a phenomenon that the subjects are familiar with. It is the difficulties of living in England and differences between Turkish and English life in terms of academic work and life style. However, the topic of the **car design** task may not seem very familiar. It was a necessary condition in order to stimulate learners to use communication strategies. On the other hand, it is not completely unfamiliar. It was hypothesized that cars are already part of our life. That is, the concept is already known if not in detail.

In this part variation in interlanguage has been summarized in terms of different writers' point of view. In second language

acquisition research it seems it is necessary to take into account variation across styles in Tarone's (1989a) terms and variation due to the identity of interlocutor in a research setting. The main purpose of including variation in interlanguage in this study is to make the reader aware of this phenomenon which can be an interfering agent in some cases and in other cases one more variable in the research design in addition to the variables that every second language research design may have by its nature.

Chapter Four

THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Informants and Interviewers

Five Turkish postgraduate students contributed to this case study. They are all over 20. They received their master's degree in Turkey. Two of them studied in English medium universities, while the other three are graduates of Turkish medium higher education institutions. Except two, three of them attended language courses in different places in England before they started to study for the Ph.D.

In this study it was hypothesised that there is a relationship between the type of communication strategies that a speaker of a foreign language uses and his\her proficiency level. In order to verify this hypothesis I needed to rank the subjects' level of English on a 5-level continuum. This necessitated a frame of reference. That is why I chose two of the subjects according to my personal observations of these students' proficiency. One of them is a female medievalist whose English appears to be ~~is~~ better than that of any other Turkish postgraduate student ^{studying at} ~~in the~~ University of Liverpool. The second is a male physicist who is known to have difficulties in his daily life and academic work due to his English. These two subjects are the extremes of the language proficiency continuum in this study and the other subjects' proficiency level was expected to be placed somewhere between these

two in the continuum. Of course, such a decision, which relies on random observations, cannot be the basis for a scientific study entirely but at least it supplies a starting point. It is expected that observational pre-experiment intuitions can help in the preliminary stage.

The competency level of each subject was determined according to the 15-minute interview and the information collected in questionnaire. The information about learning history of each subject was taken into account. However, their performance during the interview was essential for determining their levels.

Information about Subjects' English Language Learning History and Academic Career

m

age 25

sex f

profession\ academic degree biologist \M.sc. in Population Ecology

field of study Freshwater Ecology

She has been living in England for 10 months.

She has been studying English for 9 years.

She thinks her English is good.

d

age 29

sex m

profession\academic degree physicist \M.Sc. in Nuclear Physics

field of study Nuclear Physics

He has been living in England for 15 months.

He has been studying English for 8 years.

He thinks his English is good.

a

age 28

sex m

profession\academic degree Mechanical Engineer \ M.Sc. in Fluid Mechanics

field of study Fluid Mechanics

He has been living in England for a year.

He has been studying English for 5 years.

He thinks his English is good.

mu

age 27

sex m

profession\academic degree Veterinary \

field of study Veterinary Surgery

He has been living in England for 11 months.

He has been studying English for 12 years.

He thinks his English is good.

h

age 28

sex f

profession\academic degree Research Assistant

field of study Medieval English Literature

She has been living in England for 10 months.

She has been studying English for 10 years.

She thinks her English is very good.

Competence Continuum

not good	1	2	3	4	5	perfect
	a	d	mu	m	h	

Each informant was interviewed by a different non-Turkish speaking interlocutor because it was hypothesised that, in a setting where everybody can speak Turkish, there is no point in speaking English or any foreign languages. It would not be natural. Thus, in order to create a need to speak English, non-Turkish speaking interviewers were used. They are postgraduate students of different nationalities. Two of them are British, the others are Malaysian, Mexican and French.

That the identity of interlocutor and the relationship between the interlocutor and the subject are important in the frame of variation in interlanguage has been pointed out above. Thus priority was given to ensuring the interviewers and subjects knew

each other beforehand. They are all either colleagues in the same laboratory or living in the same flat. The purpose of this was to lessen the tension of being recorded for the subjects. The informants were asked first whether they would be at ease speaking to the particular person or not, or they were asked to choose an interviewer. For the non-native speakers, their English level was taken into account as well as their intimacy with the informants. The Malaysian interviewer is a lexicographer, and she has been studying for the MA in Applied Linguistics and living in England for 11 months. The French interviewer has been studying for the MA in Latin American Studies in England for about two years. The Mexican interviewer has his M.Sc. in Tropical Medicine and been in England for 13 months.

Interview

The topic for the interview was deliberately chosen to cover the subjects' perception of life in England, and their attitude towards English language and culture. The subjects were uneasy at the beginning. But it was an expected situation and the interviewers had been warned beforehand. They were instructed to be careful in asking the questions so that the subjects would be able to answer successfully and thus relieve the tension. The interviewers were given a set of questions related to the particular subjects' life in England and in Turkey. But they were left free to manipulate and change the questions as long as they remained along the same lines as the original ones. This could of course, appear somewhat risky

in an experiment which is expected to be scientific. This way was taken because in the interview it was important to elicit subjects' natural language, that is the language they would produce in daily life in England. In addition, the interview was to be used as an indicator of the subject's global proficiency, rather than their mastery of any individual language areas.

The purpose of this 15-minute interview was to provide evidence to rank the subjects' proficiency level. As is obvious, it did not enable the researcher to measure their proficiency level accurately; however, it gave the opportunity to place each within a 5-level continuum, with sufficient accuracy for my purposes. A part of each interview was transcribed to give an idea to the reader both about the structure of the interview and the proficiency level of the subjects (see Appendix B).

Task

The importance of task design in second language research design has been discussed above within the context of variation in interlanguage. Accordingly, the task design was carried out on the basis of the discussion.

In this research I was particularly interested in lexically -based communication strategies. By their nature, communication strategies have various aspects, and it seems impossible to deal with all of them at one time. For instance, in this study politeness-based communication strategies and grammatical errors are ignored. Since

the focus was on the lexically-based strategies, the task design was specifically intended to elicit lexical mistakes.

The task was the second part of the experiment, which used three different diagrams of a car (see appendix A). The informants were asked to identify and explain the functions of the parts of a car. They were asked to perform the task as if they were speaking to an English speaking child. The first diagram was a photocopy of a black and white picture showing the exterior parts (see appendix - picture 3). The second one was a colourful diagram, designed originally for children, showing the engine and exterior design (see appendix A - picture 4). This one required a fair amount of technical knowledge. The third part was another black and white design showing the dashboard (see appendix A - picture 5). Since the first and third pictures were originally black and white, photocopies were used whereas the original colourful picture was used for the second task to benefit from the attraction of the colours.

The purpose of these diagrams was to establish a lexically-focussed topic of communication which the subjects do not normally deal with. It was assumed that the subjects would use their English strategically to overcome the unfamiliarity. It would put the subjects off if only the second picture in which the engine is displayed in detail were used, for they may not know anything about it. But in daily life the exterior appearance of cars is known by

ordinary people. Therefore, the first picture shows the whole body of a car which everybody can see on the street every day. This diagram, in a way, prepares the subjects for the more difficult one (the second). The third picture shows the inside of a car -the dashboard- which is not particularly unfamiliar for most people who have been in a car as passenger or as driver. The last one completes the whole picture of a car, and would give the subjects a feeling of completeness. In addition, when the experiment is over the subjects preferably should not feel lost or discouraged because the second task was difficult.

In order to select an appropriate car design I carried out a pilot study using the first picture (see appendix A - picture 1) I chose. Firstly, two British postgraduate students were asked to write down the names of each part which were numbered and indicated with an arrow. In addition, they were asked to make comments on the quality of the photocopy and the design. They complained about the quality of the photocopy and said that the design was not clear enough to understand where the arrows were pointing exactly. Later, I coloured it (see appendix A - picture 2) and asked three more British people to do it. The result was similar again. One of them said that the place of the steering wheel was confusing because it was on the left.

In addition, I asked one Turkish lady to do it in Turkish. Her reaction was the same as with the British informants.

The final picture I found was designed for children originally. The photocopy was coloured to replicate the original but it was not as clear as the original one. The second group of three British people who did it said that they would like to have the original. I therefore decided to disguise the explanations on the original with self adhesive stickers. Another picture from Collins Students' Dictionary was added to enrich the task. The second picture is a dashboard diagram. In both pictures the steering wheel is on the left so it will not cause any confusion for the Turkish informants contrary to its effect on the British informants.

This pilot study was needed since the pictures have not been designed for this purpose. Whether they would work for the purposes of this experiment or not was thus tested. Another point is that although there are plenty of technical dictionaries explaining names of a car's parts, I wished to see how ordinary British people (without any professional knowledge about cars) refer to each part. The information I obtained would be the basis of identifying the lexical errors the Turkish subjects would make.

In addition, I needed to know what these parts ^{are} called in Turkish since I was going to ask the subjects if they have these concepts in their Turkish lexicon. For this reason, I asked two Turkish mechanical engineers to write down the Turkish names of each part.

Retrospection

Retrospection is one of the research techniques used in this study, the third step of the experiment. It is one of the verbal reporting techniques (Seliger 1989) which has gained importance since process oriented second language research has become dominant in the field of study. The purpose of the use of retrospective techniques is to make the subjects recall the cognitive processes in their minds after they performed a task in the experiment setting because the main aim is to enable researchers to infer to the second language learning and/or performance.

In retrospection subjects are guided by the researcher to examine and pursue the processes in their minds and verbalize them just after the performance. This is a kind of self-report, the validity of which has been contested. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) report that some second language acquisition researchers claim that retrospective data is only reliable for the study of subjects' attitude and motivation. Nevertheless, it is clear that data from the retrospection may be useful in confirming or rejecting the researcher's hypothesis based on the data from the task. For reliable retrospective data collection it is imperative to collect the data just after the completion of the task performance. The subjects' memory should if possible be supported by contextual information such as showing pictures or video-tapes. The questions should be well prepared to focus on the relevant information. They should not reflect the researcher's bias lest they lead the subjects to generate information in that way. Ideally, subjects

should not be informed that there is going to be an additional session in the experiment.

In the present research the subjects were asked to remember the reasons for their choice of certain lexical items. Some of the questions that the informants were asked in the retrospection were:

1-Were you conscious of trying to avoid unknown words, for example by leaving out one part of the diagram?

2-Did you use any Turkish words thinking or hoping that they were the same in English without being sure?

The retrospection was done in Turkish to eliminate the language barrier between the researcher and the subject so that the latter could express themselves better.

Questionnaire

In order to gather data about the subjects' second language learning history and learner strategies, they were given a questionnaire at the end of which they were asked to rank their English on a continuum.

Setting

The setting where the experiments took place has an important influence on the individual as was pointed out by Tarone (1988: 120). For that reason each experiment took place in the subject's private room so that they could feel secure and relaxed. Since the

interviewers and subjects knew each other, the experiment was started with a sort of warm up chat which was not recorded. Instructions were given in Turkish beforehand to avoid confusion.

Chapter Five

CATEGORIES OF STRATEGIES

In this study, the two approaches in second language learners' communication strategies research which have been dominant recently have been summarized. The linguistic approach which has been pioneered by Faerch and Kasper (1983a, 1983b and 1984) is apparently more straightforward. However, it does not seem to explain further than the speech product. Nevertheless, it gives a very detailed analysis of the linguistic relationships between the lexical items that second language speakers produce and the behaviour type that leads to a particular type of language production. On the other hand, the psycholinguistic approach which has been advocated by Kellerman et al. (1987) and Kellerman (1990) seems more difficult to apply compared to the linguistic approach; and yet, on the whole, it appears to be more explicit in terms of language learning and processing, and thus potentially of more use in explaining why certain linguistic features appear. For this reason, this research the analysis of the data is based on Kellerman's (1990) distinction between code and conceptual strategies (outlined above pp.)

Monitoring Strategies

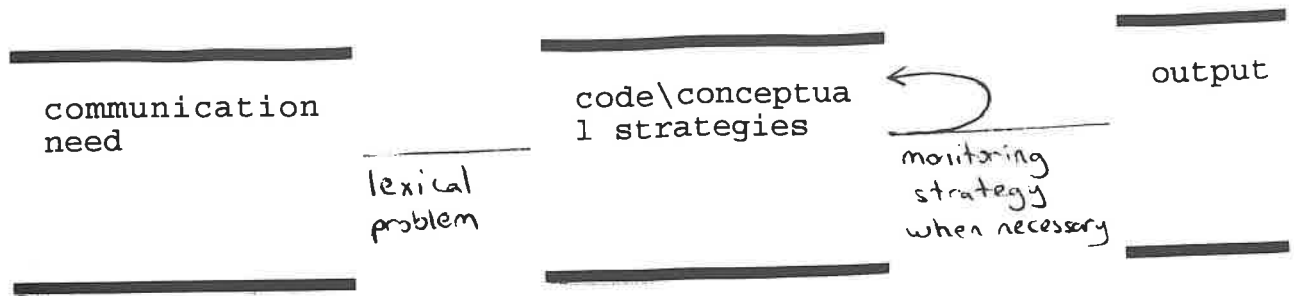
In addition, another strategy use was found in the data corpus,

which is related to the subjects' monitoring of their language performance. When the subjects had a knowledge gap or retrieval problems, they overcame this problem by monitoring their speech. Monitoring can be done either externally or internally. The internal monitoring strategy, which is thinking silently, is not observable in the data and is beyond the scope of this research. Only external monitoring strategy uses can be accessible. The subjects tended to monitor their lexical choice externally: by vocalizing (saying the word aloud to see if it really sounds like the word by means of which s\he hopes to convey the message); vocalizing and saying "no"; repeating the lexical item and appealing for help (asking questions, asking directly what it was or rising intonation); or talking about the item \ concept without settling on a particular way of expressing it (thinking aloud). These signs make it easier to identify monitoring strategies than code and conceptual strategies.

In this research it is hypothesized that the monitoring strategies are second-order strategies. That is, the subjects expressed their messages, using code or conceptual strategies when there was a lexical gap in their lexicon. Then they monitored their speech and corrected it when it was necessary. Code and\or conceptual strategies appeared to be the first solution that they resorted to when there was a problem, and the monitoring strategy was employed subsequently (when necessary). When a communication need necessitated the use of a code or conceptual strategy, it seems

that the subjects often checked the accuracy of their speech by means of a monitoring strategy.

In addition, monitoring speech and checking the accuracy of the pronunciation of a word of which retrieval is problematic for the speaker are also features of monitoring action, where none of the first order communication strategies are brought into operation. In this case, the monitoring action appears to be related to the retrieval of an item from the mental lexicon where the speaker knows that the item exists in his\her lexicon but that it cannot be retrieved easily due to some problems with memory, with pronunciation or the person's imperfect phonetic knowledge in general or some other problems, whose existence is not known to us. As a result of this monitoring, they decided that there was a need to reconstruct the message, which they did by either applying a non - strategic use of the language or code and\or conceptual strategies. That is, if their linguistic knowledge allowed them to restore the message, and if, for example, their memory was prompted by the monitoring, they did not need to employ another communication strategy. In the case of failure of their imperfect linguistic knowledge or memory to produce the correct form, they brought into operation one of the first order communication strategies (code or conceptual strategies) in order to overcome the gap. In this sense, the monitoring strategies appear to introduce a cyclical element into the process of achieving communication. This assumed cyclic use is shown in figure 1:



Although monitoring strategies look like dependent strategies, in this work they are treated as independent, as seen in the figure, for the purposes of the analysis.

In the example below there seems to be a successive use of code, monitoring and conceptual strategies applied consecutively in order to communicate the concept "aerial".

a-anti* antia* an* ariel* aerial for using the teyp* or radio

The subject started with a code strategy (label level). He attempted to use the Turkish *anten*, which is the equivalent of "aerial". In his first attempt he employed a label \ code strategy in the L1 domain and monitored the labelling strategy (vocalization and repetitions of the sounds "anti* antia* an*"). He obviously decided that it was the wrong label. He gave up the L1 domain and switched to the L2 domain where he got an incorrect form of "aerial" at his first try. At his second try his monitoring triggered the right phonetic form. The communication was completed

by a use of analytic \ conceptual strategy in which he briefly described the function of the part in question.

In the previous pages there has also been reference to the use of monitoring in cases where code and conceptual strategies have not been applied previously. In this process, it seems to be the retrieval of the lexical items with their correct pronunciation that was the only problem. For example, one of the subjects tried to remember the correct phonetic form of "clutch" as seen in the example below.

mu-"left part is clotch* clocktch* clutch erm middle brak*
and akselarator* isn't it "

It seems that by vocalizing the word twice he found the correct pronunciation. At the end he also asked the interlocutor's approval (a kind of appeal for assistance). Here, the only problem was to find the correct pronunciation since it seems that he knew the word "clutch".

In the description of the strategies, an attempt is made to infer the processes that may have taken place in the speakers' mind.

The explanations for further divisions under the title of code and

conceptual strategies were based on the different criteria leading to the processes of strategy use. It seems impossible to explain these processes satisfactorily within the range of second language research at present. All that can be done is to speak about the processes in the informants' mind that may have led the speakers to produce these language uses.

Identification of Communication Strategies

In the identification of communication strategies, the deviation of lexical choices from those that native speakers use was taken as the main criterion to identify points where communication strategies were used.

Deviations in the subjects' choice were found by referring to the "base line data" (Ellis 1985) which was collected in the pilot study (see Appendix A). In addition, whenever necessary native speakers of English and Turkish were consulted to clear up some fuzzy areas since I do not know how to drive a car, and I am ignorant about engines and the mechanisms of a car.

However, the criterion of the presence of an error is not sufficient in every case, because a lexical mistake does not necessarily signal a strategy use. The person may have learned the concept incorrectly or may have confused one word with another. The problems start when the mistake is a result of incorrect knowledge of the language or sometimes concept, not a strategy

use. In some cases the retrospective data helped me; but I failed to be aware of this problem in time for me to ask about it specifically during the retrospective data collection. When I had no other indications to identify the reason for the mistake, I listened to the recordings of the person's whole performance to understand how s\he generally uses his\her English, communication strategies and to what extent the person knows about cars. Although in this work I am not interested in the personal differences among learners, sometimes it is useful to take into account individuals and their peculiar ways of communicating in English in order to understand their general use of communication strategies. This approach may sound prejudiced towards the subjects. Although it is not a very efficient method of decision making, it can help when there is no other alternative to guide me.

Here are some examples of the difficulties which I came across in the identification of communication strategies. A person may have learned a word as a concept and a label but failed to produce the correct phonetic form. At this point it is difficult to decide if it is due to a retrieval problem or incomplete linguistic knowledge. For example, one of the subjects used the word "battari*" for "battery". In Turkish there are words which sound like the one he uttered, which would suggest the use of a code strategy. But their connotations and denotations are completely irrelevant to car design. One of them is related to artillery and

heavy weapons (in Turkish *batarya*) and the other is a musical instrument (in Turkish *bateri*). Thus, it took a long time to decide whether to exclude this error from the data or not. Eventually, I decided to exclude it assuming that he might have learned its pronunciation like that or he might have pronounced it incorrectly at that moment. For this word, the retrospective data does not help.

Another case which is different from that explained above is that one of the subjects pronounced "antenna" correctly for "aerial" and in the retrospective data insisted that she had heard this use on television. She depended on the incorrect information ^{that} she had somehow acquired in making this mistake. Thus, I excluded it from the data corpus. However, in a similar situation, it may be less straightforward to decide on the reason for the mistake. Another subject used "plate" for "number plate". In the retrospection he said that although he knew the right word he used "plate" because he had heard its use in daily life in England. He was convinced that "plate" could be used because of the context. On the other hand, the Turkish equivalent of "number plate" is *plaka*. Taking into consideration the informant's whole performance, "plate", which sounds very much like *plaka* and which, like the Turkish word, has no modifier preceding it, led me to think that he might have transferred it from Turkish. Here, my intuitions as a second language speaker and as a person who has known the informant for more than a year guided me to leave the mistake among the other

strategic uses.

In addition, all speakers of languages -native and non native speakers- are bound to make mistakes. For various reasons which are not explicable satisfactorily by linguists and psychologists, human beings make mistakes when they are speaking. For example a subject referred to wheels as: "as you know is as you know the car has got a four whales*....". There is no relationship between English "whale", "wheel" and the Turkish equivalent of "wheel" (*tekerlek*). In addition, when he was asked in the retrospection, he could not remember mispronouncing the word. This kind of mistake, as long as it is possible to identify, is excluded from the data corpus.

Therefore, it is difficult to conclude whether an informant has made use of a communication strategy only by taking into account the mistakes.

Apart from the problem of deciding whether a mistake signals a strategy use, there is the converse difficulty for analysis that it is still not possible to know completely whether a successful performance is due to a successful strategy use or to the subject's rich conceptual and code knowledge both in Turkish and English. Since the analyst is, as pointed out earlier, dependent on deviation from appropriate and fluent production in order to identify possible strategy use, it is inherently extremely difficult to identify successful strategy use, since there is no

signal in the utterance. For example, during retrospection one of the subjects said that she had known that the word *radıyator* in Turkish was actually borrowed from French and thus had hypothesized that the English word might be similar. She had managed to pronounce "radiator" correctly in English by applying her knowledge of the English phonetic system successfully. After she realized that her hypothesis was validated once, she tried the Turkish equivalents *aku* for "battery" and *flash* for "headlights". But in the latter cases she failed. When she was asked if she had transferred them from Turkish, she explained her assumptions and how she had behaved strategically. She was the first informant who performed the tasks for this research. By her explanation, the unsuccessful strategy use led me to the successful strategy use. Thus, I decided to ask if the other subjects employed the same strategy. However, in most cases, the question had to be fairly general and it is therefore far from sure that all successful strategy uses were identified.

Another difficulty in the identification of communication strategies is that I failed to spot every strategic use during the performance. Consequently, this inhibited the efficiency of data collection in the retrospection because I did not collect enough data relating to every mistake in the record. What is more, even the data collected in the retrospection part may not be sufficient to explain the reasons for every mistake. The example of "plate" for "number plate" given above indicates this difficulty. Sometimes

the subjects themselves could not tell why they made the mistake or what they were thinking when they were saying a certain word.

Thus, the identification of the communication strategies that the subjects employed was based on the subjects' performance and the information gained from the retrospection, as well as the base line data (see appendix A), but the limitations above must all be borne in mind.

Multi-strategy Use

In the identification of communication strategies, it was found that in some cases, the subjects appeared to employ more than one strategy, **multi-strategy use** for the same communication need. Multi-strategy use was observed in two different procedures : **simultaneous multi-strategy use** and **successive multi-strategy use**. Simultaneous multi-strategy use implies that there could be more than one underlying strategic stimulus process for a certain use. I cannot directly prove the existence of these processes but only speculate that two types of communication strategies were brought into operation simultaneously to reach a communicative goal. Successive strategy use, on the other hand, is the employment of a series of strategies for the same communicative goal by the same person, who had to use strategies successively because either s\he thought that what s\he applied was not sufficient for the communicative needs or s\he found that the first strategy failed.

The first type, which is across code and conceptual strategies, is hypothesized to be simultaneous strategy use. For instance, "side mirror" was created by one of the subjects in order to refer to "wing mirror". On the surface level, it seems to be a holistic \ conceptual strategy since it is a creative use of her English knowledge. But when the concept of "side" (*yan* in Turkish) is taken into account, it can be concluded that she might have translated the Turkish concept of the side of a car into English. In this case, two strategies might have been made use of simultaneously, each reinforcing the other . Another subject referred to "clutch" as "pedal", which refers to the pedal itself as an object to press for the driver. If it is accepted that the clutch is actually a pedal, the subject could be interpreted as using a conceptual \ holistic strategy. But in addition, *pedal*, another borrowed word, refers to the same object in Turkish. In retrospection, the subject could not tell me if he had thought of the Turkish *pedal* or only of the English concepts "clutch" and "pedal".

The second type concerns the use of strategies in series. The very complex example below contains the use of three strategies in succession. In this example, the subject first said that he did not know the name of a particular part ("independent suspension") in English and he uttered its Turkish label (*amortisör* label code strategy). He repeated it three times (reiterating - monitoring strategy). His interlocutors did not seem to approve of his choice. Then he made an assumption according to

the referent's shape which is a "spiral or perhaps spring", (holistic \ conceptual strategy). But he failed at the phonetic level.

d-this one I don't know but in Turkish *amortisor amortisor*
c-*amortisor*

d-*amortisor* I don't know what is the maybe spral* you say
spral*

j-squirrel

d-no this one

c-spiral

j-axel

d-this one spral*

j-suspension

*****Th

e earlier example with "aerial" (see p.72) is also a case of successive multi-strategy use.

In addition, multi-strategy use can be seen within a strategy. One of the subjects referred to the exhaust as a "tube" and explained "for let the fumes go out". She explained that it looked like a tube. She brought into operation first a holistic \ conceptual strategy and then enriched it by employing an analytic \ conceptual strategy as well. Her first lexical choice labels the exhaust in terms of its appearance, which leads on to her use of an analytic \ conceptual strategy which explains the function of the exhaust.

Chapter Six

DATA ANALYSIS

In the analysis below, the strategies that the subjects made use of are classified on the basis of Kellerman's (1990) code and conceptual strategies. As was explained above, however, the data necessitated the creation of another class of strategy : monitoring.

CODE STRATEGIES

This strategy use is based on the subjects' mother tongue, Turkish. They transfer their Turkish knowledge to their second language or translate labels and concepts from Turkish and English. In the study, Turkish transfer took place at two levels: label and concept. Label level borrowing is based on the subjects' hypothesis that loan words in Turkish may be the same as or similar to the English words. Label transfer could, in theory, appear with any Turkish word. But the subjects showed a relative degree of linguistic sophistication and only applied the strategy to words that they knew were loan words. Therefore, underlying this strategy is an evaluation of how likely the word is to appear in English. Two typical outcomes of this strategy use were observed based on this hypothesis. The subjects happened to choose an appropriate lexical item domain but had problems with pronunciation. They either pronounced the word as it is done in Turkish or tried to

imitate the English phonetic system. In some cases they were successful. As was mentioned before, for example, one of the informants pronounced "radiator" successfully and later admitted that she hypothesized that Turkish *radıyator* and English "radiator" are similar because Turkish "radıyator" is a borrowed word. Her English phonetic knowledge allowed her to pronounce the word correctly.

The hypothesis did not work in every attempt. The second result that came about was when the Turkish use did not correspond to the English use. That is, in Turkish the word either was not in fact borrowed from English or was changed in meaning from its meaning in English. Turkish *aku* was used by one of the subjects as an equivalent of English "battery". Her hypothesis was not verified in this case (see discussion below). Another informant used *bagaj* (with Turkish pronunciation) to refer to "boot". In Turkish *bagaj* is a borrowed word which is clearly related to the English word "baggage" (via French). Semantically the two words are related but not interchangeable. Another subject referred to "headlights" as *flash* hoping that the Turkish use would be the same in English. Although *flash* is in the English lexicon and related to "light" semantically, it is still not the right choice.

Concept level borrowing includes translating a Turkish word into English. This is often identifiable as a strategy use when the meaning range of the Turkish word is too broad, as in the case of

Turkish *cam* translated as "glass" by one subject in referring to the car windscreen. In Turkish *cam* is a broad term which covers the concepts of the material that a window of a house and a wine glass are made of. In daily life, when somebody wants to open the window, s\he refers to it as *cam* though this is not strictly speaking a correct usage. Although in Turkish there is a proper word to refer to a window in a room, i.e. *pencere*, the word *cam* is widely used. At the same time, the uses of Turkish *cam* also include the windscreen of a car. In Turkish the word *cam* (not *pencere*) is used to refer to the English windscreen, as *arabanın ön camı* in the context of cars. It can be translated literally as "the front window of a car". Since Turkish *cam* seems to be a blanket term for English "window" and "glass", the informants wrongly assumed that the meaning range of "window" was the same as in that of *cam*.

Label Level

Being educated native speakers of Turkish, the subjects are aware of the fact that much technical jargon in Turkish is borrowed from other languages. Thus, they produced utterances based on this assumption.

The examples below are grouped further according to the source of the subjects' production. The first group includes **Turkish words with Turkish pronunciation** that the subjects employed immediately, like the Turkish word *egzos* ("exhaust" in English). The second group includes the ones where the subjects tried **hybrid forms of**

Turkish and English like "eklerator" for the English word "accelerator" (in Turkish *akselarator*).

Turkish words with Turkish pronunciation

Examples

target form: headlight

Turkish form: *flas* \ *far*

subject's production: flash

In Turkish *flas* is one of the borrowed words referring to "headlights" in English. Subject **m** employed an L1 based strategy and used *flas*. She clearly hypothesized that the word might be the same or similar in English since she knew that it was a borrowed word.

target form: battery

Turkish form: *aku* \ *akumulator*

subject's production: *aku*

Aku is the short form of the Turkish word *akumulator*. Both *aku* and *akumulator* are used in Turkish in daily life. Subject **m** employed a Turkish word hoping that it would be the same in English. But her choice failed because it does not refer to the target item and is therefore a false friend. That is, the origins of the word are English but it is not used in English in the same way as in Turkish.

target form: aerial

Turkish form: *anten*

subject's production: *anten*

Anten that subject **mu** employed is the Turkish word for both English "antenna" and "aerial" and it is also a borrowed term from French.

target form: independent suspension

Turkish form: *amortisor yayi \ amortisor*

subject's production: *amortisor*

Amortisor is the Turkish equivalent of independent suspension in English. Subject **a** knew that *amortisor* was borrowed from English or French.

target form : engine

Turkish form : *motor*

subject's production : *motor*

Motor that subject **a** used is another borrowed word in Turkish. It is the Turkish equivalent of English "engine".

target form : accelerator

Turkish form : *akselarator*

subject's production : *akselarator*

Subject **mu** pronounced the word as it is in Turkish.

target form : petrol

Turkish form : *benzin*

subject's production : *benzin*

Subject **mu** used *benzin*, the Turkish equivalent of "petrol" is not Turkish. Because of this, he thought that *benzin* might be one of the words borrowed from the Western languages such as English and French. But his assumption failed since *benzin* is borrowed from the Middle East languages.

target form : radiator

Turkish form : *radıyator*

subject's production : redyeter \redjetɜr\ *radıyator*
 \radjatɜr\

N.B. phonetic symbols

Subject **a** seems to be trying to pronounce the word in English because "redyeter*" \redjet r\ sounds like an attempt to find the correct pronunciation. He vocalized the word three times. But he ended up with the Turkish pronunciation.

target form: number plate

Turkish form: *plaka*

subject's production: plate

d-oh plak plate

c-plate

d-yes it is a plate

In Turkish the equivalent of English "plate" is *plaka*. Subject **d** started thinking in Turkish. It seems that he attempted to refer to "number plate" as *plaka*. He vocalized the word.

Obviously, he decided that it was not the word since he changed the language domain from L1 to L2. That is, he started with an attempt to pronounce a Turkish word *plaka* and then he stopped without completing the word. He just pronounced "plak". Then, he seemed to have decided to change the language domain since he said "plate" (an English word) afterwards. His vocalization and changing the language domain indicates his use of a monitoring strategy. Strictly speaking, he did not succeed in producing the word "number plate" correctly. However, in the context of cars the term "plate" can be claimed to communicate the English term "number plate" sufficiently well.

target form: exhaust pipe

Turkish form: *egzos (borusu)*

subject's production: egzost

Subject **mu** used Turkish pronunciation of the word "egzos".

The hybrid words with Turkish and English pronunciation

Examples

target form: steering wheel

Turkish form: *direksiyon*

subject's production: direktion*

Direksiyon is the Turkish word to refer to the steering wheel. It sounds like French though it is not, which misled subject **a** in his hypothesis of its being French and similar to English "steering wheel".

target form: accelerator

Turkish form: *akselarator*

subject's production: *eklarator**

Akselarator is the Turkish use. It is again a borrowed word. Subject **d** tried the correct assumption of its being a borrowed word and similar to its English form. But he failed at the production stage in pronouncing the word correctly. The word he produced sounds like neither English nor Turkish.

Oddities

Examples

target form : air filter

Turkish form : *hava filitresi*

subject's production : *filitre kapagi* filter air filter

Subject **d** thought in Turkish and found that *filtre* in Turkish and "filter" in English are very similar and a few seconds later he remembered English "filter" and made a literal translation. What is significant in this example is the step by step procedure that the informant followed to remember the correct word, which signifies that he monitored his speech. As the result of monitoring, he transferred his L1 knowledge to L2 knowledge and he succeeded in finding the right word.

I cannot classify this example satisfactorily according to the process\outcome criteria I explained just before giving examples

because there is more than one production which was produced in different language domains (first Turkish then in English). The subject seems to have made use of a multi-strategy successfully. That is, he started with a code strategy and ended up with a conceptual strategy. Meanwhile, he monitored his speech production simultaneously. Nevertheless, the process to produce the correct label is too complex to infer and interpret fully.

Concept Level

Another code strategy which is again related to Turkish is performed at concept level. That is, the informants translated the way of referring to the concept from Turkish into English.

Examples

target form : wing

Turkish form : *arabanin yani \ yan kaporta*

Literal translation : side of a car \ side of the bonnet.

subject's production : side

In Turkish the wing of a car is referred as the side of a car. As was explained above, subject **m** translated the concept from Turkish into English.

target form : gear lever

Turkish form : *vites (kolu)* [usually only "vites" is used to refer to the gear lever.]

literal translation : gear (lever)

subject's production : gear

Subject **m** communicated "gear lever" as she would do in Turkish perhaps . In daily Turkish *kolu*, which is the equivalent of "lever", is ignored and only "gear" is used.

target form: windscreen

Turkish form : *on cam*

Literal translation : front glass

subject's production : front glass

Subject **a** translated the Turkish label into English. What is more, he referred to "window" as "glass". This process is explained in the example below.

target form : window

Turkish form: *cam* (in the context of cars) \ *pencere*

Literal translation : *cam* = glass \ window

pencere = window

subject's production : glass

Subject **a** could not explain why he referred to "window" as "glass". But my intuitions as a Turkish speaker of English as second language lead me to think that he actually translated the concept from Turkish. In Turkish *cam*, which is the equivalent of English "glass", in order to refer to both the window itself and the material. Therefore, this example is included in code strategies.

target form : windscreen

Turkish form : *on cam*

literal translation : front window

subject's production : front window

target form : windscreen wipers

Turkish form : *cam silecekleri*

Literal translation : window cleaners

subject's production : window cleaners

Subject **d** seems to have translated the Turkish labels into English in both examples both these examples.

target form : petrol tank

Turkish form : *benzin deposu*

Literal translation : benzin storage

subject's production : gas storage

Subject **a** seems to have translated the term from Turkish. He said that he used "gas" because he heard it in Hollywood films.

CONCEPTUAL STRATEGIES

In conceptual strategies the subjects made use of their English resources to communicate their message. They either used an English word hoping that it shared enough domain with the exact word itself **-holistic strategy** or they created new words in English by using the linguistic knowledge at their disposal

and/or explained the function of the object in English **-word creation and paraphrase strategies.**

Holistic Strategies

In the data corpus, holistic strategy use was observed in the form of substitution which shares some properties with the target referent superficially or which has a hierarchical relationship within a class or group of the target referent (Kellerman 1990).

The examples cover the subjects' manipulating their English to overcome vocabulary problems. They brought into operation their lexical resources and knowledge about lexical relationships such as synonymy and hyponymy.

Each word in the data below is ~~was~~ presented with its Turkish equivalent, and in some case with its literal translation, to make it clear that the process in the informants' mind was not related to the code strategy. In addition, I believe that it will help the reader to make further comments to throw light on some unclear points.

Examples

target form : glove compartment

Turkish form : *torpido (gozu)*

subject's production : case

"Case", subject **a** produced can be taken as a small place to put things in it, a kind of container like a glove compartment. In this sense, case becomes a cover term for containers like glove compartment.

target form: steering wheel

Turkish form: *direksiyon*

subject's production: wheel

It seems that in subject **mu**'s perception "wheel" more or less corresponds to "steering wheel" in terms of its shape.

target form: headlights and indicators

Turkish form: *flas \ far* and *sinyal lambasi*

subject's production: lights

Here, the word lights becomes a cover term to refer to headlights and indicators because subject **mu** did not know the proper terms to refer to these specific lights.

target form : engine

Turkish form: *motor*

subject's production: machine

It can be speculated that according to subject **d**'s perception, machines and engines belong to the same group of technical jargon.

target form : wing mirror

Turkish form : *yan ayna*

literal translation : side mirror

subject's production : mirror

Subject **a** did not or could not specify the wing mirror with its complete properties. He referred to wing mirror by using the most general term.

target form: gear lever

Turkish form : *vites (kolu)*

literal translation : gear lever

subject's production : gear what gear something

h-if you want to change the gear just erm you have to press the clutch to the to the end and then you using the gear what gear something {silence} it is the thing you know stick I knew that word I can't remember that you use to change the gear to gear the car I mean it is a gear box is a part of it

c-what is its Turkish name

h-erm vites kolu but it's not gear handle is it is it no
I can't remember

'Gear what' and 'gear something' and 'stick' are all cover terms for "gear lever". Since subject **h** could not remember the word, she found some substitutes to convey her message.

Analytic Strategies

Under this strategy are included occasions when the subjects

created new English labels based on their English and conceptual knowledge, **word creation strategies**. Their way of creating words is analytic in terms of the items' "physical" and "functional" or attributes and combination of both. They also tended to use long explanations of the properties and functions of the parts, **paraphrasing strategies**. As can be seen in the data corpus, the subjects usually preferred to use both strategies together. That is, they created new labels for the parts by using their English knowledge and subsequently explained the functions or other properties of the parts. These examples were assembled as another group under the title of analytic strategy use : **word creation and paraphrasing**.

As was explained in the previous sections, the words in the task are presented below together with their Turkish versions and, in some cases literal translations. The literal translation is given where necessary to show that the Turkish word has not been directly used as a basis for the English expression (i.e. that the strategy used is not a concept strategy).

Word Creation Strategy

This group covers the new and creative use of English by the subjects. They said that they resorted to using an English word in order to label some parts in the task because they did not know the correct English names.

According to the information gained from the performance of the tasks and the retrospection, the examples included in this category can be analyzed further according to the attributes of the concepts (in this context the parts of a car). The subjects created new labels in English according to the object's physical attributes, for instance "roof window" for "sun top". Another attribute that was taken as a criterion was the function of the parts: "kilometer scale" for "speedometer". Sometimes both physical and functional attributes of the objects seem to have influenced the subjects' creativity such as subject **mu's** creation "cupboard" for glove compartment.

Word Creation According to the Physical Attributes of the Parts **Examples**

target form: back seat

Turkish form: *arka koltuk*

literal translation: back seat

subject's production: in back of seat

target form : passenger of seat

Turkish form : *on koltuk*

literal translation : front seat

subject's production : in front seat

During the task performance, subject **mu** said that he did

not know how to refer to the seats in a car. Because he was pushed to refer to the referent, he said "in front of seat" for the driver's and passenger's seats and for the back seats he produced "in back of seat" .

target form : rear view mirror

Turkish form : *dikiz aynası*

literal translation : peeping mirror

subject's production : middle mirror

Subject **mu** created a label according to one of the mirror's physical attributes, its location.

target form : sun roof

Turkish form : *üst cam \ üst kapak*

literal translation : roof window

subject's production : car top

The physical attributes of a car roof (its being located on the top) might have led subject **a** to refer it as "car top".

target form : independent suspension

Turkish form : *amortisör (yayı)*

subject's production : spiral like thing

h-this spiral like thing I really don't know what can it **b** doesn't look familiar {thinks for a while} let me see you can't give me a clue can you

Subject **h**'s way of viewing the independent suspension is

limited to its appearance since she does not know much about the engine

target form : exhaust pipe

Turkish form : *egzos (borusu)*

subject's production : tube

Subject **m** said that it looked like a tube. According to her explanation in the retrospective data, the shape of the entity led her to use "tube".

target form : headlights

Turkish form : *flas \ far*

subject's production : front light

This is a suggestion based on the location of headlights since subject **d** did not know the word "headlights".

target form : wing mirror

Turkish form : *yan ayna*

literal translation : side mirror

subject's production : right and left mirror

Informant **a** created a way of referring to the wing mirrors according to their location.

Word Creation According to the Functional Attributes of the Parts

Examples

target form : windscreen wipers

Turkish form : *cam silecekleri*

literal translation : window wipers

subject's production : cleaners

m-cleaners I don't know

c-cleaners

m-yeah I said cleaners

Subject **m** linked the concept of cleaning with the function of windscreen wipers.

target form : speedometer

Turkish form : *hiz gostergesi*

literal translation : kilometre scale

subject's production : speedmeter

Subject **d** created a name for the device to measure speed. Basically, he took into account its function.

target form : number plate

Turkish form : *plaka*

subject's production : registration number

"Number plate" and "registration number" are closely related concepts. Both conceptual and functional attributes of the number plate might have led subject **m** to create this label.

target form : petrol cap

Turkish form : *benzin deposunun kapagi*

literal translation : petrol tank's cap

subject's production : petrol doors

It seems that in subject **d**'s point of view there is a remote relationship between door and cap in this context since the function of the two objects is to close an entity which has an amount of volume and which contains another entity.

target form : spare wheel

Turkish form : *yedek lastik*

literal translation : spare wheel

subject's production : five tyre fifthy tyre

Subject **d** wanted to refer to the spare wheel as "fifth tyre" but he failed. In the context of cars, spare wheel could be seen to as a fifth tyre. He created a term but he failed due to a retrieving problem. That is, he failed to retrieve the word "fifth".

Word Creation According to the Physical and Functional Attributes of the Parts

Examples

target form : glove compartment

Turkish form : *torpido (gozu)*

subject's production : cupboard

mu-this one is cupboard you can put some stuff.

The glove compartment being a place like a cupboard is related

to its physical and functional attributes.

target form : steering wheel

Turkish form : *direksiyon*

subject's production : driver wheel

Informant **mu** created a new label in English for "steering wheel" and it is clearly related to its function, but also its shape.

Oddities

Examples

target form : back door

Turkish form : *arka kapı*

literal translation : back\rear door

subject's production : rear door

While subject **a** was performing the tasks, he explained that for cars the 'back' was referred to as 'rear'. Thus, he kept on using 'rear' as a substitute for "back" whenever possible.

Paraphrasing Strategy

In some cases the subjects could not create new labels in English but explained the functions of some parts. The success of the explanations depends not only on the subjects' conceptual and linguistic knowledge about cars and English language, but also their metacognitive perception of the entities. Although their English knowledge and conceptual

knowledge about cars has an influence on their way of explaining, their choice in emphasizing certain attributes of entities is also important in the structure of the explanations. It is significant that the subjects usually managed to choose more or less the correct words which are crucial in expressing the function of the objects even while they were struggling with the language itself. These words are underlined to draw the attention of the reader. In addition, explanations are embedded with different uses of other strategies mentioned above. In this list only the explanations that the informants made voluntarily are included. The ones that they made when they were asked were excluded.

In the first group, paraphrasing based on the functions of the entities are included. As was pointed out earlier these are the cases where the informants could not or for some reason did not attempt to create new labels but tried to explain functions as much as they could. In the second group the paraphrasing is based on the way of operation of the parts in additions to the functions.

Paraphrasing Based on the Function of the Parts

Examples

target form : petrol gauge

subject's production: these are for oil and amount of petroleum

target form : petrol gauge

subject's production : this part show the 'benzin' level oil level I think

While informant **mu** was explaining the function of petrol gauge, he made use of the Turkish equivalent of "petrol", "benzin". This choice was explained earlier under code strategies (label level).

target form : petrol gauge

subject's production : this shows to gas level on the tank

Subject **a** explained the entity's function.

target form : petrol gauge

subject's production : this one is to do with petrol here again shows you how much petrol you have left

Subject **h** gave an explanation of the petrol gauge.

target form : petrol cap

subject's production : I don't know exactly what is the name I know we can put there petrol and also erm that's all I think there is not any different there is not I don't know it's name

The underlined part shows subject **mu**'s explanation of the function of the petrol cap.

target form : dashboard

subject's production : I do not know names it holds steering wheel and these speedometer and the other this short place like

drawer holds all the things and it is connected with also hand brake and gear

Subject **m** admitted that she did not know the label for the "dashboard" and explained its function in terms of its components.

target form : boot

subject's production : this definitely is not the bonnet we have the bonnet here what about this one where you this must be the part you put your luggage thing like that

Subject **h** first distinguished the boot from the bonnet then she talked about the function of the part.

target form : boot

subject's production : behind the car to keep something what is it called really I want to learn it

Subject **m** paraphrased the function of the boot because she did not know the word.

target form : boot

subject's production : I think we can use it there to put something stuff

For boot subject **mu** tried the Turkish word "bagaj" which is of French origin as was explained earlier in code strategy (label level). Then he decided that it was not English and sounded like French. Thus, he preferred to describe it.

Therefore this shows a switch from a code strategy (label level) to a paraphrasing strategy.

target form: gear lever

subject's production : when you want to change the speed you have to get up from one to from one erm

Subject **a** tried to explain the function of the gear lever.

target form : windscreen wipers

subject's production : I am not sure or OK I don't know in English but when can I use if I car driver or when the whither* is rainy or snowy I can use it is for cleaning the mirror*

The underlined parts indicate subject **mu**'s attempts to explain the part's function.

target form : indicators

subject's production : different colour reflection light when it is turn to the right or left side right or left side is a reflection to or other peoples this one is 'hightlights*'

Subject **a** first created a label in English (reflection light) and then explained the concept. Actually, on the picture the headlights are white and the indicators are orange and yellow. It can be speculated that "different colour reflection light" which refers to indicators in his mind is a creative use of his English. It was supported by his L1 and the colours in

the picture in English. The rest of the sentence attempts to explain the functions of indicators.

target form : headlights and indicators

subject's production : they ares* lights I think yeah they ares* lights one of them the be... at be... the behind the car one of them brake lights we can use it for especially if I go to somebody go to somewhere in the night time we can use it

Subject **mu** talked about the both types of lights simultaneously.

target form : propeller shaft

subject's production : this one is using for carrying the all motiyon* \motion\ to from the rear from the motors to rear

This is produced by subject **a**.

target form : number plate

subject's production : its function I think its function it can tell this car where did came from first of all which city which year which year means which year did it produced

Although it is not a very clear explanation, subject **mu** attempted to include all related features of the number plate's function.

Paraphrasing Based on the Operation of the Parts

Examples

target form : sun roof

subject's production : on the top side opening door erm not door
but I don't knows

Subject **a** first specified the location of the part. Then, he created a name which is related to its function. "... erm not door I don't knows" signifies that he monitored himself. He had heard "sun roof" before but he could not remember it. He attempted to create a word and explain its function but he was not satisfied with it.

target form : fan belt

subject's production : h-this thing again I don't know what it is called I don't know what it is called even in turkish erm it starts turning actually

f-it looks like a belt

h-yes and it starts turning when the engine is I mean when the car is on

Subject **h** kept on talking and gave an explanation of the fan belt's operation. This particular subject appears to employ this strategy frequently. This is a kind of monitoring strategy use , not for retrieving a lexical item but rather gaining time to try to retrieve the correct word.

Paraphrasing Based on the Function and Operation of the Parts

Examples

target form : sun roof

subject's production : roof window* roof window* this place you can open and you can take a fresh air

As in the example, the subjects frequently employ two assumed underlying processes of analytic strategies at the same time. As can be seen from subject **d's** speech paraphrasing makes the creation, "roof window", more explicit.

target form : sun roof

subject's production : this one erm it looks like a sort of erm well you this usually in sports cars when it is really erm hot and sunny you just remove it or take it off do something to have some fresh air inside I don't know what it's called either

Subject **h** started with a holistic strategy "...looks like a sort of....". Then she changed her strategy to a paraphrasing strategy and gave a long explanation of the sun roof. She applied a successive multi-strategy to communicate "sun roof".

target form : gear lever

subject's production : if you want to change the gear just erm you have to press the clutch to the to the end and then using the gear what gear something {silence} it is the thing you know stick I knew that word I can't remember that you use to change the gear to gear the car I mean it is a gear box is a part of it

c-what is its Turkish name

h-erm vites kolu but it's not gear handle is it is it no I
can't remember

Examples Where Both Word Creation and Paraphrasing Strategies were Employed together Successively

In this group the examples of the successive use of word creation and paraphrasing strategies within the analytic strategy are included. The informants often tended to create a label and then gave an explanation of the function or operation or physical appearance of a particular part. In some cases they first resorted to paraphrasing and then word creation.

Examples

target forms : dashboard and glove compartment

subject's production : the whole thing it is where you have that
box in which or kit whatever you keep things belonging to car

Subject **h** created a label related to its physical appearance, "the whole thing", before she described the dashboard. Subject **h** referred to "dashboard" as a "whole body" which consists of other parts such as glove compartment.

The same subject referred to glove compartment as "box" while she was paraphrasing dashboard. She created new labels for two different entities while she was giving an explanation of dashboard. That is, she employed two types of analytic strategies (word creation and paraphrasing) successively.

target form : glove compartment

subject's production : this one is cupboard you can put some stuff Just after referring to glove compartment as "cupboard", subject **mu** explained its function most probably to express himself better.

target form : glove compartment

subject's production : cabin {laughs} it is a small place to put your stuff map driving licence tissues whatever you or you can keep chocolate.

Subject **m**, just like the previous one referred above, labelled the referent first and then employed a paraphrasing strategy.

target form: glove compartment

subject's production : this is erm {laughs} this is where you put your personal things and documents about the car {laughs} oh gosh what was its name it is something kid you put your things in but I don't remember what kid is it

Subject **h** applied the strategies in the reverse order compared to the others. That is, she first paraphrased and then she created a label for the glove compartment, "something kid".

target form : rear view mirror

subject's production : back mirror

m-ah I heard it once mirror but it has different names I think I don't remember now back mirror or something because you can see the behind to check your behind

Subject **m** uttered this explanation.

target form : speedometer

subject's production : what is it it's the it's a oh it's the thing which shows you how fast you're going yes speed indicator perhaps

Here, subject **h** first explained its function and then she made an approximation.

target form : windscreen wipers

subject's production : d-oh window cleaners {laughs}

c-good idea

d-that one is used to as you know if it is raining and this things both of them allow us to see front of the car but I don't know what is the name window cleaner no *cam* *silecegi*

Subject **d** paraphrased the function of the windscreen wipers. He admitted that he did not know their English name. He attempted to either create a label "window cleaner" or translate it from Turkish. He does not seem to be happy with the result.

target form : petrol cap

subject's production : key to the petrol tank

h-that must be the key to the petrol tank but I don't know what it is called it must be the tank lid or something whatever so you of course to run a car again you have to have some petrol in it usually this petrol is put into the tank so you just erm unlock it and then you put the petrol in and then back for safety reasons and then there you are

Subject **h** labelled as "key to the petrol tank" and explained the function of the petrol cap.

target form : roof

Turkish form : *arabanin catisi*

literal translation : roof of the car

h-subject' production : that's the top of the car well you need to sort of cover your car the car {laughs} because otherwise unless it is a sports car erm because it have to be protected against the wind and against sun against rain especially

Subject **h** seems to have created a label "top of the car" for roof and explained the referent's function. She employed both word creation and paraphrasing strategies.

target form : steering wheel

d-subject's production : I don't know in Turkish *direksiyon* which is used to the direction of the car

Subject **d** started with a code strategy (label level) by saying *direksiyon* in succession to which he switched to conceptual \ analytic strategy where he paraphrased the function

of the
steering wheel.

MULTI-STRATEGY USES ACROSS ALL STRATEGIES

SIMULTANEOUS MULTI-STRATEGY USES

In a number of cases, two interpretations of the underlying strategy resulting in a particular production are possible. In many of these cases, it seems most satisfactory to hypothesize that both strategies were actually used simultaneously. The explanations for the examples in this group are based on my intuitions as a second language learner and a native speaker of Turkish and my evaluation of the informants' general performance both in the interview and in the tasks. However, it seems impossible to infer the real stimulus that led the speaker to use a strategy or more than one strategy. The only thing I can do is to hypothesize that an outcome might have built on more than one strategy. Some of these cases are the ones where the retrospective data did not help me to identify the actual strategy type being used. In some other cases the informant failed to remember what made them use a certain word or phrase. In the light of those explained above, I hypothesize that the cases below are simultaneous multi-strategy uses, which implies that the outcome seems to have been built on at least two types of strategy applications.

Examples

target form : ignition keys

Turkish form : *kontak anahtarlari*

literal translation : contact keys

subject's production : key

mu-it is the key when we before start to drive

The word "key" is not specific enough to refer to the ignition keys in this context. For this reason, subject **mu** felt obliged to modify his label with an explanation. If this example is seen in terms of holistic \ conceptual strategies, "key" is a superordinate term which covers all types of keys including ignition keys. At the same time the fact that the subject explained the function of the "key" that he referred to led me to think that he might have employed both types of conceptual strategies simultaneously.

target form : ignition keys

Turkish form : *kontak anahtarlari*

literal translation : contact keys

subject's production : keys start keys

Here, the word "keys" is a cover term for all types of keys. Thus, it can be classified as a holistic strategy. But the second label "start keys" is a word creation and related to the functional attributes of the ignition keys. The subject might have applied these two strategies simultaneously.

target form : wing mirror

Turkish form : *yan ayna*

literal translation : side mirror

subject's production : side mirror

It may be due to the fact that there is no particular word to refer to English "wing" in Turkish that two of the subjects, **m** and **mu** used "side mirror" to refer to wing mirror. In Turkish the "side" concept is larger than its equivalent in English. It also covers the English "wing" concept. Another possibility is that "side mirror" is a creation of these two learners which is based on the wing mirror's functional and physical attributes as a concept. In this sense, there may be two possible processes for this strategy use. One of them is due to the blanket Turkish concept of "side": the subjects may have transferred the concept from Turkish into English. Alternatively, they may have employed a word creation strategy using their knowledge of English. The other is that they may have employed these processes simultaneously.

target form : speed indicator for speedometer

Turkish form : *hız göstergesi*

literal translation : speed indicator

subject's production : speed indicator

h-what is it it's the it's a oh it's the thing which shows you how fast you're going yes speed indicator perhaps

Retrospective data does not help me to decide whether This is subject **h**'s creation according to the function of the object

or a concept translation from Turkish. However, there is still a possibility of its being based on both of these strategies simultaneously.

target form : passenger seat

Turkish form : *on koltuk*

literal translation from Turkish : front seat

subject's production : front seat

Subject **m** may have translated the concept from Turkish, of which the literal translation is "front seat". She might have made an approximation related to the seat's position in the car as well. According to the second suggestion, she might have created the word which implies that she employed an analytic \ word creation strategy. This case can therefore be interpreted as another possible example of simultaneous multi-strategy use.

target form: battery

Turkish form: *aku \ akumulator*

subject's production: *jenereytir**

In Turkish, in everyday language, *generator* and *aku* are used to refer to the English "generator" and "accumulator". Here, subject **d** has the correct semantic domain but he has failed to select the correct label, presumably due to the confusion in Turkish labelling for this particular word. It can also be claimed that **d** employed simultaneous multi-strategy use.

If battery, generator and accumulator are included in the group of machines generating energy, it can be speculated that the informant produced a co-hyponymy pair. In this sense, the subject appears to brought into operation a holistic \ conceptual strategy simultaneously. However, in this example the dominant strategy used by the subject seems to be label level \ code strategy.

target form : seat belt

Turkish form : (*emniyet*) *kemer* [common use is "kemer" only]

literal translation : (safety) belt

subject's production: belt

The equivalent of "belt" in Turkish is *kemer* which only refers to the belt itself (any kind of belt). Subject **a** might have thought about the Turkish concept. In addition, apart from the Turkish effect, subject **a** might have employed a holistic strategy. That is, the English label "belt" covers all types of belts. In this sense, the word "belt" can be interpreted as a superordinate term. The subject may have brought into operation both types of strategies simultaneously.

target form : fan belt

Turkish form : *V kayisi* \ *vantilator kayisi*

literal translation : V belt \ ventilator belt

subject's production : felt no belt one of them is should be main belt one of them is for surkilation* on the radiator

"belt", as a label, indicates the use of holistic \ conceptual strategy. Fan belt can be considered as a belt in terms of ordinary people's technical jargon. In this sense, belt is a cover term including fan belt as well. Afterwards, subject **a** specified the type of the belt, "main belt" in addition to the explanation of the function of the belt.

target form : indicators

Turkish form : *sinyal lambasi*

literal translation : signal lights

subject's production : signal lights

h-these are the actually signal lights I suppose erm when you want to turn left or right you just indicators or something like that I really indicators perhaps

Although subject **h** first suggested "signal lights", she kept on talking which may have prompted her memory and she found "indicators" but she was not sure of herself. The subject might have translated or created the word.

Monitoring Strategies

Monitoring strategies employed by the informants can be categorized further according to the language domain the subjects involve in the monitoring strategy since in the data corpus monitoring was observed across the domain of two languages: Turkish and English . In the first category monitoring strategies were brought into operation in the L1

domain. The second category includes strategy use in the L2 domain. In the third category the subjects used both language domains to communicate a lexical item. Below target forms of each lexical item in the task and the subjects' productions were given together. In addition, the indications of employment of monitoring strategies which led me to categorize the examples in this group are underlined to draw the reader's attention. When I felt it is necessary for the reader to know the Turkish form of the words, I have given the Turkish words as well.

Monitoring in L1 Domain

Examples

target form : radiator

Turkish form: *radıyator*

subject's production : *redyator \redjet r\ radyator \radjatr*

Subject **a** chose Turkish pronunciation of the word English radiator which as explained before is a borrowed word. He used monitoring strategy to check his speech by vocalizing and reiterating it. But it did not seem to help at all. He failed to retrieve the word. Since he employed the Turkish pronunciation, he apparently employed a code strategy (label level) embedded within monitoring strategy.

target form : steering wheel

Turkish form : *direksiyon*

subject's production : I don't know in turkish *direksiyon*

which is used to the direktion of the car

Subject **d** first monitors his Turkish jargon. He attempts to find a relationship between Turkish *direksiyon* and English direction. Here, "I don't know" indicates monitoring as well as his searching for the word in Turkish.

target form : boot

Turkish form : *bagaj*

subject's production : now just I try to answer you in turkish maybe I am not sure is it *bagaj* or like this *bagaj* no absolutely turkish isn't it because but now I thought *bagaj* not turkish one maybe it is

c-french

mu-french that's right I think we can use there to put something stuff

In this example, subject **mu** deliberately tried the Turkish word for boot assuming that it was the same in English. When he vocalized it, he saw that it did not sound like English.

Monitoring in L2 Domain

Examples

target form : clutch

subject's production: this one the left part is clotch* clocktch* clutch erm middle brak* and akselarator* isn't it

Vocalization, repetition and appeal for assistance are the indications of monitoring. Here, subject **mu** applied the monitoring strategy in the L2.

target form : gear lever

Turkish form : *vites (kolu)*

subject's production: there is a now I haven't seen it yet it have to geese* geese* geese* isn't it geese* geese* geese* I am not sure really pronunciation

The example above and this one were performed by the same person, subject **mu**. He knew what "gear" and "geese" are but he could not remember when he was performing the task. By vocalizing and reiterating "geese*", he monitored his speech. The language domain of the monitoring is English. The strategy failed because he seemed to be unable to retrieve the correct form.

target form: gear lever

Turkish form : *vites (kolu)*

literal translation : gear (lever)

subject's production : gear what gear something

h-if you want to change the gear just erm you have to press the clutch to the to the end and then you using the gear what gear something {silence} it is the thing you know stick I knew that word I can't remember that you use to change the gear to gear the car I mean it is a gear box is a

part of it

c-what is its Turkish name

h-erm vites kolu but it's not gear handle is it is it no

I can't remember

Subject **h** could not remember the word, she found some substitutes to convey her message. Meanwhile, she continued to speak hoping that she could retrieve it, which is actually the use of monitoring strategy.

target form : bumper

Turkish form : *tampon*

subject's production: oh I know but oh my god I know erm blumber* no blumer* erm oh my god I know I know I wrote it somewhere

Subject **d** tried to retrieve the correct pronunciation by repeating the utterance. However, he was not successful. He kept on talking which is another signal of his applying a monitoring strategy of two languages.

target form : independent suspension

subject's production : this spiral like thing I really don't know what can it be doesn't look familiar {silence} let me see you can't give me a clue can you

Subject **h** appealed for help which may indicate that she employed a monitoring strategy. However, it can be argued that it might not necessarily be monitoring since she did not know

either the concept or the label for independent suspension. I can only speculate that she monitored her cognition not her speech. It seems that she kept on talking and thinking aloud to find a proper label for the concept.

target form : boot

subject's production : this definitely is not the bonnet we have the bonnet here what about this one where you this must be the luggage and you know things like that erm could be I don't know

Subject **h** seems to apply a monitoring strategy by thinking aloud while she was trying to label the boot. As a result of monitoring and searching, she decided that the part in question was not the bonnet. Consequently, she explained the function of the part.

target form : wing

subject's production: is it called side I don't know

Subject **m's** appealing for help and admitting that she did not know the correct word indicate her using a monitoring strategy

target form : speedometer

subject's production : it is a speedmeter isn't it

Subject **d's** appealing for assistance is a clue for me to think that he employed a monitoring strategy while he was

creating a label for speedometer.

target form : rear view mirror

subject's production: ah I heard it once mirror but it has different names I think I don't remember now back mirror or something because you can see the behind to check your behind

Subject **m** kept on talking about the rear view mirror as seen in the underlined sentences which signifies that she brought into operation a monitoring strategy to retrieve the word.

target form: fan belt

subject's production : felt no belt one of them is should be main belt one of them is for surkilation* /circulation/ on the radiator

Subject **a's** words "felt no belt" and his creation "main belt" led me to think that he applied a monitoring strategy. The word "felt" seems to be a slip.

target form : boot

subject's production : behind the car to keep something what is it called really I want to learn it

While subject **m** was explaining its function, she appealed for assistance because she knew its English name and tried to remember it.

target form: glove compartment

subject's production: this is erm {laughs} this is where you put your personal things and documents about the car {laughs} oh gosh what was its name it is something kid you put your things in it but I don't remember what kid is it

The underlined words show that subject **h** had difficulty in retrieving the word "glove compartment". For that reason she can be seen to have used a monitoring strategy.

target form : gear lever

subject's production : if you want to change the gear just erm you have to press the clutch to the to the end and then you using the gear what something {silence} it is the thing you know stick I knew that word I can't remember that you use to change the gear to gear the car I mean it is a gear box is a part of it

c-what is its Turkish name

h-erm vites kolu but it's not gear handle is it is it no I can't remember

The underlined part above indicates that subject **h** had a retrieval problem. She could not remember "lever". She kept on talking about it and admitted that she could not retrieve the word, which guided me to think that she employed a monitoring strategy.

target form : sun roof

subject's production : this one I know special name too many time times on the pa newspapers it is a first name of the S but I know on the top side opening the opening door opening erm not door but I don't know S

This is the way of communicating "sun top" performed by the subject **a**. He also said that he learned this word in the car auction he went to some time ago. But all these were not sufficient to help him to retrieve the word. He could only remembered the first letter "S". In this example, the way that he kept the communication channel open while he was trying to remember the word is significant in terms of communication strategies. That is, as explained before, he held the floor by continuing to talk in order to give himself time to retrieve the word.

target form: seat belt

subject's production : d- belt silt*

j-belt

d=yes belt sit*

j-belt seat

d-seat belt

j-seat belt

Subject **d** vocalized what he retrieved, which apparently prompted his memory to remember the correct lexical item. In addition, it seems that his interlocutor's repeating what he said helped him

Monitoring in both L1 and L2 Domains

Examples

target form : spare wheel

Turkish form : *istepne*

subject's production : d-oh istepne I don't know what means of
istepne

c-can you find if you maybe you can find it if you think
for a while

d-erm five tyre* fifthy tyre*

First subject **d** tried the Turkish equivalent of *istepne* which is a borrowed word. But it did not work. When he was pushed to produce a label he created "five tyre * fifthy tyre *". Actually, he meant "fifth tyre*". But he failed to find the correct pronunciation of "fifth". He used a monitoring strategy first by saying and reiterating *istepne* to see if it sounded like English. Obviously, he could not get any help from the Turkish word. Then he employed another monitoring strategy to assure himself of his creation "five tyre* fifth tyre*". That is, he monitored in both language domains.

target form : aerial

Turkish form : *anten*

subject's production : anti* antia* an* ariel ariel for using
the teyp* or radio

Subject **a** started his strategy based on code (the effect of

Turkish *anten* : label level) and then he seems to have retrieved the English form but not correctly. After changing his plan of employing a code strategy (label level), he tried to produce the correct form. Although he found it, he failed to pronounce it correctly in his first attempt. He pronounced it as "ariel" which in fact is in the English lexicon. However, there is not a semantic relationship between these terms. Their phonetic forms *anti** *antia** *an** *ariel** *aerial* are similar only. In his second attempt, he succeeded in producing the word properly. He seems to applied a monitoring strategy, which led him to change the strategy type he employed initially. Vocalization of the word and repeating it are the evidence of using monitoring strategy, as a consequence of which he gave up the strategy he employed.

target form : number plate

Turkish form : *plaka*

subject's production:d- oh plak plate

c-plate

d-yes it is a plate

Subject **d** attempted to vocalize the Turkish equivalent of "number plate" since he knew that it was not Turkish originally. Then, he must have thought to use "plate" which sounds similar to Turkish *plaka*. Eventually, he decided that "plate" was the correct word. He searched for the correct word by vocalizing and reiterating.

target form :horn

Turkish form : *korna*

subject's production :this one is maybe korna {laughs} korna in Turkish what is the name of bib signal {pronounced it as if it were a Turkish word} you can touch beeb corn (rising intonation)
j-horn

d-horn yes horn

Subject **d** searched for the "horn" by vocalizing and reiterating first the Turkish word *korna* then he decided to give a descriptive explanation of the target form. He retrieved the form but failed in pronunciation. He said "corn" instead of horn. Finally, he resorted to appeal for assistance and got it from his interlocutor.

target form: independent suspension

Turkish form : *amortisor*

d-subject's production : this one I don't know but in Turkish *amortisor*

c-*amortisor*

d-amortisor I don't know what is the maybe spral* you say spral*

j-squirrel

d-no this one

c-spiral

j-axel

d-this one spral*

j-suspension

Informant **d** started by employing a monitoring strategy in L1. He used the Turkish equivalent of "independent suspension", *amortisor*. He reiterated it perhaps to see if it sounded English really. He could not get any help. When he realized that his first assumption was not correct, he suggested another word "spral*" in the English domain and appealed for assistance but his interlocutor could not understand what he meant. Here he used a monitoring strategy to check if his assumptions in both language domains were valid by vocalizing and reiterating.

target form : hand brake

Turkish form : *el freni*

mu-subject's production : hand brak* it's true just I try to translate in turkish

Although he failed in pronouncing the word correctly, he found the correct form. "it's true just I try to translate in turkish" implies his using a monitoring strategy. In a way it is a kind of checking of what he said and perhaps a kind of demand for approval from his interlocutor. In addition, he admitted that he translated the Turkish equivalent of "hand brake" literally. It may be because of this that he wanted to have approval. Although he was speaking English, he was thinking in Turkish as seen in his words. That is, he applied a monitoring strategy in two language domains.

target form : air filter

Turkish form: *hava filitresi*

subject's production : filtre kapagi filter air filter

Subject **d** thought in Turkish and found that "filtre" in Turkish and filter in English are very similar and a few seconds later he either remembered the word or he seemed to make a literal translation Turkish into English. By repeating the words in the same domain in both languages he searched for the right word.

target form :windscreen wipers

Turkish form : *cam silecekleri*

literal translation: window cleaners

d-subject's production: oh window cleaners {laughs}

c-good idea

d-no that one is used to as you know if it is raining and this things both of them allow us to see front of the car but I don't know what is the name window cleaner no "cam silecegi.

Subject **d** articulated the Turkish label. "...window cleaner no...." and this is the evidence for the use of a monitoring strategy, because of which presumably his judgement did not accept "window cleaners".

target form : headlights

Turkish form : *flash*

subject's production : indicator no not indicator *flash* I think
it's *flash*

It seems that "indicator" did not sound right for subject **m**. Because she applied a monitoring strategy she found another word which she reiterated twice.

THE QUANTITATIVE DATA

In table 1 the quantitative results found in the data analysis are given. The number of strategies employed by each subject is demonstrated separately. The examples which are classified as oddities are not included in this calculation. As seen in the table there is no notable correlation between the competency level and the strategy type. It is possibly noteworthy that subject H, the most proficient one, did not use any code strategy; whereas, subject A, the least proficient one among the five employed 7 code strategies which is higher than the number that any of the middle three used. This may perhaps suggest a decreasing need to resort to the L1 as competency increases; but the trend is not by any means a clear one. In terms of conceptual strategy use, the number of successive applications of word creation and the paraphrasing strategies seems to be significant since subject H used them 5 times while subject A did not employ them at all. In fact, subject H is the one who used them more frequently than the other three as well. As to the monitoring strategies it may be significant that subject H did not bring into operation either monitoring in L1 or

monitoring both in L1&L2; on the other hand, she employed monitoring strategies in L2 more than the others did. This again suggests an increasing ability to function in the L2, which would not be surprising. However, the fact that subject D used monitoring strategies more than the others did may show that he was either aware of his inefficient linguistic knowledge or under stress. I cannot go deeper into speculation at this point because these aspects are beyond the scope of present research. The total number of strategies employed by each subject does not appear to prove a clear cut relationship between proficiency and lexically communication strategy use. However, that less proficient three subjects A, D and MU used more number of strategies than the other two subjects M and H could be significant.

Table 1

Strategy type the number of strategies employed
by each subject

competency

continuum 1 2 3 4 5

A D MU M H

Code Strategies

label level	4	2	4	3	0
concept level	3	2	0	2	0
	+---	+---	+---	+---	+---
	7	4	4	5	0

Conceptual

Strategies

holistic strategies	2	1	2	0	2
word creation	2	4	5	3	1
paraphrasing sts	4	2	7	2	4
word crt.& parap sts	0	2	1	2	5
	+---	+---	+---	+---	+---
	8	9	15	7	12

Simultaneous

multi-strategy use	3	1	2	2	2
--------------------	---	---	---	---	---

Monitoring Strategies

monitoring in L1	1	1	1	0	0
monitoring in L2	2	2	3	3	5
monitoring in L1&L2	1	6	1	1	0
	+---	+---	+---	+---	+---
	4	9	5	4	5
	+---	+---	+---	+---	+---
total	15	19	22	17	19
overall total	=22	=23	=26	=18	=19

CONCLUSION

In this research it was hypothesized that there was a correlation between the choice of lexical communication strategies and the proficiency level of a second language learner. As seen in table 1 on page 136 and in the discussion of the quantitative results, the data analysis results have not shown any notable correlation between these two variables, except possibly a predictable but by no means clear cut decrease in reliance on L1-based strategies as competency in the L2 increases. Therefore, it can be concluded that the hypothesis was not an appropriate one. Either the question should have been asked in another way or the way of testing the hypothesis was not sufficiently discriminating or there should have been more number of data to make statistical analysis which would have enabled me to find more accurate and, therefore, more reliable data to reach a conclusion.

Although the experiment did not allow me to verify my hypothesis, it still provides worthwhile insights into related aspects. That is, in the classification of the data, Kellerman's (1990) **code and conceptual** strategies were applied successfully. In a way, his code and conceptual strategy categorization has been verified by another data corpus at least the level of lexically-based strategies. In addition, another strategy use was observed : **monitoring strategy**. This strategy use was usually employed together with the other two strategies either

successively or simultaneously. In subjects' use of communication strategies a cyclical operation system was observed. That is, subjects sometimes brought into operation a code or conceptual strategy and a monitoring strategy successively to check the validity of their production, and according to the decision they made, they employed another code or conceptual strategy to reach the communicative goal.

Two types of multi-strategy use not necessarily involving monitoring, which Kellerman *et.al.* (1987) and Kellerman (1990) have referred to as *embedded*, are found in the data corpus. One of them is simultaneous use. That is , it is hypothesized that the informants employed two strategies at the same time to produce a word or a phrase. Since it is a hypothesis, the actual stimulus might be only one. However, neither the retrospective data I collected nor results reported in the recent literature allow me to reach an absolute conclusion on this aspect. Thus, it seems that this question is left to future research. The second multi-strategy use is observed in the form of the successive use of strategies to accomplish a communicative goal. It seems that the informants attempted to reach their goal by a sort of trial and error method. That is, they appeared to apply one strategy after another either to make sure that the message was conveyed successfully or to compensate for the perceived drawbacks of their initial strategy use. The examples of the

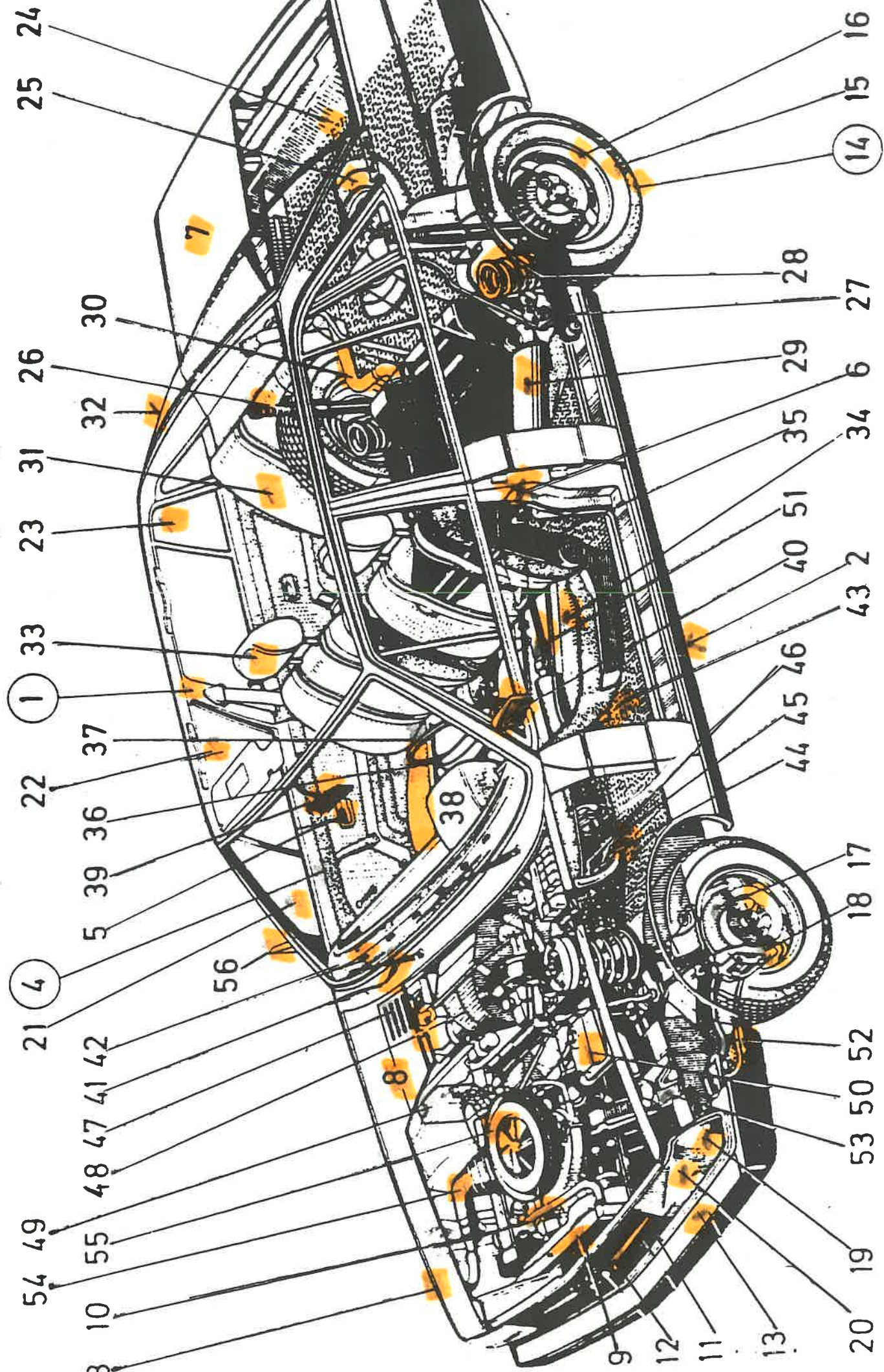
first approach are included in the successive use of word creation and paraphrasing strategies. The subjects often preferred to use paraphrasing after word creation in order to communicate successfully. In some other cases, which usually also include monitoring strategies, the subjects seem to have tried all possible means to carry out the task. For example starting with a Turkish label and ending up with a created word or the correct word in English is a commonly observed instance in the data corpus.

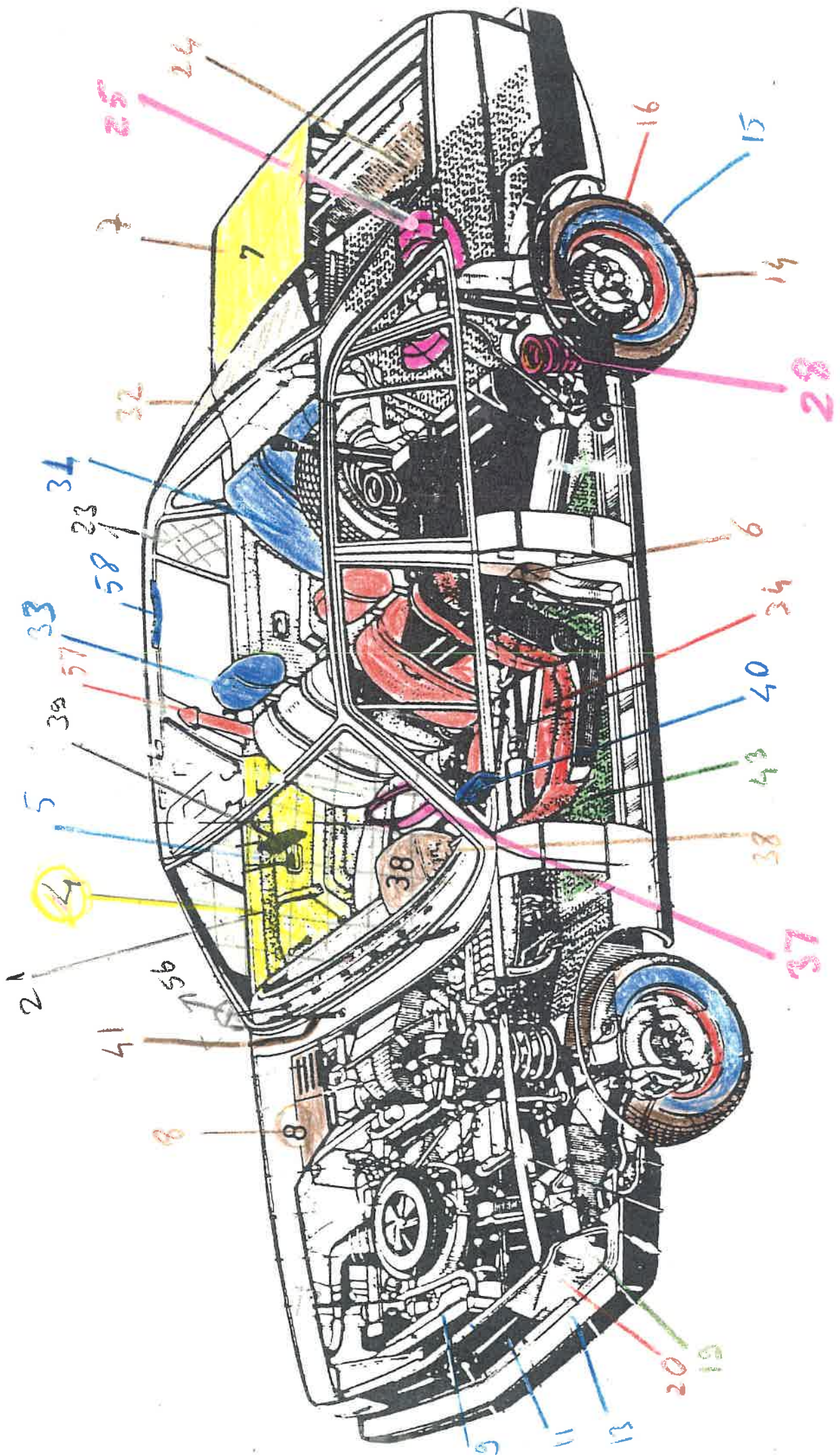
For future research perhaps more careful and different research designs are needed to collect more reliable data. As was emphasized in the research methodology part, research design is extremely crucial in research. The actual carrying out of the experiment is also very important. To be able to manipulate the informants skilfully necessitates experience. That is why if possible, before starting data collection, the experiment should be performed two or three times with speakers who share the same mother tongue as the subjects. This would help the researcher to gain confidence and experience. Skill in manipulating subjects is especially important in the retrospection part so as to be able to make the most efficient decision on the questions to ask in order to extract relevant information from the informants.

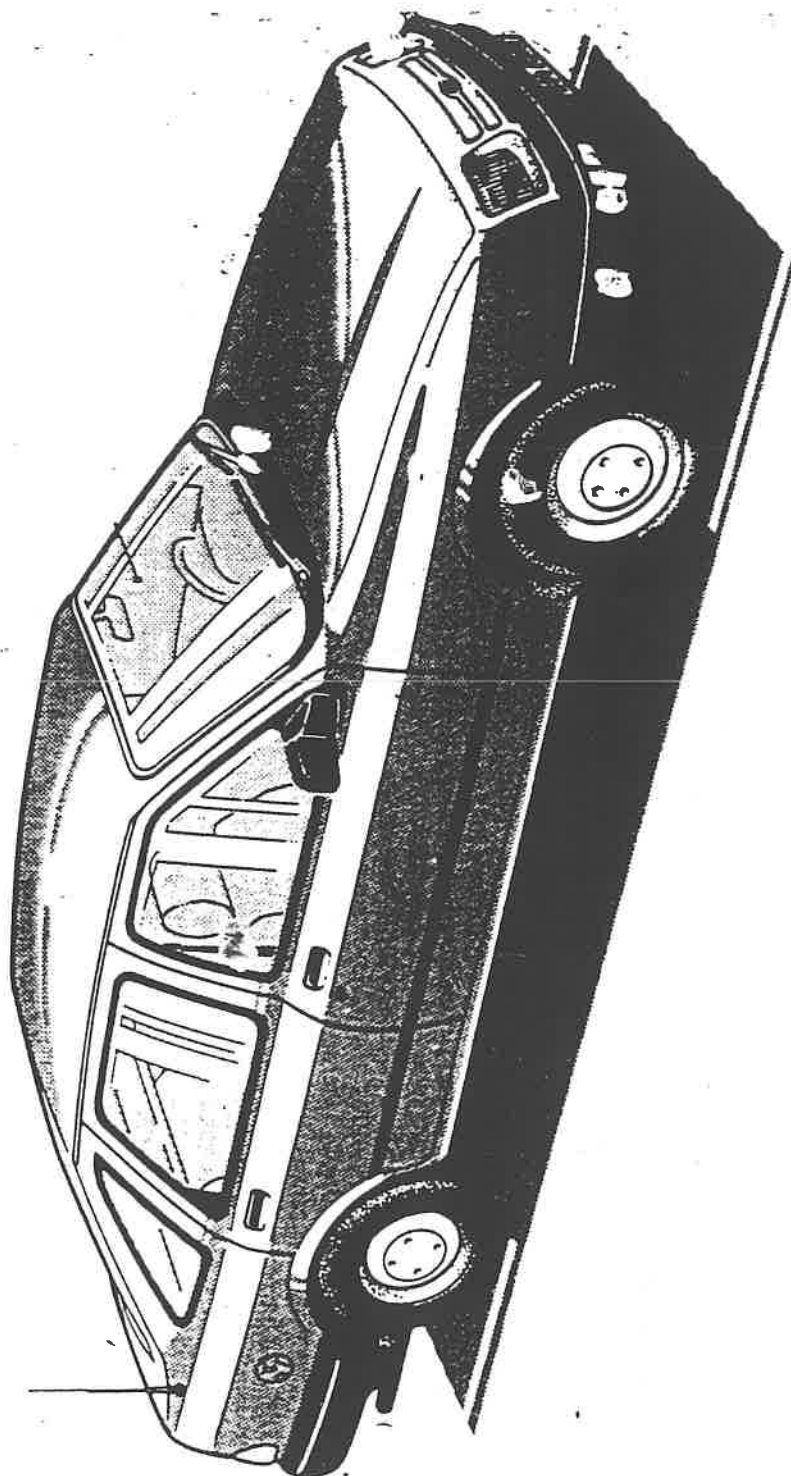
The particular importance of retrospection has been justified

by the data analysis since I obtained a great deal of valuable information in the retrospection. A piece of data collected in one session helped to gain more insight for the next session. Therefore, future researchers are advised to be more particular about the retrospection design as well as the task design. As to the task design, in my experiment the informants preferred to talk about the colourful picture: not only are there more parts in it but also, as far as I observed, it is more attractive though it seems to be more difficult. Although it sounds like a small detail, this becomes an important matter when the subjects are under pressure of the experiment.

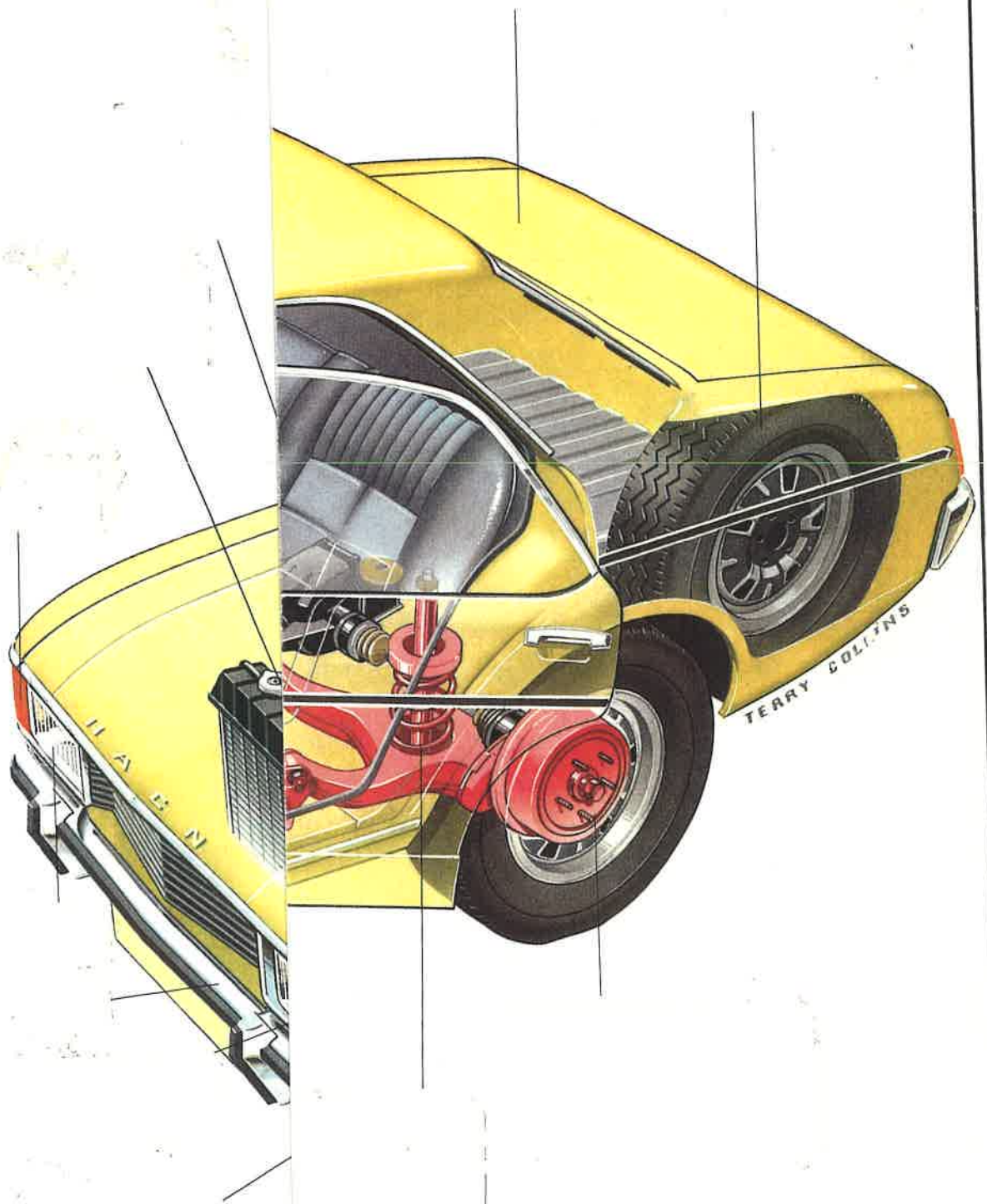
The results found in this research appear to support the significance of process oriented approach in psycholinguistics and shed light on different aspects of research design which is one of the crucial dimensions of second language research.

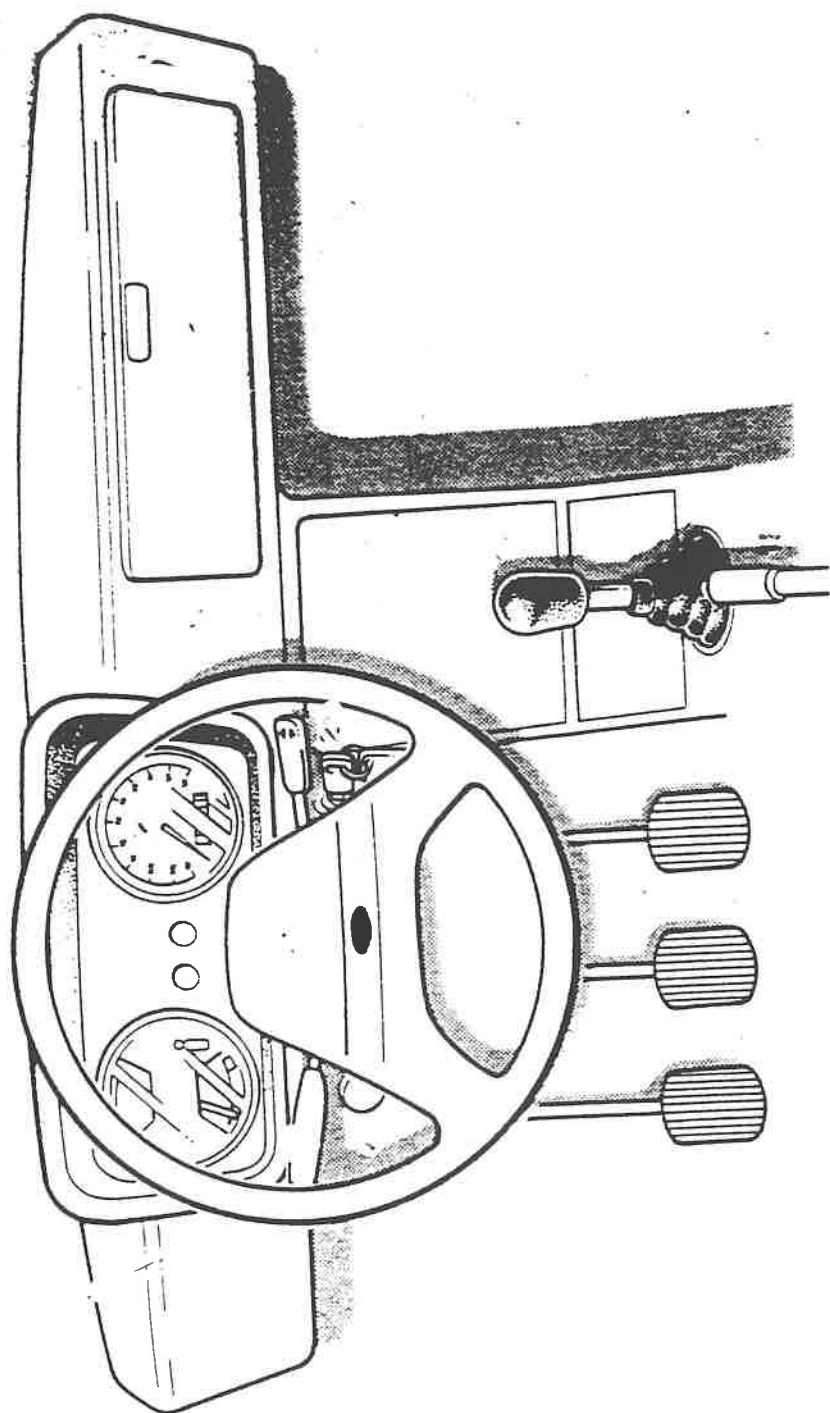






The Parts of





APPENDIX B

Transcriptions of Extracts from Interviews

The order of the extracts are in accordance with the competency continuum given in chapter 4.

The Interview with A

I-do you in Turkey you were research assistant and you came here as a student and what you think about different to be a a research assistant and now to be a student do you think it is difficult for you

A- I don't think think so first of all I'd like to say erm erm some of them thinks is a very easy because I am a student Phd student in here erm I have to do Phd I know that situation for me important why is important when erm is my subject area is a very you know vitality* erm in liverpool in university of liverpool erm my department if I want to do something erm I can find everything about study studying in my department also last year I learned a lot of things if I want to I'd like to give a example for example computer language and about the my project background erm I complete now also I talk to erm I I was trying to write some reports

The Interview with D

J- right ok so erm you were research assistant in Turkey

D- yeah

J- and now you're just a student with slightly reduced salary is is that right

D- yes yes

J- how do you find coping with that erm with your new student status you had a change of life style or what erm working harder

D- where did you find this question it is very difficult

C- is it I don't think so

D- because it is very difficult to explain erm how can I start

C- to become a student again different or maybe difficult

D- when I were in my country yes I am a research assistant at the university erm and also I am entering some lectures specially second class erm most of the students' level is very low so there is no problem I can teach some lectures very easily also we used to turkish there is no problem because this point very very important but when I came this place everything is changed especially I am not a lecturer or staff just I am a research assistant erm but the first problem is an english because sometimes I couldn't explain what I want to tell him erm

C- whom do you mean your supervisor

D- supervisor also mr johnson also mr mike mr johnson is a hid* /head/ of the group I think [inaudible]

C- research group

D- research group yes mike is a second man this in our group
[interruption]

D- erm but when I er when I talk my supervisor there is no problem because we can explain everything also he can explain everything to me because I talk every time and I understand and also he can speak very slowly and I understand his speaking very well but we talk to other people it is more more difficult so we will come question again erm I don't know it's very very difficult to explain can you ask a bit of simple question {laughs}

The Interview with MU

A- right in turkey you were a research assistant

MU- yes I am

A-is it difficult for you now that you've become student once again

MU-oh not really

A-no

MU-no because when I was Turkey I was research research assistant I am doing the same thing here if I stay in Turkey erm I'll be research assistant the same meaning

A-but your status has changed here do you understand

MU-yeah I understand

A-you don't mind

MU-not really

A-you've gone down in your job you're not telling people what to do anymore

MU-what do you mean

A-you used to order tell other people students what to do

MU-oh but

A-you were you know

MU-oh I understood what you mean but the same thing because if I stay in Turkey that time I was doing Ph.D. don't laugh

A-you were

MU-I was doing Ph.D. but just may be change the area I am doing the same thing here because I am not lecturer

in turkey may be soon I'll be but not now

A-right you have to speak english most of the time is it was it especially difficult at the beginning

MU-first of all I didn't understand british people because when I don't understand them I didn't answer them it is my most important problem but now I think everyday I try to understand it means I try to listen them I think it is getting better

The Interview with M

P- erm you were a research assistant in a Turkish university and you are just a a postgraduate student do you find do you think it is different or do you find it difficult to to change your life to to the english err english style

M- in term of the university do you mean or just social life

p- yeah well I mean just university at
the moment

M- in the university yeah it was difficult for me in the beginning because I did not enough background what I am doing now but now it

is getting ok it is not too hard actually doing research in here easier than what I did before in my university because I have to had to do my research as a MSc and also I had to be research assistant to be erm to guide for student in the lab so it is easier than what I did in the past

P- what about your social life

M- social life was interesting in the beginning but {laughs} I mean I am getting used to living in here so

P- I am talking about living in in mulberry court I am just well talking about your lab for instance and the fact that you are just speaking english now

M- oh yeah yeah it is getting better if you you look at the my social life from the english speaking in the english point of view yeah it is getting better it is getting easier for me to communicate with the other people but erm yes social life in here easier than the past because I mean I have got enough money to do what I want in here and but I don't have enough time to go out now {laughs}

C- it is the point

M- yes it is the point

P- what about the flat

M- flat

P- do you find easy to share a flat with eight people

M- it is not easy actually because erm we don't know how they act when you do something [inaudible]

P- yeah

M- their origin and culture we're from how many nationalities one french one turkish three tanzanian two taiwanese so we 're from five different nationalities

P- and mali malian malayan

M- ah malayan also six six different nationalities

P- there was an english one she left

M- yeah

P- and a german one

M- german one

C- united nations

M- yeah yeah we can have a united nations session in here

P- yeah

M- so it is not easy to live with people to live with people who are from different nations so you have to be patient but I know I am not patient that's why many times it annoys me

The interview with H

F-how long have you been here

H-how long have I been here I stick to figure 8 months but it is not eight months actually it is more than it's I think 10 months

F-10 months as a student and what were you before

H-oh unfortunately yes I've been here student again erm before than I was a research assistant I was teaching but I was also partly student because I was doing a Ph.D. course in Turkey [inaudible] course actually I was lecturing as well

F-is it very different

H-I found it extremely different and difficult when I first came all of a sudden I I just felt that I lost everything that I had before and I found out that I was not going to be given a room well I have already lost my car so to speak because I had a car then I was not expecting to have a car here and also I had to live as lodger and I had to you know spend most of my time in library travel a lot to to go to the university all things like that so I didn't know I don't think I felt really happy about it

APPENDIX C

The Base Line Data Collected in the Pilot Study

Picture 3

English

Turkish

-bonnet	kaporta
-headlighth	far\ flas \ on farlar\on sis lambasi
-indicator	sinyal lambasi\ indikator\ stop lambalari
-number plate\ registration plate	plaka
-bumper	tampon\ on tampon
-windscreen	on cam
-windscreen wipers	cam silecekleri\silecekler
-tyre	tekerlek\ lastik
-boot\ luggage boot	bagaj
-roof	ust cati\ ust kaporta\ tavan
-exhaust pipe	egzos borusu\ egzoz
-aerial\ aerial for the radio	anten\ radyo anteni
-wing	jantlar\ sag on camurluk

Picture 5

English

-radiator
 -fan belt

 -battery
 -air filter
 -heater
 -rear-view mirror
 -sliding roof\
 sun top
 sun roof
 -spare wheel\
 spare tyre
 -independent suspension\
 suspension
 -wing mirror
 -propeller shaft

Turkish

radıyator
 V kayısı\ vantilator kayısı\ motor
 kayısı
 aku\ akumulator
 hava filitresi
 ısıtıcı\ air conditionar
 dikiz aynası

 üst havalandırma kapagi

 yedek lastik

 helazon\ amortisör yayı\ amortisör
 sol dikiz aynası\ yan ayna
 pervane mili

