COMPARISON OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY TURKISH MONOLINGUAL AND BILINGUAL EFL LEARNERS

Thesis Submitted to the Institute of Social Sciences

In partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

in

English Language Teaching

by

Ayşe Seza Doğruöz

Boğaziçi University

2001

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to express my sincere thanks to my thesis advisor Assis. Prof. Dr. Yasemin Bayyurt for the time and effort she has devoted to this study and for her spending time with me.

I also wish to thank Assoc. Prof. Dr. İlknur Keçik and Prof. Dr. Andrew Cohen and Assis. Prof.Dr. Belma Haznedar for reading my thesis and commenting on it. I also thank Prof. Dr. Elaine Tarone, Prof. Dr. Andrew Cohen and Prof. Dr. Shoana Poplack for sending me invaluable documents for my thesis.

Furthermore, I thank my friends A. Hande Kür, Aslı Derin, Işıl Erduyan, İlkay Demirkol, Çiler Hatipoğlu, Deniz İ. Aslan, Ebru Temiz and Pelin Konakçı for their invaluable support in doing my graduate work. I am grateful to all my subjects whose participation made this research possible.

My sincere thanks go to my mother and brother who have always been there with their endless support, love, encouragement and patience throughout this process and my educational life. I also thank Dingiloğlu, Dardeniz and Bekar families who have supported and believed in me.

Finally, I dedicate this thesis to the memory of my father who always broadened my horizon and inspired me.

ABSTRACT

Comparison of Communication Strategies used by Turkish Monolingual and Bilingual EFL Learners

by

Ayşe Seza Doğruöz

This study investigated the differences/similarities between Turkish bilingual and monolingual EFL learners in terms of the communication strategies they used in an interaction in the target language (English). Specifically, the following issues were examined:

1) Whether there were any differences/similarities between bilingual and monolingual EFL learners in terms of total number of CSs used in an interaction in the target language.

2) Whether there were any differences/similarities between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of their language choice of CSs in an interaction in the target language.

3) Whether, there were any differences/similarities between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of the categories of CSs they used during interaction in the target language.

30 bilingual and 30 monolingual EFL learners participated in this study. All the EFL learners were native speakers of Turkish. Bilingual EFL learners consisted of two groups; bilingual EFL learners with German L2 and bilingual EFL learners with French L2. The data was collected through a communicative language task. To identify CSs used by bilingual and monolingual EFL learners, the interactions between subjects were tape-recorded, transcribed and analyzed according to a modified and adapted framework of Faerch and Kasper's (1983) classification of CSs. Descriptive statistics and t-test (Independent Samples Test) were used for statistical analysis.

According to the results, the following findings were obtained. There was a difference between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of the total number of CSs used. Bilingual EFL learners used more CSs than monolingual EFL learners. There was also a difference between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of language choice of the CSs they used. Monolingual EFL learners used Turkish based CSs less than English based CSs. However, BLL used Turkish based CSs more than German/French based CSs and English based CSs. Statistically significant differences were found between bilingual and monolingual EFL learners in terms of the CSs of "code switching", "generalization" and "cooperative strategies".

KISA ÖZET

İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen tek dilli ve çift dilli öğrencilerin kullandıkları iletişim stratejilerinin karşılaştırılması

Bu çalışmada, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen tek dilli Türk öğrenciler ile yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen çift dilli Türk öğrenciler arasındaki benzerlik ve farklılıklar iletişim stratejileri kullanımı açısından araştırılmıştır. Özellikle, aşağıdaki konular incelenmiştir.

1) Hedef dilde kullanılan toplam stratejiler açısından, yabanci dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen çift dilli ve tek dilli öğrenciler arasında fark olup olmadığı.
2) Strateji kullanımında dil seçimi açısından, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen çift dilli ve tek dilli öğrenciler arasında fark olup olmadığı.
3) Strateji kategorileri açısından, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen çift dilli ve tek dilli öğrenciler arasında fark olup olmadığı.

Bu çalışmaya yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen 30 tek dilli ve 30 çift dilli öğrenci katılmıştır. Bütün öğrencilerin anadili Türkçe'dir. Çift dilli öğrenciler iki guptan oluşmaktadır: ikinci dili Almanca olan çift dilli öğrenciler ve ikinci dili Fransızca olan çift dilli öğrenciler. Veriler iletişimsel dil etkinliği ile toplanmıştır. Kullanılan stratejileri belirlemek için denekler arasındaki iletişim teybe kaydedilmiş, yapılan çevriyazılar Faersch ve Kasper'in çalışmaya uyarlanmış sınıflandırmasına göre

çözümlenmiştir. İstatistiksel çözümlemeler için t-sınavı ve tanımsal istatistikler kullanılmıştır.

Sonuçlara göre toplam strateji kullanımı açısından çift dilli ve tek dilli öğrenciler arasında fark bulunmuştur. Çift dilli öğrenciler iletişim stratejilerini tek dilli öğrencilerden fazla kullanmışlardır. Strateji kullanımındaki dil seçimi açısından da öğrenciler arasında fark bulunmuştur. Tek dilli öğrenciler Türkçe temelli iletişim stratejilerini, İngilizce temelli iletişim stratejilerinden daha az kullanmışlardır. Çift dilli öğrenciler ise Türkçe temelli iletişim stratejilerini, Almanca/Fransızca ve İngilizce temelli iletişim stratejilerinden daha fazla kullanmışlardır. Kullanılan iletişim stratejileri kategorileri açısından ise iki grup arasında benzerlikler vardır. Kullanılan iletişim stratejileri açısından ise, iki grup arasında "düzenek değiştirme", "genelleştirme" ve "işbirliksel stratejiler" kategorilerinde sayısal olarak anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmuştur.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

LIST OF TABLES

ABBREVIATIONS IN THE STUDY

BLL-F: Bilingual EFL learner with French L2

BLL-G: Bilingual EFL learner with German L2

CS: Communication strategy

CSs: Communication strategies

CS-T: Turkish based communication strategies

CS-E: English based communication strategies

CS-G/F: German or French based communication strategies

CSW: Code switch

MLLs: Monolingual Language Learners

BLLs: Bilingual Language Learners

TL: Target language

IL: Interlanguage

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study investigates the differences/similarities between bilingual (henceforth, BLL) and monolingual (henceforth, MLL) EFL learners in terms of the communication strategies (henceforth, CSs) they used in an interaction in the target language (henceforth, TL, which refers to English in this study).

Studies on the concept of CSs, which investigate how learners cope with breakdowns in communication when they have inadequate linguistic resources in the target language, have become major areas of interest since the beginning of the 1970's.

"Communicative competence", which was defined as knowledge of vocabulary and skill in using the sociolinguistic and discoursal conventions of a given language appropriately by Hymes (1971), was the starting point for the studies on the communicative abilities of ESL/EFL learners.

As a result of their study with schoolchildren learning French as L2, Canale and Swain (1980) identified four components of communicative competence: grammatical competence (the knowledge of grammatical rules), sociolinguistic competence (the knowledge of social rules of language use), discourse competence (the knowledge of how to get a meaningful whole to interpret a text in a given context), strategic competence (the knowledge of verbal and non-verbal skills). Strategic competence, concerned with the speaker's ability to convey messages successfully in a communicative situation, has brought new insights into the studies about CSs.

At this point, different definitions of "strategy" will be reviewed before discussing the concept of "communication strategies".

1.1 Definitions of strategy

Blum and Levinston (1983) attempted a definition of "strategy" as "the way the learner arrives at a certain usage at a specific point in time" (p.125). On the other hand, emphasizing its difference from "strategy", Blum and Levinston (1983) defined "process" as "systematic series of steps by which the learner arrives at the same usage over time". Hence, according to these two definitions "process" occupies a longer time interval than "strategy", which is used only at a specific point in time. Based on these definitions, they proposed that processes underlie the cognitive principles of strategies. In this way, one can infer processes from the strategy, which can be inferred from spoken and written performance.

Another perspective in the definition of strategies is their optionality of use by the learner. According to Bialystok (1990), it is optional for learners to use a strategy or not. However, learners do not have any options for language processes. That is to say, language processes are obligatory whereas, strategies are optional.

Different than the above distinctions between strategy and process, Faerch and Kasper (1983) used the term "process" as opposed to linguistic product, not strategy. Accepting the concept of process as a continuing development involving a number of changes" (Brown, 1976a) and a "dynamic sequence of different stages of an object or system" (Klaus and Buhr, 1976), Faerch and Kasper (1983) developed a model of speech production model consisting of two distinct phases: planning and execution phases. Although they did not give a specific definition of "strategy", they claimed

that strategies were used in order to overcome problems at planning phase in their model of speech production.

After this clarification of the concept of strategy, below are the definitions of CSs according to different researchers.

1.2 Definitions of Communication Strategy

Considering CS as a category of psycholinguistic processes underlying interlanguage (henceforth, IL) behavior, Selinker (1972) was one of the first to bring a specific definition to CS as an "identifiable approach by the learner to communicate with native speakers of TL"(p.217).

Emphasizing the linguistic deficits of the learners in using target language, Tarone, Cohen, Dumas (1976, 1983) defined CS as a " systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed" (p.5, 1983).

Similarly, Corder (1978, 1983) defined CS as a "systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with a difficulty in communication" (p.16, 1983).

Tarone (1980) emphasized the interaction among interlocutors in her definition of CS as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared" (p.420).

Considering the use of CS as a problem solving activity, Faerch and Kasper (1983) gave a definition of CSs as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an

individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (p.36).

As can be seen from the definitions above, there has not been a consensus on the definitions of CSs. Each researcher came up with his/her own definition of CSs, according to his/her research findings.

1.3 Learning versus Communication Strategies

CSs have generally been used interchangeably with learning and production strategies. Differences between these concepts according to various researchers will be discussed in this section.

Tarone (1981) defined CS as a "description of the learners' pattern of use of what they know as they try to communicate with the speakers of TL" (p.287) and argued that they were used by learners to compensate for deficiency in their linguistic system. On the other hand, she defined learning strategies as attempts to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language with the motivation of desire to learn the language, whereas the motivation to use CS was stated as to communicate meaning (Tarone, 1981). Finally, Tarone (1981) defined production strategy as " an attempt to use one's linguistic system efficiently and clearly with minimum effort" (p.287). Although both CSs and production strategies were attempts to use one's linguistic system, Tarone (1981) differentiated CSs from production strategies as having a focus on the negotiation of meaning. Some of the production strategies were prefabricated patterns, planning, and rehearsal and they lacked a focus on the negotiation of meaning

Defining learning strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations, Oxford (1990, p.8) identified six global learning strategy groups. Dividing them into two as direct and indirect, she classified memory, cognitive and compensation strategies under direct strategies, metacognitive, affective and social strategies under indirect strategies. Using the term "compensation strategy" interchangeably with "communication strategy", Oxford (1990) refused to make a distinction between learning and communication strategies. She criticized Tarone's view (1980), which limited the use of CSs only to speaking situations, arguing that the distinction between learning and communication strategies was not clear-cut since the motivation of the learner to communicate and to learn were mixed. Oxford (1990) exemplified this dichotomy by stating "even if the purpose is communication, the end result may be learning" (p.243).

Similarly, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) identified three main types of learning strategies as: metacognitive strategy (planning and thinking, monitoring and evaluating one's own learning and oneself), cognitive strategy (conscious ways of dealing with learning, e.g. note-taking, resourcing) and social strategy (learning by interacting with others).

Recently, Cohen (1998) classified language learning and language use strategies as two major categories of second language learner strategies. According to this classification, L2 learning strategies include identification of material to be learned, distinguishing it from other materials, grouping it for easier learning, having repeated contact with the material, committing the material to memory when it is not acquired naturally (repetition, use of mnemonics, some other memory techniques). On the other

hand, L2 use strategies have four subclasses: retrieval strategy (used to call up language material from storage), rehearsal strategy (used to rehearse target language structures, e.g. rehearsing a grammatical form to use it in a communicative situation), cover strategy (used to create the impression that one has control over material, in order not to lose face, e.g. simplification or complexion), communication strategy (used to convey a message that is both meaningful and informative to the listener, e.g. intralingual, interlingual, topic avoidance, message reduction, code switching, paraphrasing). In terms of interaction between communication and learning strategies, Cohen (1998) states that the impact of communication strategies on learning depends on the intention of the learner. He gives the example of a vocabulary item that is encountered for the first time. The learner may use it in order to get his/her message across without any attempts to learn it, or the learner may intentionally use that particular word in order to promote his/her learning.

After reviewing definitions of communication and learning strategies according to different researchers, basic criteria underlying the communication strategies will be discussed in the next section.

1.4 Basic criteria underlying communication strategies

There have been several attempts to clarify the criteria underlying the definition of CSs. In this section, different points of views considering "problem-orientedness", "consciousness" and "intentionality" as the underlying criteria of CS will be discussed.

a) Problem Orientedness

In terms of "problem-orientedness", Faerch and Kasper (1983) argue that language learners face problems because of their insufficient IL system during communication in the target language. According to their speech production model, language learners may face problems either at the planning or the execution phase. When there are problems at the planning phase, CSs are used in order to solve problems in communication. The problems during the execution phase are due to language learners' concern about fluency and correctness.

Bialystok (1990) criticizes the definitions of CS, which emphasize, "CS are only used when the speaker perceives a problem which may interrupt the communication" (p.3). According to her, the use of CSs is restricted to problem-orientedness in these definitions. In contrast, Bialystok (1990) argues that CSs can also be used in the absence of a problem during communication when interlocutors want to assure themselves that they are getting their meaning across (e.g. the use of lengthy definitions by native speakers in order to ensure the understanding of the listener, even though there is no communication problem).

According to Dörnyei and Scott (1997), since the types of problems that a language learner may face during communication are not clearly defined, the notion of "problem-orientedness" as an underlying criterion of CSs is not specific enough. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) also criticized restricting the reasons for problems during communication in the target language only to language deficits in IL. In order to clarify the notion of "problem-orientedness" Dörnyei and Scott (1997) determined three main types of communication problems, which lead to the use of CSs as the following:

- **own realization problems:** the interlocutor realizes that he/she said something wrong and tries to correct it.

- **other performance problems:** the interlocutor's speech is perceived as problematic by the other interlocutor due to incorrectness or unclearity.

- **processing time pressure:** the interlocutor needs more time to process and plan speech than normal fluent speech.

b) Consciousness

Consciousness is a second criterion underlying the definition of CSs. In relation with problem-orientedness, Faerch and Kasper (1983) argue that, "if the individual experiences a problem in reaching a goal, this implies that he is conscious about there being a difficulty" (p.34). Therefore, Faerch and Kasper (1983a) consider CSs as "potentially conscious plans". However, they also note that consciousness should not be considered as constant for all types of plans since they perceive consciousness as a matter of degree, not an either-or concept.

On the other hand, Bialystok (1990) mentions the difficulty of deciding whether the choice of the speaker is conscious or not. In order for the researcher to decide, the learner has to make conscious reflection of his/her choices afterwards, which is almost impossible for some EFL learners (e.g. children).

Defining strategy as "a conscious technique used to achieve a goal" (p.183), Dörnyei and Scott (1997) pointed out the different meanings that the term "consciousness" covers as: being conscious of a language problem, intent to solve this problem, the repertoire of applicable CSs, etc. In order to clarify the notion of consciousness,

Dörnyei and Scott (1997) determined three aspects of consciousness, which are as the following:

- **Consciousness as awareness of the problem:** They consider mistakes and errors distinct from the CSs that the speaker is aware of and that are used consciously in order to overcome problems in communication.

- **Consciousness as intentionality:** Dörnyei and Scott (1997) separates the intentional use of CSs from other verbal behaviors that are not intentional but systematically related to the problems that the speaker is aware of.

- **Consciousness as awareness of strategic language use:** the speaker is aware of using problem-oriented device (CSs) in order to overcome the difficulty in communication. However, in some cases, he/she may intentionally do something to bring a solution to the problem, which he/she does not consider as a strategy but a piece of acceptable L2" (p.185).

c) Intentionality

Intentionality is considered as another criterion in the definition of CSs (Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1990). Faerch and Kasper (1983) define "intentionality" as the main goal of using CSs in order to deliver meaning in communication. According to Bialystok, intentionality provides the language learner with choices in selecting the appropriate CS from a repertoire of strategies. Therefore, when CSs are intentional, "there is a systematic relationship between specific CS and specific conditions of the communicative situation" (Bialystok, 1990, p.5). However, she argues that it is difficult to decide which specific CS is selected in which specific condition. Hence, the notion of intentionality is questionable according to her.

These were the different points of views about the underlying criteria of the definition of CSs. In the following section, different point of views about how to detect problems during communication will be discussed.

1.5 Identification of problem areas in communication

According to the definition of CSs by Faerch and Kasper (1983), "CSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a communicative goal". Hence, the first thing for the identification of the communication strategy is the identification of a problem by the learner who is involved in an interaction.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) define a problem as "a situation in which existing resources are insufficient to reach a desired goal". Considering problem indication as a discriminating factor, Faerch and Kasper (1983) state three criteria to differentiate strategic utterance from non-strategic utterance, which is the result of learners' interlanguage error:

- Learner has experienced a problem in reaching his communicative goal by means of his available linguistic resources.
- Learner has attempted to solve this problem by setting up a strategic plan, which may or may not be conscious in the given situation.
- The data in question have been produced on the basis of this plan.

After reviewing this basic distinction between strategic and non-strategic utterance, there are two approaches to analyze and identify CSs, according to Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Wagner and Firth (1997): interactionalist and psycholinguistic approaches.

The interactionalist approach is based on Tarone's (1981) definition of CS: "the term (communication strategy) relates to a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (p.288). According to this definition, the need for a communication strategy becomes prominent when two interlocutors, who are involved in the communication, have a problem during the performance. In order to solve the problem they use communication strategies cooperatively. In this approach, the *sine qua non* to identify a CS, is the cooperative act of two interlocutors. If the interlocutors do not act cooperatively, communication strategies cannot be identified.

According to Faerch and Kasper (1983) the three criteria to identify the CSs according to the interactional definition are as the followings:

- The learner's problem is marked in his performance, either by an implicit/explicit signal of uncertainty or by a direct appeal.
- The signal is interpreted as an appeal by the interlocutor.
- The interlocutor acts in a cooperative manner and helps the learner communicate his intended message (Faerch and Kasper, 1983).

In line with Faerch and Kasper's criteria, Wagner and Firth (1997) state that the overt involvement of the two parties in the solution of the problem is the key to the identification of CSs in the interactional approach.

On the other hand, the psycholinguistic approach focuses on the learner who had problems in communication (Faerch and Kasper, 1983). According to this approach, the learner faces communication problems on his/her own, during the speech reception, planning or the execution phases of speech production. Hence, there is no

need for a mutual agreement between the learner and his/her interlocutor to solve this communication problem.

Wagner and Firth (1997) point out that, CSs involve both overt and covert elements in psycholinguistic approach. Overt elements are described in the same way as the interactionalist approach while covert elements are described as the underlying cognitive processes of the speaker.

In line with Wagner and Firth (1997), Faerch and Kasper (1983) define problematic areas in communication by explicit and implicit signs of uncertainty.

- Explicit signals of uncertainty: These are handicap signals such as, *I don't know, I can't say* or gambits like, *you know, I mean.*

- Implicit signals of uncertainty: Faerch and Kasper (1983) define these signals as performance signals. Performance features are classified into three main categories: temporal variables (rate of articulation, pauses, drawls, repeats), self-repairs (false starts). Speech slips are not considered as communication strategies, since Faerch and Kasper (1983) believe that speech slips do not reflect strategic planning and planned actions.

- By the learner addressing his interlocutor directly.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) explain the cooperative impact of the last item, by the degree of obligation for assistance. The interlocutor signals the least obligation of assistance to his/her partner by implicit strategy markers, whereas the opposite is true for explicit signals and direct appeals for help.

In terms of the identification of communication strategies, the two approaches are different in the way that interactional approach makes use of performance data but the psycholinguistic approach also analyzes the indirect evidence, which is not present in the performance data.

Bialystok (1990) criticized Faerch and Kasper (1983) in the way they identified communication strategies. According to her, indicating performance features (like, temporal variables, self-repairs, speech slips) is not the one and only way to identify communication strategies in a particular utterance, since the learners may have problems in communication but they may not reveal them overtly, at the same time. Considering performance features as inadequate to identify communication strategies, she requires the researchers to have access to the inside of the learners' minds in order to learn their mental state.

After reviewing the literature on the identification of communication strategies, Kasper and Kellerman (1997) indicate two basic methods to identify communication strategies. The first method is based on the idea of identifying the explicit and implicit markers in discourse. They consider metalinguistic comments like "I don't know how to say this.." as examples of explicit markers and hesitation as an example for implicit markers.

In the other method to identify communication strategies, the interlocutor himself/herself listens back to his/her own-recorded discourse and identifies the problematic and strategic points in discourse him/herself. Kasper and Kellerman (1997) refer to this method as "retrospective protocols". Considering the drawbacks of both of the methods on their own, Kasper and Kellerman (1997) offer an eclectic approach combining these two methods.

After reviewing the underlying criteria of CSs and the different points of view about the identification of the problem areas in communication, main classifications of CSs will be reported in the next section.

1.6 Main Classification of Communication Strategies

Main classifications of CSs will be discussed in relation to Yule and Tarone's (1997) analysis of the studies about CSs, in this section.

After examining different perspectives for the analysis of CSs, Yule and Tarone (1997) classified the studies done in the field into two groups: the "Pros" and the "Cons" group.

The "Pros" group researchers investigated the differences in linguistic performance among language learners, so they try to expand categories for the analysis of different types of CSs used. For this reason, Yule and Tarone (1997) describe them as "profligate".

The "Cons" group researchers, on the other hand, search for generalizations and the psychological plausibility of their categories, so they try to minimize the types of categories for the analysis of CSs. This group is defined as "conservative" by Yule and Tarone (1997).

In terms of educational implications, the "Pros" group favors the teaching of the use of CSs whereas the "Cons" group is against it.

a) The "Pros" Group

The four main classifications of CSs, which share the characteristics of "Pros" group in terms of the analysis of the CSs are Tarone's classification (interactional approach,

1977, 1980, 1983), Faerch and Kasper's classification (psycholinguistic approach, 1983) Paribakht's classification (knowledge oriented approach, 1985) and Dörnyei and Scott's classification (1997).

i) Tarone's Classification (Interactional Approach):

Tarone (1980) defines CS as a "mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (p.420).

She determined three criteria to identify CSs:

1. A speaker desires to communicate a 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.

3. The speaker chooses to:

   - avoid/not attempt to communicate meaning x

   - 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, 1980, p.419).

As these criteria indicate, Tarone (1980) emphasizes the cooperation of interlocutors in order to reach an agreement about a communicative goal. However, due to the lack of linguistic or sociolinguistic structures, interlocutors either use CSs to get their meaning across or they avoid getting the message across. In line with this basic

definition and criteria, she developed her own classification (Tarone 1980; Tarone, Cohen, Dumas 1983; Tarone, 1983) **(Appendix I)**.

ii) Faerch and Kasper's Classification (Psycholinguistic Approach):

Faerch and Kasper (1983) developed psycholinguistic approach. They defined CSs as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal". The two basic criteria for the use of CSs, according to Faerch and Kasper (1983), are their problem orientedness and consciousness. They consider CSs as problem solving devices, which are used consciously by the learner in case of a breakdown in communication. They made their own taxonomy by categorizing CSs as reduction strategy (stimulated by avoidance behavior), achievement strategy (stimulated by achievement behavior) **(Appendix II)**.

iii) Paribakht's Classification (Knowledge-based Approach):

Paribakht (1985) developed a knowledge-based approach in accordance with her definition of CSs as "vehicles through which learners use different kinds of knowledge to solve their communication problems". According to her definition of CSs, she determined four types of knowledge that learners use to get their meanings across: The linguistic approach (exploiting the semantic features of the target items), contextual approach (exploiting the speakers' contextual knowledge), conceptual approach (exploiting the speakers' world knowledge), mime (exploiting the speakers' knowledge of meaningful gestures). However, her taxonomy is not widely recognized or used **(Appendix III)**.

iv) Dörnyei and Scott's Classification:

Extending the scope of communication strategies, Dörnyei (1995) considered "stalling strategies" (hesitation gambits, pause fillers) as problem solving strategies, which are used during communication problems by helping speakers to gain time for thinking. Later, based on this extended view, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) developed their own classification system for different types of communication strategies arguing "CSs include every potentially intentional attempt to cope with any language related problem which the speaker is aware of during the course of communication"(Dörnyei and Scott, 1997, p.179) (**Appendix IV**).

b) The "Cons" Group

Towards the end of the 1980's, a group of researchers (Poulisse, 1987; Kellerman et al. 1987, Bongaerts et al. 1987, Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989 ; Bialystok, 1990) criticized the "Pros" group researchers for being product-oriented in their classifications of CSs.

Later named as the "Cons" group by Yule and Tarone (1997), they argued that the studies about CSs should focus on cognitive processes, which were the bases of CSs instead of focusing on the speech products, as the "Pros" group researchers did.

Poulisse (1987) pointed out that focusing on CSs as speech products prevents the researchers from making generalizations about the cognitive processes that cause the use of CSs.

In favor of the process-oriented approach, Kellerman et al. (1987) claimed that researchers should not only analyze the kinds of strategies used by speakers but also the motivation that affects their selection of those strategies.

According to Yule and Tarone (1997) the focus of "Pros" group researchers was on the external and interactive, while the focus of "Cons" group researchers was on the internal and cognitive in terms of the analysis of CSs.

In line with the process-oriented perspective, some of the "Cons" group researchers also attempted classification systems for the analysis of CSs (Bialystok and Kellerman, 1987; Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989, Kellerman et al.1987, Poulisse, 1987). Being different from the "Pros" group, the "Cons" group researchers focused only on compensatory strategies, which are used as alternative communicative resources in case of a problem in communication.

Kellerman, et al. (1987) developed their own classification scheme, by grouping three main types of CSs: approximative, analytic, linguistic strategies.

i) Approximative Strategies: learners use substitute lexical items from the same semantic field, instead of missing target words. Approximation, generalization, exemplification are the subtypes of this type of strategy.

ii) Analytic Strategies: Learners try to make the referent explicit, by describing its attributes. Circumlocution and paraphrase are subtypes of these strategies.

iii) Linguistic Strategies: Learners refer to other languages, mainly their L1 to use other lexical resources. Borrowing, foreignization and transliteration are subtypes of these strategies. **(Appendix V)**

Another type of classification developed by "Cons" group identifies two main types of CSs: conceptual and linguistic strategies (Bialystok and Kellerman, 1987; Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989; Poulisse, 1987).

Conceptual strategy, which involves the analysis of intended concept, is divided into holistic and analytic strategies. In holistic strategy, the learner uses a similar term for the referent whereas he/she describes the properties of the referent in analytic strategy.

Linguistic strategy, on the other hand, involves the use of all kinds of linguistic devices from native language, target language or other languages he/she knows (**Appendix VI**).

Yule and Tarone (1997) attempted for an explanatory design to distinguish between the two points of view about communication strategies. Expansion of categories is preferred by the Pros group while reduction of categories is preferred by Cons group. L2 learner performance is compared to native speakers performance by Pros group whereas L2 learners' performance is compared to their L1 performance by Cons group. Pros group emphasized real world objects and listening partner during a communicative task. On the other hand, Cons group preferred abstract shapes. However, Cons group did not require any listening partners for interlocutors. The following list summarizes the different points of views about communication strategies by Pros and Cons group.

Communication Strategies according to "Pros" and "Cons"

PROS	**CONS**
Profligate, liberal expansion of categories	Conservative, parsimonious reduction of categories.
Taxonomic description of observed forms in output. External and interactive	Description of underlying psychological process, internal and cognitive.
L2 learner performance compared to TL native speaker performance; many differences found	L2 learners' performance compared to their own L1 performance; many similarities found.
Elicitation prompts are real-world objects	Elicitation prompts are abstract shapes
Listening partner with a purpose, present.	No listening partner present
L2 learners with different L1's; mostly dissimilar to TL.	L2 learners with same L1's; L1 very similar to TL.
Teaching implication: Communication strategies should be taught.	**Teaching Implication:** Communication strategies should not be taught.

(Yule and Tarone, 1997)

1.7 Findings of the Previous Studies on Communication Strategies

After reviewing the literature about the different classification systems of CSs, findings of the studies on the use of CSs will be discussed in this section.

a) L1 Versus L2: Difference or Similarity

The studies which will be discussed in this part, mainly investigated whether speakers used the same or different CSs when they were communicating in L1 or L2.

One of the first studies, investigating L1 and L2 difference/similarity in terms of the use of CSs was conducted by Ammerlaan (1984, cited in Kellerman et al. 1987, p.108). In the particular study, the analysis of the data from the description of abstract shapes by Dutch learners of English in Dutch (L1) and English (L2) revealed that the learners used the same approach to describe the particular abstract shape in their L1 and L2. That is to say, if the learner used a holistic approach[1] to describe a particular abstract shape in Dutch (L1), he/she also used that holistic approach to describe the same abstract shape in English (L2), regardless of the linguistic deficits he/she has in English (L2).

In line with the findings of the previous study, Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989) also identified similarities rather than differences on the use of CSs in L1 and L2, in terms of underlying cognitive processes. They required Dutch learners of English to describe abstract shapes both in Dutch (L1) and English (L2), which confronted Dutch learners of English with the same problem (describing abstract shapes) in their L1 and L2. Despite the linguistic deficiencies in L2, the researchers observed a

[1] It requires the listener to determine what referent x is like by inferring the attributes of a conceptually related y, if y clearly is not the speaker's intended target.

preference for holistic perspective for both the learners' L1 (Dutch) and L2 (English) in terms of the use of CSs.

Bongaerts et al. (1987) carried out a study with native speakers of English (L1) and Dutch learners of English (L2) in order to investigate the differences/similarities between the use of CSs in L1 and L2 in terms of referential communication. After the analysis of the data based on the description of abstract shapes by both native and non-native speakers, it was found that both the native and non-native speakers performed the referential tasks[2] in the same way. Analyzing the strategies as conceptual[3] and linguistic[4], they proposed that both types of speakers first adopt a conceptual strategy, which is either holistic or analytic. Emphasizing the priority of conceptual strategies, Bongaerts et al. (1987) claimed that learners could also use linguistic strategies when faced with difficulties in communication. They explained that the priority of the conceptual strategies as "the solutions (to communication problems) used in both cases (native versus non-native speakers) are drawn from the same very small set of options" (p. 197).

As a part of the Nijmegen group studies, Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts and Poulisse (1990) investigated the difference and similarity between L1 and L2 strategic language use. They compared the use of referential strategies by Dutch learners of English, in their L1 (Dutch) and L2 (English). According to the findings, they classified the strategies as holistic, partitive or linear. Identifying a hierarchy of preference, they proposed that subjects preferred holistic over partitive over linear

---

[2] The process of the selection of the properties of the referent that the speaker then encodes in order to solve his lexical problem and maintain his communicative intent. They used the term referential strategy instead of CSs since they call their task referential communication task.

[3] Strategy of manipulating the attributes of the concept to be referred to.

[4] Strategy to transform a morphonological form from L1.

both in their L1 and L2. During a single picture description in either L1 or L2, they found that the learners proceeded according to this hierarchy of referential strategies.

Russel (1997) replicated Kellerman et al.'s study (1990) with the Japanese learners of English in order to investigate whether the hierarchy of strategies was operational with this culturally different group across languages (L1 versus L2) and within one language. The results of the study confirmed the results of Kellerman et al. (1990) in the way that Japanese learners of English indicated a similar preference of hierarchy of strategies (holistic over partitive over linear) across languages (Japanese versus English). However, violations to Kellerman's hierarchy occurred in terms of description within one language.

In line with previous research findings, Yule and Tarone (1990) observed similarities more than differences between native and non-native adult speakers in terms of the CSs they used in different types of communicative tasks in L1 and L2. They concluded that world knowledge, as well as linguistic knowledge was also important for speakers' choice of strategies both in L1 and L2.

CSs were found to be used not only by L2 learners but by native speakers as well Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, et.al. 1987; Tarone, 1981; Wagner, 1983). Tarone (1981) explained the use of CSs in L1 with only lexical items, such as clarifying referents for pronouns, whereas in L2, CSs occur in different forms as syntactic, morphological or phonological structures. According to Wagner (1983), the difference between L1 and L2 speakers is that L2 speakers have to compensate for the lack of vocabulary more often and make ad hoc plans for their compensation.

Believing that native speakers also face difficulties in communication, Kellerman et al. (1987, p.101) reported different occasions where native speakers adopted a CS to overcome problems in communication such as:

1) teachers explaining words and expressions to children (or non-native speakers).

2) experts explaining technical terms to laymen.

3) native speakers temporarily unable to retrieve a word.

4) native speakers having to describe some referents for which they do not have a name (perhaps because there is not one).

5) native speakers taking part in TV quizzes where the objective is to enable their partners to guess the word under severe time constraints.

6) aphasiacs suffering from anomia.

(Kellerman, 1987; p.101)

According to Kellerman et al. (1987), although native speakers in their L1 and non-native speakers in their L2 have basically the same processes underlying their choice of a strategy, non-native speakers also face linguistic deficiency in the language they are learning.

Therefore, according to Bialystok (1990), the similar findings of these studies, which compare the use of CSs in L1 and L2, indicate that, "the fact of speaking a second language does not by itself determine how the communication problems will be

solved. The solutions adopted for second language communication are just as prevalent when speaking a first language" (p.54).

These were the findings of the studies on CSs in L1 and L2. The effect of learner variables in terms of age, proficiency level and educational background on the use of CSs will be reported in the next section.

b) CSs and Learner Variables

The studies in this part focused on the relationship between the use of CSs and learner variables like age, proficiency level, and educational background.

Reviewing the literature, Bialystok (1990) noticed that most of the studies about the use of CSs in second language were conducted with adult L2 learners. In order to test whether child L2 learners also used the same CSs for communication, Bialystok (1990) carried out a study with 9 year old children learning French. Analysis of the data according to Tarone's taxonomy revealed the following CSs used by child L2 learners during a picture reconstruction task: avoidance (message abandonment), paraphrase (approximation, word coinage, circumlocution), conscious transfer (literal translation, language switch), appeal for assistance. This finding was in line with the findings of a similar study (Bialystok, 1983) carried out with adult and 17 year old L2 learners. Therefore, Bialystok (1990) stated that the distribution of the CSs used by child L2 learners was more similar to the distribution of CSs used by 17 year olds than adults. Among the CSs, circumlocution was detected as the favorite strategy among child L2 learners.

Bialystok (1983) investigated the relationship between the use of CSs and learners' proficiency level in the second language. In her study, she analyzed the data from

English learners of French, from a picture reconstruction task. According to the results, high proficiency learners were found to use L2 based CSs (e.g. word coinage, semantic contiguity) more than L1 based CSs (e.g. foreignizing, code switching, literal translation), while low proficiency learners were found to use fewer L2 based CSs and more L1 based CSs.

Similarly, Paribakht (1985) investigated the differences/similarities between Persian ESL learners at different proficiency levels and native speakers of English in terms of CSs they used. The findings of the study revealed that, low proficiency level-learners faced more communication problems, which led to the more use of CSs than high proficiency level learners and native speakers. The findings of the study also revealed that learners abandoned L1 based strategies as their proficiency increased, that is to say, high proficiency level L2 learners used more L2 based strategies.

In a similar study, Chen (1990) looked for a relationship between the use of CSs by Chinese EFL learners and their proficiency level in English. The data was collected through a concept-identification task, which required the learners to describe abstract and concrete shapes to the native speakers of English. According to the results, a relationship between the frequency, type and effectiveness of CSs and the learner's proficiency level was detected. In terms of the types of CSs used, high proficiency learners used linguistic based CSs (e.g. synonym, antonym, superordinate categories, metalanguage) more than low-proficiency level learners who used more knowledge based CSs (e.g. simile, cultural knowledge, exemplification). Another finding of the study indicated that, Chinese EFL learners (both high and low proficieny learners) employed very few L1 (Chinese) based CSs. Chen (1990) explained this finding in relation to Kellerman's (1977, 1978) "typological relatedness" view between

languages, which supported the less adoption of Chinese based CSs because of the typological distance between Chinese and English.

c) CSs and Context

Most of the studies in the field investigated the use of CSs by NNS-NS[5] dyads in oral performance. However, the studies reported in this section examined the effect of different contexts (NNS-NNS interaction, written performance) on the use of CSs of L2 learners.

Aiming to find the effects of the different cultural backgrounds on the use of CSs by L2 (English) learners, Yule and Tarone (1987) conducted a study with Asian and South American EFL learners. The results revealed that subjects (NNS) from diverse cultural backgrounds tended not to use their native culture based information in a communicative task. However, if they assumed that their communication partners might know the culture based information, then, they used that particular culture based information. According to the findings, Yule and Tarone (1987) also detected three new types of communication strategies: repetition (NNS appears to tall, repeat a certain word/phrase continuously to find the appropriate word/phrase), explication (NNS spell out what is meant by the expression used), over-explicitness (NNS' greater use of detail).

Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992) compared the use of CSs in oral versus written performances of intermediate Persian L2 (English) learners. The results indicated that learners preferred achievement strategies to reduction strategies[6] in both types of

---

[5] **NS**: English native speakers
NNS: Non-native speaker

[6] Achievement and reduction strategies will be discussed in the "classification of the present study" section in detail

communicative tasks. Within the achievement strategies, IL based strategies were used more than L1 based strategies. In relation to the type of task, particular CSs were preferred rather than others, e.g. the strategy of literal translation was used more in written performance than oral performance, whereas the strategy of code switching was used in oral performance more than written performance.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, there are not any studies investigating the use of CSs by BLLs, who constitute a group of subjects in this study. Therefore, studies about bilingual/multilingual language learners will be reported in the next section, in order to assist the understanding of language behaviors of BLLs in the present study.

1.8 Studies on Bilingual/Multilingual Language Learners

According to Webster Encyclopedic Dictionary (1992), a monolingual is a person who speaks or uses only one language, a bilingual is a person with complete mastery of two languages and a multilingual is a person capable of using several languages. In line with these definitions, Weinreich (1953, as cited in Beardsmore, 1991) states that " the practice of alternatively using two languages will be called bilingualism and the persons involved bilingual. Unless otherwise specified, all remarks about bilingualism apply as well to multilingualism, the practice of using alternately three or more languages (p.5). However, as Beardsmore (1991) points out, it should not be forgotten that these generalizations give very little information about the degree of knowledge in two or more languages and there are various other definitions of bilingual and multilingual people across different contexts. According to Lambert's definition of bilingualism (1974, as cited in Beardsmore, 1991), the bilingualism referred to in this study is an example of "additive bilingualism", in which "second

language brings to the speaker a set of cognitive and social abilities which do not negatively affect those that have been acquired in the first language but where the two linguistic and cultural entities involved in being bilingual combine in a complementary and enriching fashion". According to Beardsmore (1991), "additive bilingualism" is the result of the society's attitude toward the second language, which is seen as an extra tool for communication and it is a justification for foreign language instruction at schools". Based on the definitions and explanations of Lambert (1974) and Beardsmore (1991), the BLLs, in the present study, are considered as additive bilinguals since, these EFL learners are assumed to have an advanced level of proficiency after 7/8 years of German/French medium instruction.

People with multiple language skills have generally been considered in an advantageous position over monolinguals in language learning (Magiste, 1984). Such claims are based upon the hypothesis that while learning a new language, "multilingual individuals may have certain skills that enable them to process linguistic stimuli more efficiently than can persons with less experience with languages" (Nayak et al. 1990).

Magiste (1984) found that bilingual learners outperformed monolinguals in terms of proficiency in learning a new language. In her study, she compared bilingual immigrant EFL students with monolingual Swedish students who were both learning English. Immigrant bilingual students were divided into two groups: as students who always spoke Swedish at home, but knew their mother language passively and those who actively used their mother tongue at home daily. The best results, in terms of proficiency were obtained from bilingual children with a passive knowledge of their mother language. This finding led Magiste (1984) to claim "passive bilingualism

seems to facilitate learning a third language, while active bilingualism might delay it". According to Magiste (1984) while learning a new language, there is a potential of interference from other language/languages that the learner knows. However, for passive bilingual learner, the interference from other language/languages did not increase, although they did not use their two languages actively, "they have already acquired the technique of learning another language, which improves the learning of additional languages" (p.420). Magiste (1984) also proposed that the similarities between languages could have a facilitative effect in learning the new one. She claimed that especially at beginner levels if there is a similarity between the languages that are being learned and that are already known the learner can easily recognize and understand familiar concepts in the new language (p.421).

Thomas' (1988) study also confirmed Magiste (1984) in the way that bilinguals outperformed monolinguals in learning a new language. In line with the results, Thomas (1988) claimed that bilinguals are in a more advantageous position over monolinguals since " they (bilinguals) have a sensitivity to language as a system which helps them perform better on those activities associated with formal language learning" (p.240). The students in the study were either monolingual (English as L1) or bilingual (English and Spanish). Bilingual students were later classified as those who received formal training in both languages (English and Spanish) and those who had no formal training of the languages. The findings of the study revealed that bilingual students who received formal training in both languages performed better than monolinguals and bilinguals without a formal training in any of the languages they knew. Thomas (1988) explained this difference among bilingual groups as the effect of metalinguistic awareness, which increased the proficiency of bilinguals with

formal training in languages. This metalinguistic awareness is claimed to help the learners to recognize acceptable spoken and written utterances in the new language.

Based on Kellerman's (1977) claim that learners transfer experiences from other languages according to their perception of distance between the languages, Singleton (1987) argues that in order to compensate for linguistic deficiencies in the target language, learner borrows linguistic resources from other languages he/she knows. In his case study, he analyzed the conversational data from an English learner of French, with some knowledge of Spanish, Irish, and Latin. The results indicated that, when communicating in the target language (French), the learner transferred mostly from Spanish, which he claimed to be more similar to French in a post-questionnaire. This finding is in line with Kellerman's (1977) statement that "if the learner perceives target language *a* is closer to target language *b* than native language, he/she transfers between target languages than between native language and target language" (p.95).

In order to investigate similarities/differences between multilingual and monolingual language learners, in terms of language learning strategies, Nayak et al, 1990 conducted a study, which was based on the notion of the learnability of an artificial language system by multilingual and monolingual adult language learners. The results indicated a superiority of multilinguals over monolinguals in some learning abilities but not in all of them. In terms of learning the syntactic rules of the new language, multilinguals outperformed monolinguals. On the other hand, no significant difference was detected between monolingual and multilingual learners in terms of vocabulary learning. The superiority of multilingual learners over monolingual learners was proven in terms of strategy use, in the way that multilingual learners used greater variability of strategies. This result led the researchers to claim that

multilinguals are more flexible in switching strategies due to their previous language experiences.

Based on the findings of Blum and Gumperz (1972), Stavans (1992) investigated whether sociolinguistic variables like setting, discourse type, the participant and the topic have any effect on trilingual children's speech. The children in the study were Spanish/Hebrew bilinguals at home and they were exposed to English at school, daycare centers and outside the house. According to the findings, participants' linguistic backgrounds influenced the quantity and type of the speech, i.e., the topic related switches were culture-bound and the situation of the switches basically refers to discourse routines.

Klein (1995) compared the differences between monolingual and multilingual adolescent groups in terms of learning a foreign language. The study investigated the acquisition of a particular grammar structure (preposition stranding[7]) by a group of monolinguals and multilingual in a grammaticality judgment and correction task in English. According to the results both groups showed similar types of errors, null-prep. Hence, Klein (1995) implicated that both monolinguals and bilinguals went through same route of acquisition. However, one important result was that multilinguals outperformed monolinguals in the rate of setting the parameter in L3. In terms of acquisition of lexical items, multilinguals performed better than monolinguals, too. The implication of the study is that "knowing other languages is helpful and should aid the acquisition of English. This conclusion is particularly important in advocating for increased foreign language instruction in schools" (p.454).

---

[7] In English, object of prepositional phrase can be extracted, when the *wh-* element involves a prepositional phrase. E.g. [Who] are the girls waiting [for]?

Another study on third language learning was carried out by Dewaele (1998). She investigated the non-target lexical inventions in French interlanguage by two groups of Dutch natives. The first group of subjects was learning French as L2, and English as L3. On the other hand, the other group of subjects was learning English as L2 and French as L3. According to the quantitative analysis of the data, there were significant differences between the subjects learning French as L2 and L3, in terms of lexical inventions. Learners of French as L2 made more lexical inventions based on intralingual strategies whereas learners of French as L3 made more lexical inventions based on interlingual strategies. Another result indicated that French L2 speakers had a higher proportion of lexical inventions resulting from transfer from L1, whereas French L3 speakers traced more forms into their L2. At this point, the author suggests that Dutch (L1) has a higher degree of activation than English for French as L2 learners, whereas English (L2) has a higher degree of activation than Dutch (L1) for French as L3 learners. In the source of lexical information the writer concludes, "The active language with the highest level of activation is preferred, while the access to lemmas of languages that have a lower level of activation is partially blocked" (p.488).

Supporting the superiority of bilinguals over monolinguals, Sanz (2000) carried out a study among bilingual (Spanish/Catalan) and monolingual (Spanish) subjects learning English as a foreign language. The results revealed that bilingual L3 learners had a positive influence of their L2 in learning a foreign language, which was English. Another result indicated that motivation and exposure had played an important role in the L3 proficiency while age and intelligence were not related factors. In terms of metalinguistic awareness, bilinguals are considered to be more advantageous since they are conscious about form and other relevant factors.

These were the studies on bilingual and multilingual language learners. The methodology of this study will be presented in the next section.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

In this part, methodology of the present study (i.e. aim, subjects, task, data collection procedures and the data analysis) will be described.

2.1 Aim of the Study

By reviewing the studies about communication strategies and bilingual/multilingual language learners, this study investigates whether knowing another language has any effect on EFL learners' use of communication strategies.

In the previous studies, researchers investigated the use of different CSs by language learners through communicative tasks, either in learners' L2 (e.g., 1983; Bialystok, 1983, 1990; Chen, 1990; Tarone, 1977, 1980) or in both L1/L2 (Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989; Bongaerts, et al.1987; Kellerman et al., 1990; Kellerman, 1987; Russell, 1997). On the other hand, studies carried out with bilingual/multilingual language learners indicate that people with multiple language skills are in advantageous positions over monolinguals in EFL/ESL language learning situations. (Magiste, 1984; Thomas, 1998; Nayak et al.1990; Klein, 1995; Dewaele, 1998; Sanz, 2000). However, the researcher did not come across any studies, which investigated the difference between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of CS use.

Therefore, the present study tries to fill a gap in the literature of CSs, by investigating the similarities and differences between BLL (learning English as L3) and MLL (learning English as L2) EFL learners in terms of the CSs they use in a communicative task.

CSs are defined as the solutions the learner produces when faced with a difficulty in communication, in this study. Based on this definition, the present study attempts to find answers to the following research questions:

1) Are there any differences/similarities between MLL and BLL in terms of total number of CSs used in an interaction in TL?

2) Are there any differences between MLL and BLL in terms of the language choice of CSs they make when they have a problem in an interaction in TL?

3) Are there any differences /similarities between MLL and BLL in terms of the categories of CSs they used in an interaction in TL?

2.2 Subjects

This study was conducted with 60 Turkish EFL learners, who are attending English prep class at a university in Istanbul for one year. EFL learners are classified into two groups as bilingual (n=30) and monolingual (n=30) according to their linguistic backgrounds. BLLs consist of subjects who are Turkish natives but studied in German/French medium secondary/high schools for 7/8 years in Turkey. (These German/French medium secondary/high schools also require one or two years of prep class in either of the languages (German/French). Therefore, they are considered as additive BLLs since they learned their L2s (German/French) at school for academic purposes. BLLs consist of two groups as the following: bilingual EFL learners with French-L2 (n=12) (henceforth, BLL-F) and bilingual EFL learners with German L2 (n=18) (henceforth, BLL-G). MLLs consist of 30 subjects, who are learning English as EFL. They are graduates of state high schools, where they took a few hours of

English as a subject among the other subjects, which they had to take in order to complete a high school degree.

The study was conducted with 40 male and 20 female EFL learners. A gender-based classification was not possible in this technical university, where male population outnumber the female population.

All the EFL learners (BLLs and MLLs) were between the ages of 17-19.

2.2.1 Proficiency level of the subjects

According to university's English language placement test, there were three different groups of students: beginner, intermediate and advanced. However, the number of BLLs in beginner and advanced classes were not adequate and would not have allowed the researcher to end up with reliable statistical results (beginner BLLs=3, advanced BLLs=5). Therefore, the research was carried out with intermediate EFL learners. In order to control the effect of the proficiency level in the target language and to have homogeneity in each of the groups the researcher also administered "The Michigan Test of English Proficiency" (henceforth, MTEP) to 60 intermediate EFL learners (30 MLLs and 30 BLLs). According to MTEP manual, scores higher than 69 are considered to be proficient enough to go on with their freshman year studies and scores below 69 are interpreted as "not proficient enough to do any academic work". The subjects of the current study (BLLs=30, MLLs=30) scored between 40-69 in MTEP. The range of scores in MTEP is presented below.

Scores of EFL learners according to MTEP				
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum
BLLs	50.73	8.51	42	68
MLLs	54.47	5.58	40	66

As can be seen above, scores of MLLs ranged between 40 and 68, whereas the scores of BLLs ranged between 42 and 66. Although the borders for the minimum and maximum scores and the means for both groups were similar, there were differences in terms of the accumulation of the MTEP scores between the two groups. As can be seen in the frequency table below, most of BLLs got scores between 40-49 (n=20) whereas most of the MLLs (n=21) got scores between 50-59, i.e., BLLs mostly included less proficient EFL learners in comparison to MLLs. However, the researcher decided to carry out the study with 60 (30BLLs and 30 MLLs), who got scores between 40-69 in MTEP for the reliability of the statistical analysis.

Frequency of MTEP scores for BLLs and MLLs		
Scores	Number of BLLs	Number of MLLs
40-49	20	4
50-59	4	21
60-69	6	5

As presented in the frequency table, MTEP scores of the EFL learners did not allow the researcher to make a comparison between BLLs and MLLs in terms of high and low proficiency learners in 40-69 interval since there were inadequate and unequal number of EFL learners in 40-49, 50-59 and 60-69 score intervals.

2.3 The task and the data collection procedure

According to Bialystok (1983), the task, which is used to elicit CSs, should provide an incentive for the learner to convey difficult information. She also notes that, the researcher should have control over the items for which, the CSs are used. Therefore, the subjects were required to describe and complete a picture in pairs like the previous studies (Tarone, 1977; Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985). In order to complete this picture description and completion task[8] the students were grouped in pairs. Each pair was placed in a specific position, in which they could not see each other. One of the students was given a complete picture of a puzzle and the other was given the pieces of the puzzle to be completed. One of the subjects in each pair described the picture to the other subject, who completed the puzzle according to the description without seeing the complete picture. The conversation between the two subjects in each pair was tape-recorded until the task finished. There was no time limitation for the task. The subjects could only be paired as BLL and MLL pairs because of the time limitations and inconvenience of the subjects. The conversation between two subjects in each pair was tape-recorded until the task was finished. Later, the researcher transcribed and analyzed the conversations. Finally, the transcribed data was tabulated and classified into categories of CSs that were used in interactions.

2.4 Analysis of the data

In this section, the data analysis framework will be presented together with the theoretical constructs adapted and modified for the purposes of this study. The theoretical framework, which is adapted and modified in this study, is mainly a modification of Faerch and Kasper's (1983) work on CSs. The data was analyzed in

[8] This language task was adapted from Papaefthymiou-Lytra, 1987.

the following order in the present study: the transcription of the data, the identification of the problem areas and classification of communication strategies according to Faerch and Kasper's (1983) classification.

2.4.1 Transcription

The researcher listened to the audio taped conversations twice and transcribed the data.

2.5 Identification of problem areas in this study

In this study, problem areas in communication are detected both from interactionalist and psycholinguistic points of view, since communication involves both parties (interactionalist, Tarone 1981) but learners may also face and try to solve their problems on their own (psycholinguistic, Faerch and Kasper, 1983).

During the analysis of the transcribed data, in terms of temporal variables, only pauses and repetitions were considered as problems, which indicate the use of communication strategies by learners. Pauses were considered as problem areas if they indicated a problem for the flow of conversation. Repetitions were considered as problematic areas if the learners used them to clarify misunderstandings in the comprehension of the listener or if the learner used them to gain time in the flow of conversation. The researcher, in this study, considered laughs and hesitation marks as problem indicators when the learner used them to indicate difficulty for the flow of conversation.

2.6 Classification of CSs

The researcher adapted and modified Faerch and Kasper's (1983) classification for the purposes of this study. In order to clarify how the modifications were done first, Faerch and Kasper's (1983) classification, then the modified version of Faerch and Kasper's (1983) classification are presented with the justifications supported by examples from the data in the present study.

2.6.1 Classification by Faerch and Kasper

Faerch and Kasper (1983) classified communication strategies under two main categories as: achievement and reduction strategies.

A) Reduction strategies

Learners prefer to use reduction strategies when they want to avoid facing problems in communication, whereas they prefer to use achievement strategies, when they want to solve the problem in communication.

Reduction strategies are further classified into formal and functional reduction strategies.

i) Formal Reduction Strategies

In formal reduction strategies, the learner communicates with a less adequate "reduced system" in order to avoid communication problems and producing incorrect or unacceptable utterances. Instead, the learner uses automatized (fossilized) or hypothetical rules/items. The subtypes of formal reduction strategies are: phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical.

At the phonological level, the learner reduces the phonological system to avoid problems during communication. However, since the avoidance of a phoneme is not always a solution, the learner finds other ways to use that phoneme. For example, if the learner wants to avoid using / / phoneme in English, he/she chooses to adopt other ways, like overgeneralization of /d/ or borrowing L1 phoneme instead (Faerch and Kasper 1983b, p.41).

At the morphological level, in order to avoid using a morphological item in the target language, learners use other morphological items in the target language, instead. For example, in French, the use of infinitival verbal complement is preferred in order to avoid subordinate clauses with subjunctives.

At the syntactic level, learners avoid using some sentence structures, like passive structure in English. Learners may use active sentence structures in order to avoid using the passive form. However, Faerch and Kasper (1983) argue that it is difficult to detect this kind of avoidance since active sentence structure is also a well-formed sentence and appropriate in the immediate context.

At the lexical level, learners avoid using particular words and reduce their lexical system, since the pronunciation of the lexemes is difficult or the lexemes are irregular morphological forms.

ii) Functional Reduction Strategies

When the learners choose functional reduction strategies, they reduce their communicative goals in order to avoid problems in communication. In terms of communicative goal, functional reduction strategies are effective in terms of actional, modal and prepositional elements.

When learners face problems about the performance of specific speech acts or marking their utterances correctly for politeness/social distance (speech act modality), they reduce their speech acts (modal element).

In terms of reduction of actional features, learners avoid using certain functions of speech acts like argumentative or directive in order to avoid problems in communication.

In terms of propositional content, there are three types of avoidance strategies: topic avoidance, message abandonment and meaning replacement.

In topic avoidance, the learner avoids talking about topics, which may cause linguistic problems in his/her performance.

In message abandonment, learner initiates the topic however because of the problems about linguistic forms or rules that he/she faces in the target language, he/she cuts the conversation short.

In meaning replacement, when learner faces a problem in communication, he /she keeps talking about he same topic with more general expressions instead of specific ones.

B) Achievement Strategies

Learners use achievement strategies when they try to solve problems in communication by making use of their communicative resources widely, instead of reducing their communicative goal. Achievement strategies have two subcategories: retrieval and compensatory strategies.

1) Retrieval Strategies

Learners adopt retrieval strategies when they may have difficulties in retrieving target language items and then they adopt achievement strategies to get at the problematic item.

2) Compensatory Strategies

Achievement strategies, which are used in order to solve communication problems because of inadequate resources during planning phase, are called compensatory strategies. Learners because of linguistic deficits adopt compensatory strategies during planning phase. The types and subtypes of compensatory strategies are stated below:

a) Code switching: Learners switch single words up to complete turns from L1 or another foreign language into L2 (See **example 1** below)

Example (1):

[9]**L:** Do you want to have some ah-***zinsen*** or do you want to have some more... (*zinsen* German for interest). (Faerch and Kasper, 1983)

b) Interlingual Transfer: In interlingual transfer, linguistic features from L1 and target language or other languages are combined. Faerch and Kasper (1983) divide "interlingual transfer" into two categories as: "foreignizing" and "literal translation".

[9] Learner

- **Foreignizing:** If the learner adopts a lexical item into target language phonology, this is called "foreignizing". (See **example 2** and **3** below)

Example (2): [10]**NS:** How do you go to school? [...]

L: sometimes I take my er- er what's it called-er[...] '***knallert***'

(Faerch and Kasper, 1983b)

Example (3): "***reparate***" for "repair" [adjusting the German word 'reparien']

(Dörnyei and Scott, 1997)

- **Literal Translation:**If the learner translates compounds or idiomatic expressions from L1 into target language, it is called "**literal translation**" (See **example 4** and **5** below).

Example (4):

L: they (=my pets) eats-erm ***green-things***

("***green things***" for grontsager Danish for" vegetables") (Faerch and Kasper, 1983b)

Example (5): L: I'd made *a* ***big fault*** (translated from French) (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997)

[10] Native Speaker

c) Intralingual transfer

When the learner believes that target language is similar to his/her L1, he/she makes a generalization of target language rule by the properties of L1 structures (See **example 6** below).

Example (6): Danish: swomme-swommede (past tense)

English: swim-***swimmed***

d) IL based strategies

Learner tries to solve the communication problems by using the sources from his/her interlanguage. IL based strategies have four subtypes: generalization, paraphrase, coin new words or restructuring.

1) Generalization: When learners face difficulty in reaching their communicative goals, they try to cover up for the missing lexical item. This compensatory lexical item is usually a superordinate term or overgeneralization of the problematic lexical item in an inappropriate context. Tarone (1977) called this strategy "approximation". In the example below, the learner uses "animals" as a superordinate term, since he/she does not know the lexical item "rabbits" in the target language.

Example (7):

NS: do you have any animals-

L: (laugh) –yes-er-er-that is er- I don't know how shall I say that in English- [....]

NS: I think they must be rabbits.

L: er what?

NS: rabbits

L: rabbits

NS: yer rabbits [...]

NS: does it-sleep on- in your room

L: er my-my ***animals***-

NS: mm your ***animal*** (Faerch and Kasper, 1983)

2) Paraphrase: Learner describes or tells the functions or the properties of the referent, when he/she has a problem in finding the right lexical item in the target language. This is a form of "circumlocution" as defined by Tarone, 1977; Faerch and Kasper, 1983.

Example (8):

L: [...] some people have a car-and some people have a-er-

bicycle and some people have a er-erm-a cykel there is a motor

NS: oh a bicycle- with a motor

- **Exemplification:** It is another form of paraphrase. The learner finds a hyponomic expression instead of the missing lexical item (See **example 9** below)

Example (9):

L: (laugh) knallert-er(laugh) [...] you know er ***Puch***

(knallert Danish for "moped": ***Puch*** a make of moped) (Faerch and Kasper, 1983)

3) Word Coinage: The learner creates a new word in the target language instead of the missing one (See **example 10** below)

Example (10):

L: We were sitting in the ***-rounding*** of the stadion.

(Learner refers to the curve of the stadium)

4) Restructuring: The learner initiates an utterance, however he/she realizes that he/she cannot complete it, so instead of reducing the message, he/she constructs an alternative plan to continue communicating his/her message (See **example 11** below).

Example (11):

L: My tummy- my tummy is- I have (inaudible) I must eat something.

e) Cooperative Strategies: Faced with a difficulty/problem in communication, the learner may indicate his/her interlocutor the problem and require the interlocutor's assistance. This assistance can either be in the form of direct or indirect appeal.

• **Direct appeal**

Example (12):

NS: what er color is it-

L: er skim (laugh) er-er what's- color is this- (points to sweater)

(***skimlet*** Danish for "grey" with reference to animals)

• **Indirect appeal**

Example (13):

L: after my school I'll start erm (sigh) er- I learn erm shirts and er (laugh) ***can't explain that***-er-sy.

(sy Danish for sew)

f) Non-linguistic Strategies: Learners use mime, gesture, sound imitation in order to support verbal strategies, in case of a difficulty in communication.

2.6.2 Classification of the present study:

According to the transcribed data, the researcher adopted Faerch and Kasper's (1983) classification as the main framework for the analysis of CSs in this study. However, some modifications and adaptations were necessary because of the reasons stated below:

First, reduction strategies could not be analyzed in this study since they are often unmarked and therefore hard to be identified (Willems, 1987). As an alternative,

Willems (1987) mentions "introspection" method, in which the researcher directly asks the learner whether he avoided saying particular structures (e.g. phonological, morphological, syntactic) because of the difficulties in verbalization or not. However, this method is criticized by Cohen (1998), in the way that we cannot access cognitive processing since it is unconscious and the verbal reports of the learners may take more time than expected. This, in result makes the verbal reports retrospective rather than introspective. Due to the reasons stated above and the inconvenience of the subjects, introspective method could not be implemented in this study. Reduction strategies were also hard to be identified since the identification of some strategies (e.g. those at the phonological level) required a more advanced recording technique than tape-recording. Similarly, non-linguistic CSs could not be analyzed since identification of these CSs also required video recording. Because of these reasons, reduction and non-linguistic CSs could not be analyzed and only achievement strategies were analyzed in this study.

Achievement Strategies

A) Code switching

Faerch and Kasper (1983) identified the strategy of code switching (henceforth, CSW) as "the switch of single words to complete turns from L1 or from other foreign languages". In this study, both MLLs and BLLs code switched from Turkish at single word and sentential levels. However, BLLs code switched from their L2 (German/French) only at single word level. In order to indicate this difference between BLLs' L1 (Turkish) CSW and BLLs' L2 (German/French) CSW, the researcher analyzed the CS of "code switching" in two subcategories as: "single word CSW" and "sentential CSW".

1) Single word CSW

Three languages were used for single word CSW in this study: Turkish, French and German. Below are the examples for single word CSW in this study.

i) Code switch-Turkish

Both MLLs and BLLs code switched into Turkish at single word level. The EFL learner in the example below did not know the word "**bucket**", therefore a Turkish equivalent (***kova***) was used.

Example (14):

[11]**I (1):** There is people, two bears, two birds and two (uhm, uhm) tree and (uhm) (pause) (uhm) a [12]***kova*** and one crow.

ii) Code switch-French: In example **(15)** below, BLL-F did not know the English meaning of "**tail**". Therefore, he code switched into French ***que*** for the necessary word.

Example (15):

I (2): He has black hairs and (uhm, uhm) [13]***que***

I (3): What?

I (2): (Uhm) (pause) ***que.*** I don't know, it's black, like hair in the back of animals (uhm) ***que*** (laughs).

---

[11] Abbreviation for "interlocutor"
[12] "Bucket" in English.
[13] "Tail" in French.

iii) Code switch-German (CS-G): In example **(16)** below, BLL-G did not know the necessary English word "**bucket**" instead; he used its German equivalent "***korb***".

Example (16):

I (4): There is a (pause) (uhm).

I (5): what?

I (4): (uhm) (uhm) [14]***korb*** and put water in it. Did you find?

I (5): water? (pause) oh, yes.

2) Sentential CSW

Both MLLs and BLLs code switched into Turkish at the sentential level. When MLLs and BLLs could not form a sentence to describe the parts of the picture or could not convey an impression of the main characters, they formed the whole sentences in Turkish (See **Example 17** below).

Example (17):

I (6): Which person?

I (7): The person, who is lying in the middle of the trees. (uhm) He has (to himself with a low voice) (uhm) (to himself with a low voice) he is... (pause) (uhm).

I (6): What did you say? I did not hear.

I (7): (uhm) ***Belinde kemerin ucunda kurşunlar var*** (laughs). OK?

I (6): OK. OK (laughs).

---

[14] "Bucket" in English.

B) Literal Translation:

Faerch and Kasper (1983) identified two types of strategies in interlingual transfer as: "foreignizing" and " literal translation". In this study, only the strategy of "literal translation" was identified. In line with Faerch and Kasper's (1983) definition, the translation of compounds and idiomatic expressions from Turkish into English were considered as "literal translation", which was used both by BLLs and MLLs. In example **(18)** below, **I (9)** translated Turkish words "su" and "top" to make a new word "water ball" in English.

Example (18)

I (8): Where is the man?

I (9): He is (uhm..) near (uhm.) (pause) ball but it is different

I (8): What? Ball?

I (9): Yes, ball but (Uhm) [15]***water ball*** (laughs).

C) Interlanguage-based CS:

Interlanguage based CSs were used both by BLLs and MLLs in this study. However, some modifications and adaptations were also made in this type of achievement strategies. Similar with Faerch and Kasper (1983), the researcher identified generalization, paraphrase, restructuring and word coinage in the transcribed data. Different than Faerch and Kasper (1983), the researcher also identified the CS of "use of all purpose words", which is adapted from Dörnyei and Scott's (1997)

[15] Literal translation for "su topu"

classification according to the transcribed data in this study. Below are the examples, which illustrate the use of interlanguage-based CSs in the study.

1) Generalization

The strategy of "generalization" was identified in line with Faerch and Kasper's (1983) definition as "using a superordinate term or overgeneralization of the problematic lexical item in order to cover up for missing lexial item". In example **(19)** below, **I (11)** could not remember the word "**sky**" instead; she used "weather", which was an overgeneralized term for sky.

Example (19)

I (10): On the top of the corner, there is a part of tree (pause) Can you find it?

I (11): Left or right?

I (10) Right, ok?

I (11): Then again a part of tree and (uhm..) blue (pause) (uhm..) (uhm) [16]***weather*** (uhm) (uhm) a part of weather and under the tree there is grass.

2) Paraphrase

In line with Faerch and Kasper's definition, the strategy of "paraphrase" was identified when the learner described or told the functions or the properties of the referent in case of a problem in the communication. In example **(20), I (13)** had difficulty in using the word "stone", therefore he described the functions of the word according to the picture.

---

[16] "Weather" is used instead of sky.

Example (20):

I (12): There is something blue.

I (13): ***Yes, we use it when we walk.*** (pause) ***when we don't want to*** (uhm) ***press the grass***.[17]

I (12): Grass?

I (13): Grass. ***We walk on them***.

3) Word Coinage:

In line with Faerch and Kasper's definition, the researcher identified the strategy of "word coinage" when the learner created a new word instead of the missing one in the target language. In example **(21)** below, the learner could not remember the word "**twins**", instead she created a new word "**twices**".

Example (21)

I (14): What is it near the window?

I (15): Near the window, there is a (uhm..) there is two (uhmm.) (pause). I think they are [18]***twices***. One of them is wearing blue (uhm..) blue t-shirt and there is a heart on it. And one of them is wearing green t-shirt.

[17] Interlocutor tries to describe the stones on the grass in the picture.
[18] "twices" is used instead of twins"

4) Restructuring

The strategy of "restructuring" was identified when the learner reconstructed his/her message in case of a difficulty in communication. In example **(22)** below, I **(17)** reconstructed his sentence in order to explain "**wooden house**".

Example (22):

I (16): Which house? Can you explain it?

I (17): (uhm) (pause)

I (16): What does it look like?

I (17): ***It is from*** (uhm..). ***It is from*** (uhm..) (pause). ***Ok, I think it is a wooden house***. And you can see right top of the corner window (pause) and under the house you can see two people (pause).

5) Use of all purpose words:

According to Dörnyei (1995), when learners face difficulty in communication, they want to gain time in order to find the appropriate structure. Therefore, they extend a general "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking. (The overuse of ***thing, stuff, make, do*** as well as words like ***thingie, what-do-you-call-it, I can't work, I can't work until you repair my...thing***). This problem solving strategy enables the learners to signal the interlocutor that the communication channel is open. Since the main aim of the achievement strategies is defined as "to solve problems in the planning phase due to insufficient linguistic resources (Faerch and Kasper 1983, p.46) the researcher adopted and considered this strategy as a category of achievement strategies. Different from Dörnyei (1997), the identification of this strategy was

restricted to empty lexical items such as: ***something, thing*** in the current study. In example **(23)** below, **I (19)** lacked the word "**gloves**", instead he used the empty lexical item "**something**" to compensate his lack of knowledge. In example **(24)**, **I (20)** did not remember the word "**blanket**", instead he used the empty lexical item "***thing***".

Example (23):

I (18): Is there anything in his hand?

I (19): Yes, there is (uhm) ***something.*** (uhm) ***something.*** (uhm) it's yellow but (uhm) like black. It's ***something*** (laughs)

Example (24):

I (20): Near the television, there is a (pause) (uhm), there is a funny man. It has (pause) red shoes and he's lying. He's lying on a pink (pause) ***thing***.

D) Exemplification

The strategy of "exemplification" was considered as a subcategory of the strategy of "paraphrase" in Faersch and Kasper's (1983) classification. However, in this study it is identified as a separate strategy in this study. According to Faerch and Kasper's definition (1983), the learner finds a hyponomic expression instead of the missing lexical item by using the strategy of "exemplification". Since the learners used examples from the target language, Faerch and Kasper (1983) considered this strategy as interlanguage based strategy. However, in the current study, both BLLs and MLLs used examples from L1 (Turkish). As can be seen in example **(25)**, in order to describe a character in the task, **I (21)** gave an example from Turkish "***atom karınca***".

Similarly in example **(26)**, **I (24)** described the colors of "bucket" by giving the example from Turkish "***galatasaray***". Therefore, the strategy of "**exemplification**" was considered as L1 (Turkish) based strategy in this study.

Example (25):

I (21): he looks like ***atom karınca***. He has a cowboy hat (uhm) a brown cowboy hat. And he is smiling.

I (22): OK. OK.

Example (26):

I (23): Which cup?

I (24): Its colors is..(uhm) (uhm) like "***galatasaray***" colors (laughs) OK?

I (23): OK (laughs).

E) Cooperative Strategies

According to Faerch and Kasper (1983), the learner uses cooperative strategies to indicate a problem and require the interlocutor's assistance. The learners in Faerch and Kasper's (1983) study used cooperative strategies only in the target language (English). However, in the current study, the researcher identified the use of cooperative strategies both by MLLs and BLLs in Turkish as well as in English. Therefore, the cooperative strategies in this study were analyzed in two subcategories as: cooperative strategies (English) and cooperative strategies (Turkish).

1) Cooperative Strategies (English)

i) Direct appeal:

Example (27):

I (25): There is a animal (uhm). It's big (uhm). Nose, no, no. Grey (pause). On the left (uhm). ***Do you know the name of it?***

I (26): On the left?

I (25): Yes, left, big. (uhm) (uhm) very big (laughs).

I (26): Elephant?

I (25): Yes, yes.

ii) Indirect appeal:

Example (28):

I (27): Does it have hands?

I (28): Yes, he has white (pause) he has something (uhm) white (pause) on his hand. ***I don't know its name***.

2) Cooperative Strategies (Turkish): The researcher first classified Turkish cooperative strategies as "sentential level CSW". However, she noticed that some of these "sentential level" CSW served the function of demanding help from the interlocutor in Turkish and they were satisfying the definition given by Faerch and Kasper (1983) for "cooperative strategies". Therefore, the researcher classified some of the "sentential level" CSW, which served the function of demanding help from the

interlocutor as "cooperative strategies" in Turkish. Below are the examples of "direct appeal" and "indirect appeal" in Turkish.

i) Direct Appeal:

Example (29):

I (29): Where are the big shoes?

I (30): On the left, I think. In the center, on the left. Near the television, I think. He was watching TV but (pause) there is a (uhm) [19]***hamak neydi?*** (laughs)

I (29): (laughs).

ii) Indirect appeal:

Example (30):

I (31): There is a...I think there is a bird next to the (pause) tree. Between the tree and the house. I think it's female. It's wearing (uhm) (uhm) a yellow (pause) ***anlamını bilmiyorum.***

Above were the examples for the classification of CSs used by MLLs and BLLs in this study. In line with the aims of the first and second research questions, these CSs were also classified according to the languages they were based on. Faerch and Kasper (1983) classified CSs in two main groups as: "L1 based CSs" and "Interlanguage based CSs". In the present study, CSs are based on three different languages: L1 based CS (Turkish), Interlanguage based CS (English) and L2 based CSs (German/French). Grouping these CSs as "L1", "L2" and "interlanguage based"

[19] "What is hammock?" in English.

CSs would have caused misunderstandings since, L2 was English for MLLs but L2 was German/French and L3 was English for BLLs. In order to prevent misunderstandings, the researcher classified the categories of CSs according to the languages they were based on as the following: CS-T (Turkish based CSs), CS-E (English based CSs) and CS-G/F (German/French based CSs). In line with the aims of the first and second research questions, the categories of CSs classified according to language groups are presented below.

CS of "generalization", "paraphrase", "use of all purpose words" "restructuring" "word coinage" and "cooperative strategies" were classified as English based CSs (CS-E), which were used both by MLLs and BLLs.

English based CSs (CS-E)						
EFL Learners	Generalization	Paraphrase	Use of All Purpose Words	Restructuring	Word Coinage	Cooperative Strategies
MLLs	*	*	*	*	*	*
BLLs	*	*	*	*	*	*

Turkish based CS (CS-T) included CS of "code switching" (single word and sentential levels), "literal translation", "exemplification" and "cooperative strategies", which were used both by MLLs and BLLs.

Turkish based CSs (CS-T)				
EFL Learners	Code switching (Turkish)	Literal Translation	Exemplification	Cooperative Strategies
MLLs	*	*	*	*
BLLs	*	*	*	*

BLLs only used CS of "code switching" as German/French based CSs. MLLs did not use any German/French based CSs since they did not know German/French.

German/French based CSs	
EFL Learners	Code switching (German/French)
MLLs	
BLLs	*

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Results

In this part of the study, the findings of the following research questions will be presented:

1) Are there any differences/similarities between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of total number of CSs they used in interaction in the target language?

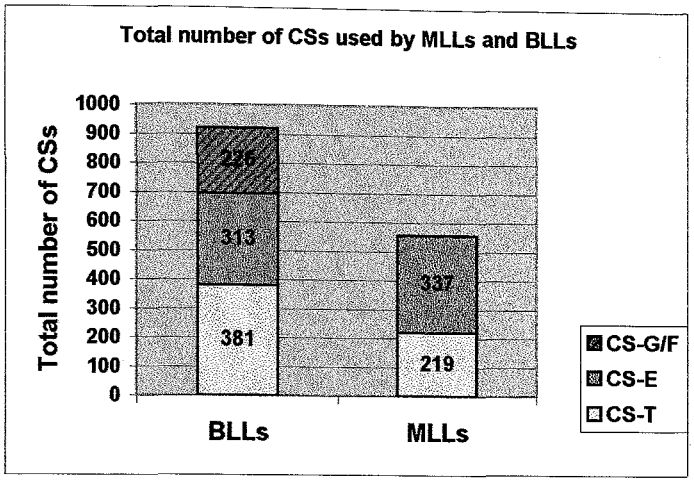
2) Are there any differences/similarities between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of their choice of language in using CSs in interaction in the target language?

3) Are there any differences/similarities between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of the categories of CSs they used in interaction in the target language?

SPSS 9.05 (The Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used for the statistical analysis of the data. Descriptive statistics and independent samples test (t-test) were used to calculate differences between MLLs and BLLs in terms of CSs use in this study. The level of significance was accepted as $p < .05$.

1) Are there any differences/similarities between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of total number of CSs they used in interaction in the target language?

Figure I



a) Figure I above, indicates the difference between MLLs and BLLs in terms of total number of strategies used by each group. According to the results, BLLs used more CSs than MLLs in terms of total number of CSs (BLL=920> MLL=556). The total number of CSs used by BLLs was calculated by adding CS-T (381), CS-E (313), CS-G/F (226). Similarly, the total number of CSs used by MLLs was calculated by adding CS-T (219) and CS-E (337).

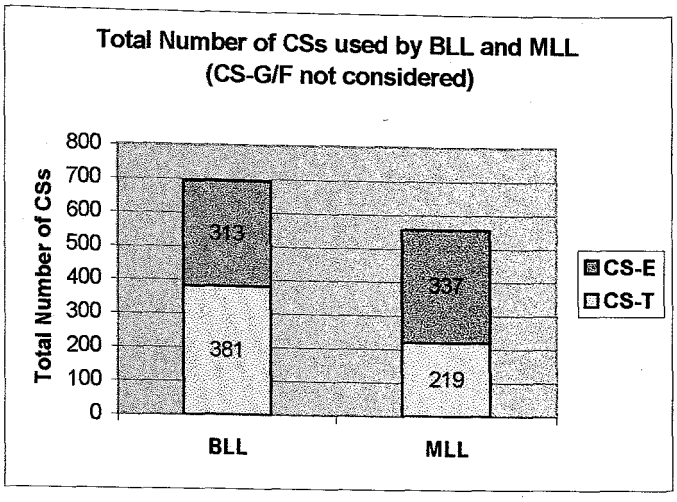
Table Ia

The use of CSs by MLLs and BLLs in terms of total number of CSs Used					
EFL Learners	Total	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum
MLLs	556	18	12.48	4	49
BLLs	920	30.67	18.24	6	94

Table Ia displays the results of descriptive statistics. As can be seen, the mean of CSs used by BLLs was higher than the mean of CSs used by MLL (BLL=30.67>MLL=18). Later, t-test aiming to find the difference between the means of the CSs used by both groups was calculated. The results revealed that this difference between the means of BLLs and MLLs was statistically significant ($p= .004$, $p<.05$, Table Ib in Appendix VII). In terms of minimum scores, both groups were similar (BLL=4, MLL=6). However, the maximum number of CSs used by BLLs was higher than by the maximum number of CSs used by MLL (BLL=94>MLL=49).

b) MLLs did not use CS-G/F. Therefore, the researcher also investigated whether there was a statistically significant difference between BLLs and MLLs in terms of total number of CSs used, when CS-G/F was excluded from the total number of CSs used by BLLs. As can be seen in Figure II below BLLs still used more CSs than MLLs even when CS-G/F was excluded from the total number of CSs used by BLLs (BLL=694> MLL=556).

Figure II



As shown in Table IIa, the total number of CSs for BLLs decreased to 694, when CS-G/F was not included in the calculation. In line with the decrease in the total number of CSs, the mean scores for BLLs also changed when CS-G/F was excluded from the calculations. (Total=694, Mean=23.13). The scores for MLLs did not change since they did not use CS-G/F. (Total=556, Mean=18). Although the mean of CSs for BLLs was higher than the mean of CSs for MLLs, the difference between these means was no longer statistically significant ($p= .207$, $p< .05$; See Table IIb in Appendix VIII). The maximum number of CSs used by BLLs decreased to 68, when CS-G/F was excluded from the total number of CSs.

Table IIa

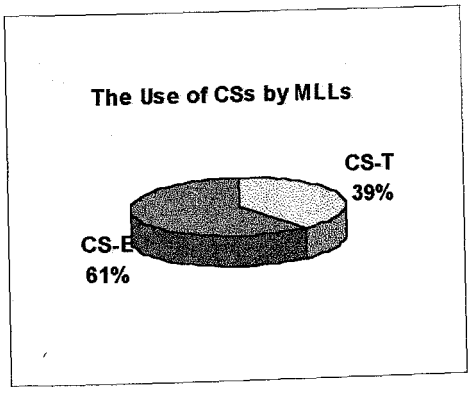
Total number of CSs (CS-G/F not considered)					
EFL Learners	Total	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum
BLLs	694	23.13	15.28	3	68
MLLs	556	18.53	12.47	4	49

2) Are there any differences/similarities between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of their choice of language in using CSs in interaction in the target language?

The second research question investigated the language choice of MLLs and BLLs in using CSs in order to solve problems in interaction in the target language. As explained in "classification of present study" section (p.49), CSs were grouped as: Turkish based CSs (CS-T), English based CSs (CS-E) and German/French based CSs (CS-G/F) in this study.

As presented in Figure III below, MLLs used CS-E (61%) more than CS-T (39%) (Raw results can be seen in Table IIIa below).

Figure III



On the other hand, **Figure IV** below illustrates the use of CSs by BLLs. According to the figure, BLLs used CS-T (41%) the most, then CS-E (34%) and CS-G/F (25%) the least (Raw results can be seen in **Table IIIa** below).

Figure IV

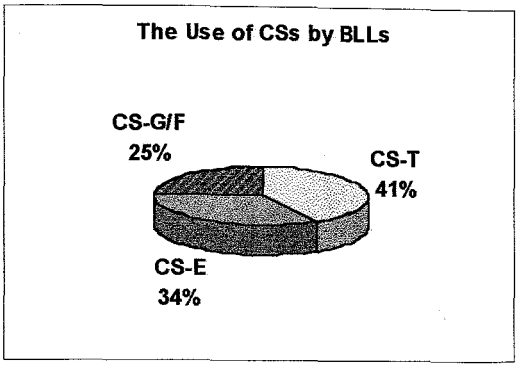


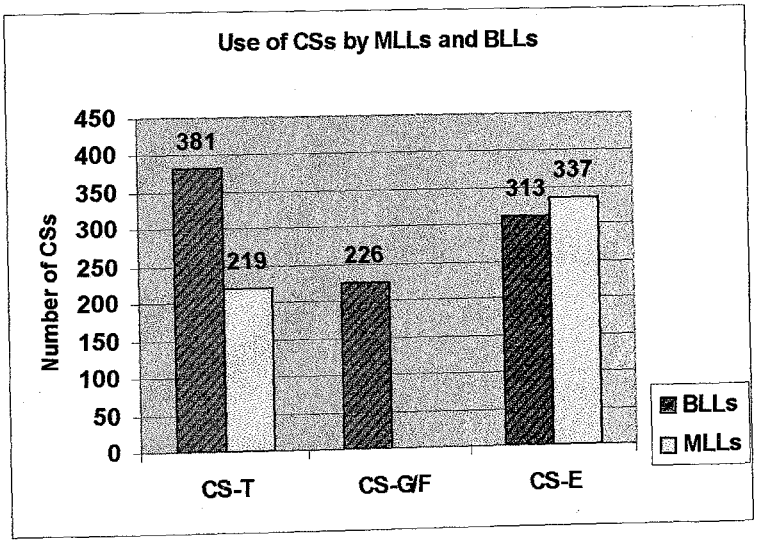
Table IIIa below indicates the descriptive statistics for CSs used by BLLs and MLLs according to the languages the CSs were based on. BLLs used more CS-T than MLLs did (BLLs=381>MLLs=219). However, this difference between BLLs and MLLs was not statistically significant according to t-test results (p= **.068**, p>.05; See **Table IIIb** in Appendix VIII). On the other hand, MLLs used CS-E more than BLLs did (MLLs=337 >BLLs=313). This difference between MLLs and BLLs was not statistically significant, either. (p= **.068**; p> .05, See **Table IIIc** in Appendix VIII). MLLs did not use CS-G/F but BLLs used CS-G/F (226).

Table IIIa

Comparison of CSs used by MLL and BLL							
Language of CSs	EFL Learners	Total	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	Percentage
CS-T	BLLs	381	12.7	13.3	1	56	41%
	MLLs	219	7.3	8.5	0	40	39%
CS-E	BLLs	313	10.43	8.16	1	28	34%
	MLLs	337	11.23	6.76	2	27	61%
CS-G/F	BLLs	226	7.53	8.68	0	30	25%
	MLLs	0	0	0	0	0	0%

Figure V below illustrates the comparison of MLLs and BLLs in terms of the languages that their CSs were based on. MLLs used CS-E more than BLLs did (MLLs=337> BLLs=313). BLLs used CS-T more than MLLs did (BLLs=381> MLLs= 219). MLLs did not use CS-G/F but BLLs did (BLLs= 226).

Figure V



3) Are there any differences/similarities between monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in terms of the categories of CSs they used in interaction in the target language?

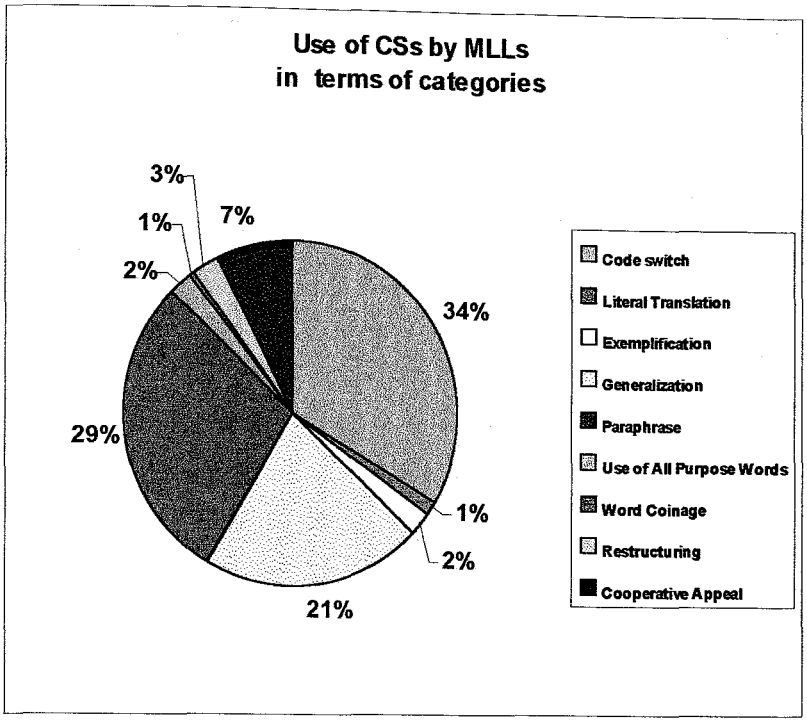
In order to answer this question, the number of CSs in each of the categories used by MLLs and BLLs were counted. Later, the differences/similarities between the two groups of EFL learners were calculated and statistically analyzed.

The results are presented in the following order. First, the use of CSs by MLLs and BLLs according to the percentages of categories is illustrated. Then, differences/similarities between MLLs and BLLs in terms of different CS categories are presented.

Percentages of CS categories used by MLLs and BLLs

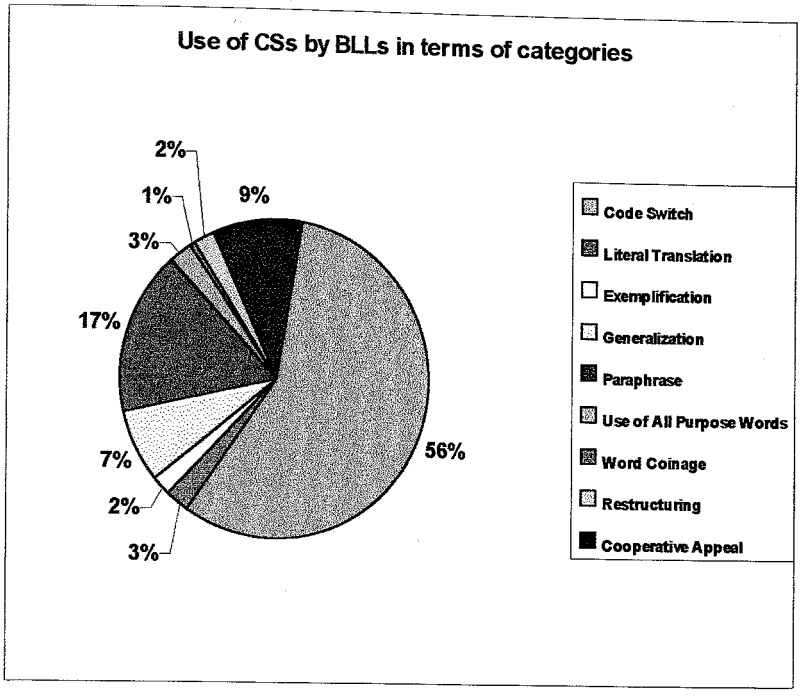
Figures **VIa** and **VIb** illustrate the percentages of each of the categories used by MLLs and BLLs. As shown in Figure **VIa, MLLs** used the CS of **"code switching "** (34%), the CS of **"paraphrase"** (29%) and the CS of **"generalization"** (21%) the most. On the other hand, they used the CS of **"cooperative appeal"** (7%), the CS of **"restructuring"** (3%), the CS of **"exemplification"** (2%), the CS of **"use of all purpose words"** (2%), the CS of **"literal translation"** (1%), and the CS of **"word coinage"** (1%) very rarely.

Figure VIa



As presented in **Figure VIb**, BLLs used the CS of **"code switching"** (56%) the CS of **"paraphrase"** (17%) the most. However, the CS of **"cooperative appeal"** (9%), the CS of **"generalization"** (7%), the CS of **"literal translation"** (6%), the CS of **"use of all purpose words"** (6%), the CS of **"exemplification"** (2%), the CS of **"restructuring"** (2%) and the CS of **"word coinage"** (1%) very rarely.

Figure VIb



The differences/similarities between MLLs and BLLs in terms of CSs categories

Code switching

As explained in the "classification of the present study" section (p.49), CS of "**code switching**" was analyzed in two subcategories as: single word and sentential level CSW. Both MLLs and BLLs code switched from L1 (Turkish) at single word and sentence levels. However, BLLs only code switched from English (German/French) at single word level. Therefore, the examples of CSW from the transcribed data were analyzed in three

steps: "single word CSW", "sentential CSW" and CS of "CSW" (single word and sentence level together).

Table IVa

CS of "code switching" at single word level									
EFL Learners	Turkish	German/French	Total	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Percentage
MLLs	172	0	172	0	0	6.4	9	1.7	32%
BLLs	224	226	450	40	40	15	12.1	2.2	48%

Table **IVa** above indicates the descriptive statistics for single word CSW. At single word level, MLLs only code switched from Turkish (172) as expected, since MLLs did not know any other language. However, BLLs code switched both from Turkish (224) and German/French (226) at single word level. In total, BLLs code switched more than MLLs at single word level (BLLs=450>MLLs=172). Although the minimum and maximum numbers of single word CSW were identical for MLLs and BLLs, the mean of "code switch" CS for BLLs was higher than BLLs ($BLLs_{MEAN}$=15>$MLLs_{MEAN}$=6.4).

Table IVb

CS of "code switching" at sentencial level								
EFL learners	Turkish	German/French	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std. Error	Percentage
MLLs	13	0	0	6	0.93	2.00	0.36	2%
BLLs	72	0	0	14	2.40	4.65	0.85	4%

As can be seen in Table **IVb**, BLLs used sentential level CSW into Turkish more than MLLs did (BLLs=72>MLLs=13). The mean number of the sentential CSW for BLLs was also higher than MLLs (BLLs=2.40>MLLs=0.93). However, differently from "single word CSW", BLLs did not code switch from English to their L2 (German/French) at sentential level.

Figure VII below indicates the use of "code switching" CS (single word and sentential levels) by MLLs and BLLs. BLLs code switched to Turkish (296) and German/French (226), whereas MLLs code switched only to Turkish (185).

Figure VII

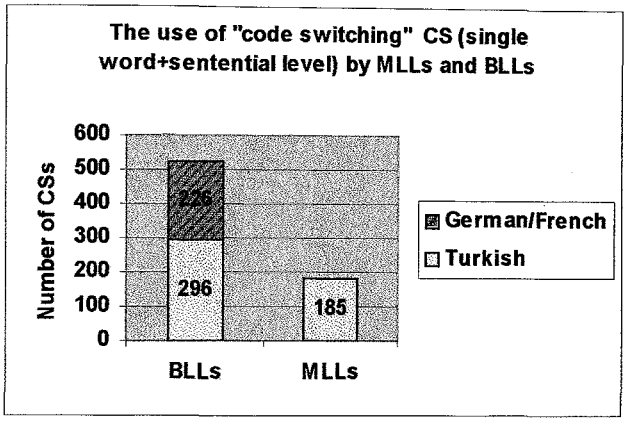


Table Va below indicates the descriptive statistics for CS of "code switching" (single word and sentence level together). BLLs used CS of "code switching" more than MLLs did (BLLs=522>MLLs=185). The mean for BLLs was also higher than the mean for MLLs (BLLs=17.40>MLLs=6.17). This difference between the means of MLLs and BLLs was also statistically significant according to t-test results (p= **.001**; p<.05; See **Table Vb** in Appendix IX).

Table Va

CS of "code switching" (single word and sentencial levels)									
EFL learners	Turkish	German/French	Total	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std. Error	Percentage
MLLs	185	0	185	0	40	6.17	8.65	1.58	34%
BLLs	296	226	522	0	59	17.40	14.54	2.66	56%

Literal Translation

Figure VIII below, indicates the use of "literal translation" CS by MLLs and BLLs in the current study. As can be seen in the figure, BLLs used "literal translation" more than MLLs did (BLLs=23>MLLs=8).

Figure VIII

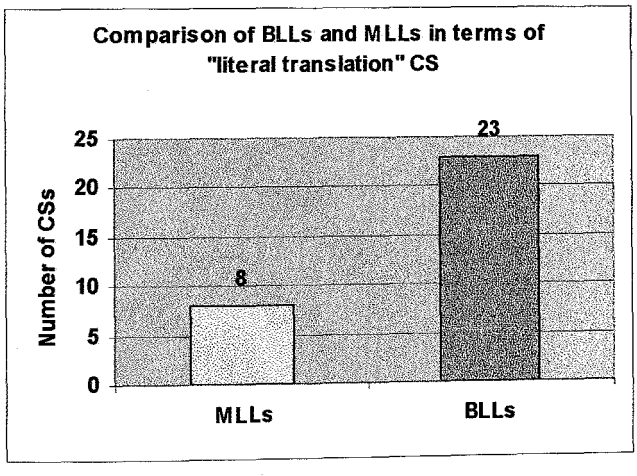


Table VIa below, illustrates the descriptive statistics for "literal translation" CS. The minimum and maximum numbers for "literal translation" are same for MLLs and BLLs. There is a difference in terms of means between the two groups ($BLLs_{MEAN}$=0.77>$MLLs_{MEAN}$=0.27). However, this difference between the means between the groups is not statistically significant according to t-test scores (p=**0.111**, p<.05; See **Table VIb** in Appendix IX).

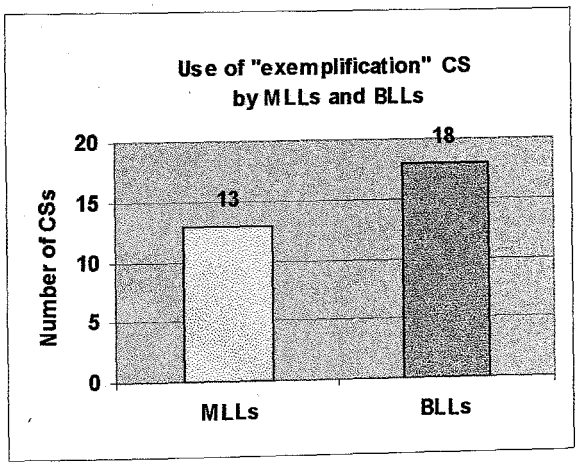
Table VIa

The Use of "literal translation" CS by MLLs and BLLs							
EFL Learners	Total	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Percentage in overall use of CSs
MLLs	8	0	8	0.27	0.52	0.10	1%
BLLs	23	0	8	0.77	1.59	0.29	3%

Exemplification

As illustrated in **Figure IX** below, BLLs used "exemplification" CS more than MLLs did (BLLs=18>MLLs=13).

Figure IX



According to descriptive statistics in **Table VIIa**, MLLs and BLLs are similar in terms of minimum and maximum numbers for this CSs. The mean of "exemplification" CS for BLLs is higher than the mean of "exemplification" CS for MLLs. ($BLLs_{MEAN}$=0.60> $MLLs_{MEAN}$=0.43). However, this difference between the means of the two groups is not statistically significant (p= .508, p< .05; See **Table VIIb** in Appendix IX).

Table VIIa

The Use of "exemplification" CS by BLLs and MLLs							
EFL Learners	Total	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Percentage in overall CSs Use
MLLs	13	0	4	0.43	1.01	0.18	2%
BLLs	18	0	3	0.60	0.93	0.17	2%

Generalization

As indicated in **Figure X,** BLLs used the CS of **"generalization"** more than MLLs did. (BLLs=118>MLLs=67).

Figure X

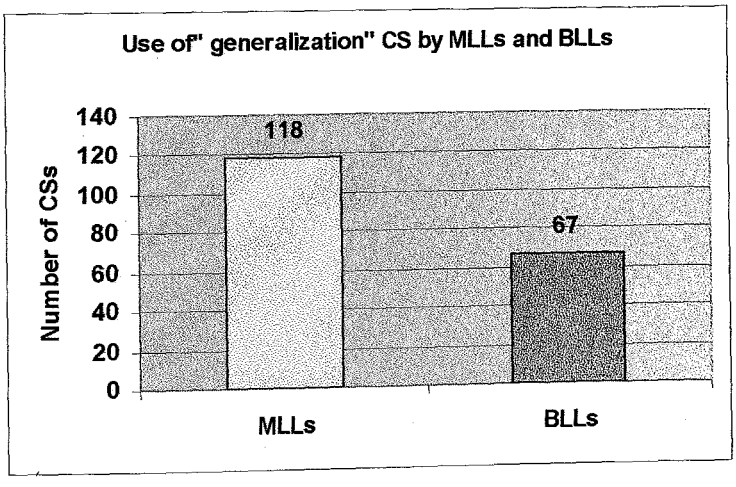


Table VIIIa below indicates the descriptive statistics for "generalization" CS. Although the minimum number of "generalization" CS was same for BLLs and MLLs, the maximum number of "generalization" CS for MLLs was higher than BLLs (MLLs=118>BLLs=67). Similarly, the mean of "generalization" CS was higher for MLLs than BLLs. This difference was also statistically significant according to t-test results (p= **.04**, p<.05; See **Table VIIIb** in Appendix X).

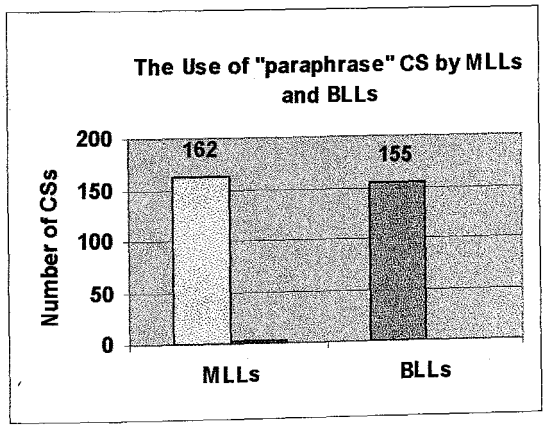
Table VIIIa

Use of "generalization" CS by MLLs and BLLs						
EFL Learners	Total	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Percetage in overall CSs
MLLs	118	0	17	3.81	0.69	21%
BLLs	67	0	9	2.39	0.44	8%

Paraphrase

As indicated in **Figure XI** below, BLLs used the CS "paraphrase" more than MLLs did (BLLs=162>MLLs=148).

Figure XI



Descriptive statistics in **Table IXa** indicates that the minimum number of "paraphrase" CS used by MLLs is 0, whereas the minimum number for BLLs is 1. On the other hand, the maximum number of CSs used by MLLs is 17 while the maximum number for BLLs is 14. The mean of "paraphrase" CS for MLLs is higher than the mean for BLLs ($MLLs_{MEAN}$=5.17>$BLLs_{MEAN}$=4.93). However, these differences between the two groups in terms of means is not statistically significant (p= .841, p<.05; See **Table IXb** in Appendix X).

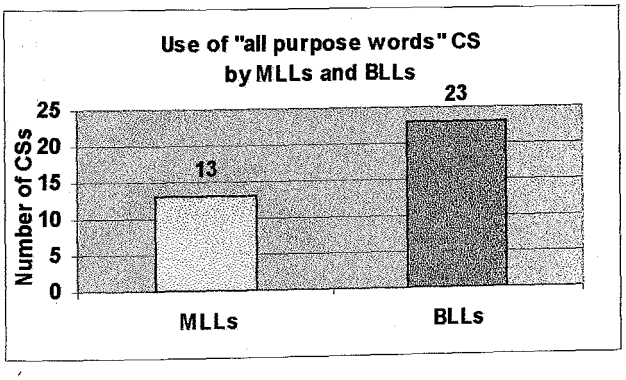
Table IXa

The use of "paraphrase" Cs by MLLs and BLLs							
EFL Learners	Total	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Percentage in overall CSs
MLLs	162	0	17	5.17	3.69	0.67	29%
BLLs	155	1	14	4.93	5.14	0.94	16%

Use of All Purpose Words

As can be seen in **Figure XII**, BLLs used "use of all purpose words" CS more than MLLs did (BLLs=23>MLLs=13).

Figure XII



According to the descriptive statistics in **Table Xa**, the minimum number of "use of all purpose words" CS was same for MLLs and BLLs. However, the maximum number was higher for BLLs than MLLs. (BLL_{MAX}=8>MLL_{MAX}=5). Similarly, the mean of "generalization" CS was higher for BLLs than MLLs ($BLLs_{MEAN}$=0.77>$MLLs_{MEAN}$=0.43). However, this difference was not statistically significant according to t-test results (p=.77, p<.05; See **Table Xb** in Appendix XI).

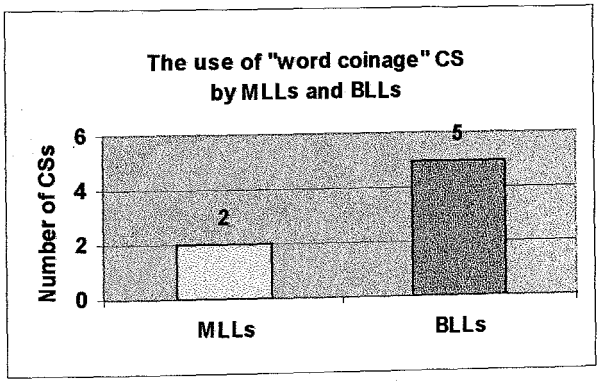
Table Xa

The Use of "use of all purpose words" by MLLs and BLLs							
EFL Learners	**Total**	**Minimum Number**	**Maximum Number**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Std. Error Mean**	**Percentage in overall CSs**
MLLs	13	0	8	0.43	1.48	0.27	2%
BLLs	23	0	5	0.77	1.22	0.22	3%

Word Coinage

Figure XIII below indicates the use of "word coinage" CS by MLLs and BLLs. BLLs used the CS of "word coinage" more than MLLs did (BLLs=5>MLLs=2).

Figure XIII



Descriptive statistics of this strategy is presented in **Table XI** below. According to the table, minimum and maximum number of "word coinage" CS use is similar for MLLs and BLLs. The mean for BLLs in terms of "word coinage" CS was higher than the mean for MLLs ($BLLs_{MEAN}$=0.017>$MLLs_{MEAN}$=0.03). However, this difference in terms of means was not statistically significant according to t-test results (p= .090, p<.05; See **Table XIb** in Appendix X).

Table XIa

The use of "word coinage" CS by MLLs and BLLs							
EFL Learners	Total	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Percentage in overall CS
MLLs	2	0	1	0.03	0.18	0.03	1%
BLLs	5	0	1	0.17	0.38	0.07	1%

Restructuring:

As indicated in **Figure XIV**, BLLs used more CSs than MLLs (BLLs=21>MLLs=9).

Figure XIV

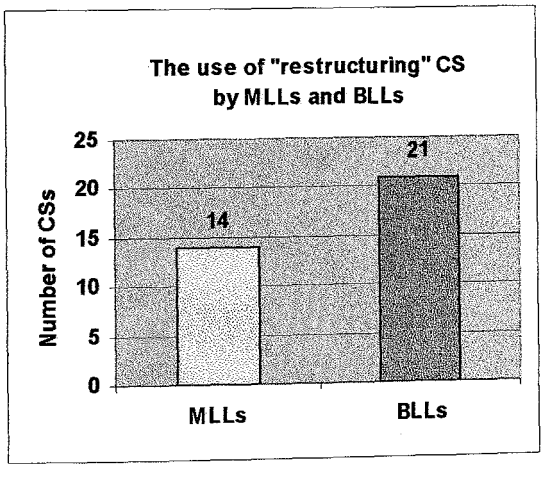


Table XIIa indicates the use of "restructuring" CS by MLLs and BLLs in terms of descriptive statistics. The maximum number of "restructuring" use was higher for BLLs than MLLs (BLLs=0.7>MLLs=0.3). Also, the mean for BLLs in terms of "restructuring" Cs was higher than MLLs ($BLLs_{MEAN}$=0.7>$MLLs_{MEAN}$=0.3). However, this difference was not statistically significant according to t-test scores (p= .122, p<.05; See **Table XIIb** in Appendix XII).

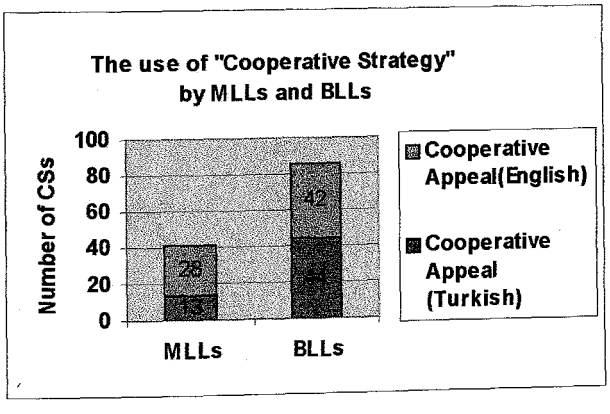
Table XIIa

The use of "restructuring" CS by MLLs and BLLs							
EFL Learners	Total	Minimum Number	Maximum Number	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Percentage in overall CSs
MLLs	14	0	4	0.3	0.60	0.11	3%
BLLs	21	0	6	0.7	1.26	0.23	2%

Cooperative Strategy

As indicated in **Figure XV**, both MLLs and BLLs used "Cooperative Strategy" in two languages (Turkish and English) in the current study ($BLLs_{Turkish}$=44, $BLLs_{English}$=42; $MLLs_{Turkish}$=13, $BLLs_{English}$=28).

Figure XV



As illustrated in **Table XIIIa**, BLLs used more "cooperative strategy" than MLLs did in total (BLLs=86> MLLs=41). Also, the mean for BLLs was higher than MLLs (BLLs=2.87>MLLs=1.37). According to t-test results, this difference between MLLs and BLLs was statistically significant (p= **.034**, p< .05 ; See **Table XIIIb** in Appendix XII).

When the two groups were compared according to the languages, it was found that BLLs used more "cooperative strategy" in Turkish than in English (Coop.St. $_{TURKISH}$=44>Coop.St.$_{ENGLISH}$=42). On the other hand, MLLs used more "cooperative strategy" in English than Turkish (Coop. St.$_{ENGLISH}$=28>Coop. St.$_{TURKISH}$=13).

Table XIIIa

Use of "cooperative strategy" by MLLs and BLLs							
EFL Learners	**Cooperative CS (Turkish)**	**Cooperative CS (English)**	**Total**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Std. Error Mean**	**Percentage**
MLLs	13	28	41	1.37	1.90	0.35	7%
BLLs	44	42	86	2.87	3.26	0.59	10%

3.2 Discussion

In this study, the researcher analyzed the differences and similarities between MLLs and BLLs in their use of CSs in terms of three different perspectives: total number of CSs used, the language choice of CSs used and different categories of CSs used.

The first research question investigated the differences/similarities between BLLs and MLLs in terms of total number of CSs used. The researcher counted the CSs used by BLLs (CS-T+CS-E+CS-G/F) and MLLs (CS-T+CS-E) in order to find out the total number of strategies. According to the results, BLLs (920) used more CSs than MLLs (556) did. (See **Table Ia,** p.65). This difference was also statistically significant. **(p=.004,** See **Table Ib** Appendix VII).

There can be two reasons for this statistically significant difference between MLLs and BLLs in terms of total number of CSs used. First of all, BLLs and MLLs used different language based CSs when they faced a problem during interaction in the target language. MLLs used CS-T and CS-E, whereas BLLs used CS-G/F in addition to CS-T and CS-E. In order to see whether CS-G/F had any influence on the difference between BLLs and MLLs in terms of total number of CSs used, a further analysis was carried out. When CS-G/F (226) was not included in the calculation of the total number of CSs used by BLLs, BLL (694) still used more CSs than MLLs (556) (See **Table IIa,** p.67). However, this difference was no longer statistically significant (p=.207, See **Table IIb** in Appendix

VII). Therefore, it can be deduced that the use of CS-G/F by BLLs caused the statistically significant difference between BLLs and MLLs in terms of the total number of CSs used.

Singleton (1987) supports this interpretation of the results by arguing that multilingual learners of a target language borrow linguistic resources from other languages they know in order to compensate for the linguistic deficiencies in the target language. This is the case in the current study as well. MLLs only used their CS-T and CS-E, when faced a problem during interaction in the target language. On the other hand, BLLs used their CS-G/F as well as their CS-T and CS-E. Knowing an extra language besides their first language provided BLLs more alternatives when they faced communication problems in the target language. Therefore, the use of CS-G/F increased the total number of CSs used by BLLs. Example **(32)** below illustrates the use of CSs by BLL in interaction with an MLL in English. **I (33)** was a BLL and **I (32)** was an MLL. As can be seen in the example, **I (33)** first tried to explain "hair pin" by using an CS-E (***women wear it on hair***, paraphrase). Secondly, in order to explain "belt" **I (33)** first, code switched to German by using a CS-G/F (***gürtel***, code switch- German). However noticing that **I (32)** had difficulty in understanding this strategy, **I (33)** used a CS-T (***kemer***, code switch-Turkish).

Example (31):

I (32): Where?

I (33): Under it (uhm) under this part, kind of mother. Mother has got big (uhm) (laughs)

I (32): What?

I (33): (uhm) Mother has got a big (uhm) ***(uhm) women wear it on hair*** and pink clothes with (uhm.) ***gürtel***[20] (uhm).

I (32): What?

I (33): ***kemer..kemer***[20]. (laughs)

Example **(32)** indicates the use of CSs by an MLL in interaction with a BLL. **I (34)** is an MLL and **I (35)** is a BLL. **I (34)** tried to explain, "bush" to his partner. However, he had difficulty in getting his meaning across because of his lack of vocabulary. He compensated this lack of vocabulary by using CS-E (***you can see a green (uhm) green small (uhm.) it looks like a small tree***, paraphrase) and CS-T (***çalı***, code switching).

Example (32):

I (34): There is a tree and you can see the leaves. Green leaves. And, then there is a rope.

I (35): Rope?

I (34): Rope. Yes.

I (35): Can you explain it?

I (34): It is a yellow rope (pause) and (pause) and (uhm) under it, ***you can see a green (uhm) green small (uhm.) it looks like a small tree.***

I (35): Green?

---

[20] "bélt" in German
[20] "belt" in English

I (34): Yes, green. (uhm) (uhm) ***çalı...çalı*** (laughs)

As illustrated in the examples above, a BLL could choose CSs from three different languages (**CS-T, CS-E, CS-G/F),** whereas an MLL could chose CSs from only two languages (**CS-T** and **CS-E**) when they faced problematic situations in the target language (English). Therefore, the total number of CSs used by BLLs was higher than MLLs.

Secondly, according to a group of studies (Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Chen, 1990), the frequency of the use of CSs depended on the proficiency level of EFL learners in the way that high proficiency EFL learners employed less CSs than low proficiency EFL learners. Based on these findings, it was proposed that low proficiency EFL learners face more problems in communication because of their limited knowledge in the target language and they have to compensate this lack of knowledge by employing more CSs. Although both BLLs and MLLs were placed at intermediate level classes in the current study, there were differences in terms of the distribution of the MTEP scores between groups. Most of the BLL scores were between 40-49, whereas most of the MLL scores were between 50-59. According to MTEP scores then, BLLs can be considered to be less proficient in comparison to MLLs. Although the influence of the proficiency level on the use of CSs was not the main concern of this study, BLLs might have faced more problems because of their lower proficiency during interaction in the target language. Therefore, they might have used more CSs.

The second research question investigated the language choice of MLLs and BLLs in using CSs in order to solve problems in interaction in the target language.

According to the results, MLLs employed CS-E more than CS-T (CS-E=337>CS-T=219, See **Table IIIa,** p.69). On the other hand, BLLs employed CS-T the most, then CS-E and CS-G/F the least (CS-T=381>CS-E=337>CS-G/F=226, See **Table IIIa,** p.69).

In a previous study investigating the language choice of EFL learners in using CSs, Chen (1990) found that Chinese EFL learners (both high proficiency and low proficiency) employed L1 (Chinese) based CSs less than English based CSs. Chen (1990) explained his findings in line with Kellerman's (1977) "typological relatedness" view between the two languages. According to this claim, transfer between the two languages is influenced by the learners' perception of the "typological relatedness" between the two languages. EFL learners in Chen's (1990) study employed less L1 (Chinese) based CSs since Chinese is typologically distant from English.

However, Kellerman's (1977) "typological relatedness" view does not explain the language choice of MLLs and BLLs in using CSs in this study. Turkish is typologically distant from English, in the way that Turkish is from Altaic language family, it is an agglutinative language and has SOV word order (Kornfilt, 1990). On the other hand, English is from Indo-European language family, it is an inflectional language and has an SVO word order (Finegan, 1990). Considering Kellerman's (1977) view and Chen's (1990) findings, EFL learners were expected to use less CS-T than CS-E in this study.

However, only MLLs employed less CS-T (219) than CS-E (337) while, BLLs employed more CS-T (381) than CS-E (337) (See **Table IIIa,** p.69) although both MLLs and BLLs were native Turkish speakers in this study. The reason for these differences between MLL and BLL in using CSs can be the distribution of scores for both groups in MTEP, rather than the "typological relatedness" view. According to the MTEP scores, most of the MLL scores accumulated between 50-59, whereas most BLL scores accumulated between 40-49. BLLs can be considered to include less proficient EFL learners in comparison to EFL learners in MLLs. Therefore, the less proficient group in English (BLLs) employed less CS-E and more CS-T, whereas the more proficient group in English (MLLs) employed more CS-E and less CS-T.

This finding is also in line with the results of the studies carried out by Bialystok (1983) and Paribakht (1985). Both Bialystok (1983) and Pairibakht (1985) found that the low proficiency level learners in the target language employed L1 based CSs more than L2 based CSs. Moreover, Paribakht (1985) also stated that the language learners used more L2 based CSs during communication as their proficiency level in the target language increased.

When the language choice of BLLs was investigated separately, it was found that BLLs employed CS-T (381) the most, then CS-E (337) and CS-G/F (226) the least (See **Table IIIa,** p.69). According to Kellerman (1977), "if the learner perceives that the target language "a" is closer to "b", he/she transfers between target languages rather than from native language" (p.95). When the languages used by BLLs were analyzed, it was found that Turkish is typologically distant from English. However, German and French are

typologically similar to English. German and French are inflectional languages with SVO word order and they also belong to Indo-European Language Family (Hawkins, 1990; Green, 1990). Therefore, BLLs were expected to use CS-G/F than CS-T, while communicating in English. However, the opposite was true for BLLs in this study.

This contrast can be explained in two ways. First of all, the proficiency levels of BLLs in their second languages (German/French) could not be identified clearly. Although all BLLs received German/ French medium instruction for 7/8 years, they are native speakers of Turkish and they learned their L2 (German/French) in an academic setting in Turkey. Therefore, they might not be proficient enough to use their L2 (German /French) as expected. Since Turkish was their native language, they could have preferred using CS-T rather than CS-G/F, while communicating in the target language.

Secondly, sociolinguistic variables could have influenced the less use of CS-G/F by BLL. Blum and Gumperz (1972) identified four situational factors, which affect the language selection of adult discourse patterns as: participants (i.e., relatives, friends, age, sex etc.), setting (i.e., discourse in different social settings like school, work, home), discourse type (i.e., conversation, interview, ceremony etc.) and topic (i.e., culture related topics, holidays, business schools, etc.). Investigating the effects of these sociolinguistic variables on bilingual children's speech, Stavans (1992) found that children take participant's linguistic background into consideration, which affects the quantity and type of switches between languages.

In this study, BLLs were aware that their partners were native Turkish speakers but BLLs were not informed whether their partners (MLLs) knew L2 (German/French) or not. However, noticing that their partners did not know German/French, some BLLs switched to CS-T when CS-G/F did not work to get their meanings across (See **example 33** below).

Example (33)

I (36): Which animal?

I (37): It is under tree. (uhm) white hat and (pause) (uhm) (uhm) I think he wear a hat with ***ohr phones***[21]

I (36): What?

I (37): German, German.(laughs)

I (36): ***İyi de*** (laughs). I don't know German.

I (37):*Pardon pardon.* (uhm) ear but (uhm) (pause). ***kulaklık var işte kafasında***(laughs).

I (36):OK. OK. I found it.

In the above example, interlocutor **I (36)** was MLL, whereas interlocutor **I (37)** was BLL-G. Trying to explain the word "**ear phones**", **I (37)** first attempted to use CS-G by code switching (**ohr phones=ear phones**) from his L2 (German). However, **I (37)** noticed that this strategy did not work to maintain the flow of communication going, since his partner

[21] "ear phones" in English

did not know German. Finally, **I (37)** reverted to CS-T since he knew that both of the interlocutors were Turkish natives and use of CS-T would keep the flow of conversation going.

However, the use of CS-G/F by BLLs cannot be generalized because of the limitations in assigning pairs in this study. Different results could have been obtained with BLL-BLL pairs, who shared the same L2 (German/French) background. In that case, BLL-BLL pairs might have used more L2 based CSs (CS-G/F) supporting Kellerman's claim.

In the third research question, the differences and similarities between BLLs and MLLs were investigated according to the categories of CSs used. Statistically significant differences were found between MLLs and BLLs in the CS of "**code switching**", "**generalization**" and "**cooperative strategies**" (code switching= **.001, Table Vb** in Appendix IX; generalization= **.04, Table VIIb** in Appendix IX; cooperative strategies= **.034, Table XIIIb** in Appendix XII). The differences between MLLs and BLLs in the use of other categories were not statistically significant.

According to the analysis of the results, the CS of "code switching" was used more than other CSs both by MLLs and BLLs (BLLs=56%, MLLs=34%, See **Figure VIa** and **VIb,** p.71, 72). This finding is in line with the findings of the study by Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992). Comparing the use of CSs in oral versus written performances of Persian EFL learners, Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992) also found that the CSs of "code switching" was used more than any other CSs. Similarly, Yule and Tarone (1987) stated

that speakers preferred the CS of "code switching" since it required no change in pronunciation and word structure.

When BLLs and MLLs were compared, a statistically significant difference was found in terms of the CS of "code switching" ($p= .001$, $p< .05$; See **Table Vb** in Appendix IX). That is to say, BLLs used CS of "code switching" more than MLLs did (BLLs =522>MLLs=185, See **Table Va,** p.75).

As explained earlier, CS of "code switching" was analyzed at single word and sentential levels in this study. BLLs used single word CSW more than MLLs did (BLLs=450>MLLs=172, See **Table IVa,** p.73). This difference between BLLs and MLLs can be explained by the fact BLLs had two languages (German/French and Turkish) to code switch to. MLLs, on the other hand, had only one language (Turkish) to code switch to. Therefore, BLLs code switched more than MLLs at single word level.

At sentential level, BLLs code switched into Turkish more than MLLs did (BLLs=72>MLLs=13, **Table IVb,** p.73). This result was in parallel with the single word CSW into Turkish. BLLs also code switched into Turkish more than MLLs did at single word level, also (BLLs= 224>MLLs=172, See **Table IVa,** p.73). The reason why BLLs code switched into Turkish more than MLLs at both single and sentential level can be the lower English proficiency of BLLs in comparison to MLLs. As explained earlier, MTEP scores for BLLs accumulated 40-49, whereas MTEP scores for MLLs accumulated between 50-59. This difference in the distribution of MTEP scores might have caused

BLLs to code switch into Turkish more often than MLLs at both single word and sentential levels. However, a further study is required to investigate this issue in depth.

Another finding was that BLLs code switched into German/French only at single word level. This finding can be seen as a support for the result of the second research question, in which German/French based CSs (CS-G/F) were found to have been used less frequently than CS-T and CS-E by BLLs. In the third research question, it was also found that only one category (single word CSW) of CS-G/F was used by BLLs in comparison to the number of categories in CS-T (literal translation, sentential and single word CSW, exemplification, cooperative strategies) and the number of categories in CS-E (generalization, paraphrase, use of all purpose words, literal translation, restructuring, word coinage and cooperative strategies). This result in the third question can be seen as evidence for the claims proposed in second research question. BLLs might not have been as proficient as in their L2 (German/French) as in their L1 (Turkish) or BLLs might have taken the linguistic background of the other interlocutor, who was an MLL, into consideration. Therefore, BLLs code switched to German/French only at single word level but not in sentential level. However, this deduction cannot be generalized since the pairs in this study were only BLL-MLL pairs. A more generalized statement can only be made after analyzing the BLL-BLL pairs in a further study.

According to the results of other categories, BLLs employed CS of "literal translation" (BLLs=23 >MLLs=8; See **Table Va,** p.75), and "exemplification" (BLLs=18>MLLs=13; See **Table VIIa,** p.77) more than MLLs did. As it was explained in "classification of the present study" section (p.49), these CSs are L1 (Turkish) based CSs. The proficiency

level of BLLs in English can explain this difference between MLLs and BLLs in terms of these CSs. Since BLLs were considered to be less proficient than MLLs in English, BLLs might have employed L1 based CSs (code switch-Turkish, literal translation, exemplification) more than MLLs did.

CS of "generalization" was defined as "using a superordinate term or overgeneralization of the problematic lexical item in order to cover up for missing lexical item" (See **Example 19**; p.54) and CS of "paraphrase" was defined as "learners' description of the properties or telling the functions of the referent during a problem in communication (See **Example 20**; p.55). According to the results, MLLs employed both the CSs of "**generalization**" and "**paraphrase**" more than BLLs did ($MLLs_{Generalization}$=118> $MLLs_{Generalization}$==67,**TableVIIa**; $MLLs_{Paraphrase}$=162> $BLLs_{Paraphrase}$=155, **Table IXa,** p.77, 79). In terms of means in the CS of "**generalization**" a statistically significant difference was found (p= **.04**, p=.05; See **Table VIIIb** in Appendix X). The differences between the groups in terms of "**generalization**" and "**paraphrase**" CSs can be explained by the differences in MTEP scores. As explained earlier, MLLs were considered to be more proficient in English than BLLs according to distribution of scores in MTEP. "**Generalization**" and "**paraphrase**" CSs require the EFL learners to compensate their lack of knowledge in the target language by using more target language. Since MLLs were more proficient in English than BLLs, MLLs could have overgeneralized for the problematic item (generalization) or they could have described the properties or told the functions of the missing lexical item (paraphrase) in the target language (English) more than BLLs did.

Although the CSs of "use of all purpose words" and "restructuring" were English based CSs, BLLs employed these CSs more than MLLs did. Below are the explanations for these differences.

The CS of "use of all purpose words" was defined as the extension of a general empty lexical item to lexical contexts where specific words were lacking. "***Something***"and "***thing***" were accepted as empty lexical items in this study. Although it was not a statistically significant difference, BLLs employed CS of "use of all purpose words" more than MLLs did (BLLs=23>MLLs 13, See **Table Xa,** p.80). The less proficiency of BLLs in English in comparison to MLLs can be the cause of difference for this CS. Although BLLs seemed to have compensated their lack of knowledge in English by using lexical items in English (***something***, ***thing***), these were empty lexical items, which did not describe or cover up for the missing lexical item. According to Dörnyei (1995), this CS "helps the speakers gain time to think and keep the communication channel open" (p.178). Hence, it can be interpreted that this CS did not directly solve the communication problem but helped the speakers to gain time to find a solution. As BLLs were considered to be less proficient in English than MLLs, BLLs might have used this CS since they did not have enough English to employ the CS of "**generalization**", which required the speaker to overgeneralize for the problematic item or the CS of "**paraphrase**", which required the speaker to describe or tell the functions of the referent in the target language (English).

Similarly, BLLs employed the CS of "restructuring" more than MLLs did (BLLs=21>MLLs=14, See **Table XIIa,** p.82). The CS of "restructuring" was defined as

the reconstruction of the speakers' message in case of a difficulty in communication. Since BLLs were considered as less proficient in English when compared to MLLs, BLLs might have reconstructed and corrected their utterances more than MLLs did.

"**Cooperative Strategies**" were also used by BLLs more than MLLs did (BLLs=86>MLLs=41, See **Table XIIIa,** p.83). BLLs employed "**Cooperative Strategies**" both in Turkish and English more than MLLs did ($BLLs_{Coop.App.Turkish}$=44 >MLLs $_{Coop.App.Turkish}$=13; $BLLs_{Coop.App.English}$=42>$BLLs_{Coop.App.English}$=28; See **Figure XV,** p.82). This difference between BLLs and MLLs in terms of "**Cooperative Strategies**" was also statistically significant. (p= **.034**, p>.05; See **Table XIIb** in Appendix XII). As explained earlier, BLLs were considered to be less proficient in comparison to MLLs according to MTEP scores. Therefore, BLLs might have demanded more help from their interlocutors while communicating in the target language (English).

The CS of "**word coinage**", which was defined as the "creation of a new word instead of the missing one in target language", was employed the least by both MLLs and BLLs (MLLs=2; BLLs=5; See **Table XIa,** p.81). Therefore, both MLLs and BLLs were similar in using this CS.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION

4.1 Conclusion

This study investigated the differences and similarities between MLLs and BLLs in the use of CSs while communicating in the target language (English).

The analysis of the collected data was done in three steps. First, MLLs and BLLs were compared according to the total number of CSs used. As a result, BLLs were found to use more CSs than MLLs did. This difference was attributed to two reasons. First, BLLs had German/French as an extra language resource in addition to L1 (Turkish) and the target language (English). This extra language resource provided BLLs with more alternatives to choose from in the use of CSs in order to maintain the flow of conversation when problematic situations in the target language (English) were faced. Secondly, even when German/French was excluded from calculations, BLLs still used more CSs than MLLs. This finding was explained with the scores of MLLs and BLLs in MTEP. Although they were placed in the same proficiency interval, BLLs were less proficient than MLLs in English. Therefore, they faced more problems in communication, which in turn forced them to use more CSs.

The second research question investigated the language choice of MLLs and BLLs in using CSs. In line with the aim of the second research question, the categories of CSs used by MLLs and BLLs were grouped according to the languages they were based on. According to the results, BLLs used CS-T the most, then CS-E and CS-G/F the least,

whereas MLLs used CS-E more than CS-T. The difference between the two groups in terms of CS-E and CS-T use was explained by the difference in the accumulation of scores in MTEP. Since BLL group included less proficient EFL learners than MLL group, BLLs used CS-T more and CS-E less than MLLs.

As mentioned earlier, BLLs used German/French based CSs the least in the current study. There can be two reasons for this finding. First, BLLs might not have been as proficient in their second languages as in their first languages (Turkish). This claim was also supported by the analysis of the categories of CSs in the third research question. BLLs used only the CS of "code switching" from their second languages (German/French) whereas they used CSs like "literal translation, exemplification, cooperative appeal" as well as "code switching" in their first languages (Turkish). BLLs might not have been proficient enough in their second languages (German/French) to use other CSs except the CS of "codeswitching".

Secondly, as it was illustrated in **Example 33** (p.91) some BLLs might have taken their partners' linguistic background into consideration. Therefore, BLLs did not use their German/French based CSs as often as their L1 based CSs since they did not get their meaning across.

In the third research question, the use of CSs in terms of the categories was analyzed. According to the results, both BLLs and MLLs used CS of "**code switching**" the most and CS of "**word coinage**" the least.

There were significant differences between MLLs and BLLs in terms of the use of "**code switching**", "**cooperative strategies**" and "**generalization**" CSs. Statistically significant differences were not found in the other categories.

BLLs used CS of "code switching" more than MLLs did (BLLs=522>MLLs=185; See **Table Va**, p.75). This difference between MLLs and BLLs was attributed to both the extra language source of BLLs (German/French) and the lower proficiency level of BLLs compared to MLLs in English.

Similarly, since BLLs were less proficient than MLLs in the target language (English), they demanded more help when faced with problematic situations during communication. Therefore, BLLs used "cooperative strategies" more than MLLs (BLLs=86>MLLs=41).

On the other hand, CS of "generalization" was used by MLLs more often than by BLLs. This difference was attributed to the fact that MLLs were more proficient than BLLs in English according to MTEP scores. Since, the CS of "generalization" required the overgeneralization or finding a superordinate term for the missing lexical item in the target language (English), MLLs might have used this CS more than BLLs.

As a result, this study revealed that;

1) Knowing an extra language other than L1 enlarged the resources for communication in the target language (BLLs used CS-T, CS-E and CS-G/F, whereas MLLs used CS-T and CS-E).

2) The proficiency level in the target language influenced the languages of the CSs that they were based on. Since BLLs were less proficient in English than MLLs, they used CS-T more than MLLs and CS-E less than MLLs.

3) There were significant differences between MLLs and BLLs in the following CSs: "code switching", "generalization" and "cooperative strategies".

4.2 Limitations of the current study and perspectives for further studies

Although the findings of this study are expected to bring new perspectives and provide new directions for the further studies in the field of ELT, the limitations of the current study should be taken into consideration while interpreting the results.

First of all, due to the limitations in the data collection procedure and time restrictions, reduction and non-verbal strategies could not be analyzed in this study. However, this limitation in the data collection procedure can be overcome in further studies by using advanced recording techniques (i.e. video cameras).

Secondly, although MLLs and BLLs were at the same proficiency interval according to MTEP, there were differences in terms of the distribution of the scores between the two groups. The distribution of the MTEP scores for BLLs accumulated between 40-49, whereas the distribution the scores for MLLs accumulated between 50-59. This difference in the distribution of the scores might have influenced the results. Further studies can be conducted in order to see whether similar proficiency levels of MLLs and BLLs would yield similar results or not.

Another factor that could have influenced the results in the present study was the proficiency level of BLLs in their L2 (German/French). BLLs were considered as "additive bilinguals" since they have learned their L2 (German/French) for educational purposes at school. However, their proficiency level in their L2 (German/French), which could not be tested, might have influenced the results. Therefore, different results can be obtained in a further study, which will be carried out with balanced[22] BLLs.

There were also confounding factors in terms of subject pairs and task selection. Because of the time limitations and inconvenience of the subjects, EFL learners could only be grouped as BLL-MLL pairs in this study. More generalized results for the use of CSs can only be obtained after the comparison of BLL-BLL, MLL-MLL and BLL-MLL dyads in further studies.

The task used for the data collection in the study was selected as a controlled picture reconstruction task. Different results for both BLLs and MLLs can be obtained in a more naturalistic task.

Lastly, introspective method could also be used in further studies in order to get verbal feedback from learners themselves about the problematic situations. It is hoped that by getting verbal feedback, the disadvantages of the present method would be minimized.

4.3 Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the study have provided some important implications for teaching and learning of CSs.

---

[22] **Balanced BLL**: Speakers whose mastery of the two languages is roughly equivalent (Beardsmore,1991; p.9)

Previous studies have proved the superiority of bilinguals in language learning situations (Thomas, 1988; Magiste, 1984; Nayak, et.al., 1990; Sanz, 2000). In the current study, bilinguals have also been found to be in a more advantageous position than monolinguals during communication in the target language. Knowing an extra language (German/French), other than L1 (Turkish) increased the available sources for bilinguals to refer to in problematic situations during communication in the target language (English).

In terms of pedagogical implications, previous speaking experience in another language may have enhanced the abilities of bilinguals to cope with problematic situations during communication in the target language. Therefore, EFL teachers should encourage the cooperation of bilinguals and monolinguals in order to share their previous experiences about the possible problems and their solutions during communication in the target language.

There are differences of opinion between researchers from process oriented view (Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989; Kellerman et,al. 1990) and product oriented view (Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Chen, 1990) about the teaching of CSs. Kasper and Kellerman (1997) explains these differences between process oriented and product oriented views in the following way. Process oriented researchers believe that strategies in creating an L2 reference are cognitive processes. Since EFL learners have developed their cognitive processing in L1, there is no need to teach cognitive processing in L2 once more. That is to say, EFL learners already have the competence of employing strategies from their L1 hence, they should only be taught L2 linguistic forms to perform that strategy but not how to employ strategies in L2. On the other hand, product oriented

researchers believe in the teaching of CSs (Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Chen, 1990). According to Kasper and Kellerman (1997) this difference of opinion is the result of the categorization of the CSs in their own classification systems. Product oriented researchers perceive some categories to be more effective than others to overcome problems in some situations therefore, they believe in the teaching of more effective strategies. Moreover, the researchers from the product oriented view favor the classroom activities, which introduce and develop different types of communication strategies in the target language.

In line with the product oriented researchers,"strategy training" has been the focus of Cohen (1998), Lam and Wong (2000), Dörnyei and Scott (1997) and Dörnyei and Thurell (1991) in their research, recently. According to Cohen (1998), the goal of strategy training is "to explicitly teach students how, when and why strategies can be used to facilitate their efforts at learning and using a foreign language (p.69). Cohen (1998) mentions a strategy workshop (Workshop Series in Language Learner Training), which was carried out in the University of Minnesota/USA. ESL learners were provided with opportunities to exchange experiences and ways to use language learning and language use strategies. These kinds of strategy trainings and awareness raising workshops can develop the abilities of EFL learners to detect weaknesses in their learning and as a result improve their communication abilities.

In a study carried out with ESL learners in Hong Kong, Lam and Wong (2000) also found that strategy training increased the use of interaction strategies and genuine interaction in group discussions.

Similarly, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) believe that teachers should teach CSs since " they provide learner with a sense of security in TL and allow him/her room to maneuver in times of difficulty". EFL teachers can also improve the communicative abilities of their students by designing authentic materials or role-play activities, which require the use of CSs in order to improve communicative competence of EFL learners in the target language. According to Dörnyei and Thurell (1991), learners should be provided with examples like authentic listening materials, in which native speakers make use of CSs in their native language. In this way, learners are encouraged to take risks and use CSs when they want to compensate lack of knowledge in the target language.

Since the teaching of CSs aid the development of oral skills and socio-cultural interaction, in line with the product oriented view researchers, the researcher in this study also considers the teaching of CSs in the target language beneficial for language learners.

REFERENCES

Ammerlaan, T. (1984). **A process-oriented approach to lexical strategies in referential communication**. Unpublished master's thesis. Nijmegen University, Nijmegen, The Netherlands.

Beardsmore, H.B. (1991). **Bilingualism: Basic principles**. Devon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Bialystok E. (1983). Some factors in the selection and implementation of communication strategies. In C. Faersch and G. Kasper (Eds.), **Strategies in Interlanguage Communication**. pp. 100-118. N.Y.: Longman.

Bialystok, E. and Kellerman, E. (1987). Language strategies in classroom. In B. Das (Ed.), **Communication and Learning in the Classroom Community**. pp. 165-179. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Center.

Bialystok, E. (1990). **Communication strategies: A psychological analysis of second language use**. N.Y.: Basil Blackwell.

Blum, S. and Levenston, E. (1983). Universals of lexical simplification. In C. Faersch and G. Kasper (Eds.), **Strategies in Interlanguage Communication**. pp. 119-139. N.Y.: Longman.

Bongaerts, T., Kellerman, E. and Bentlage, A. (1987). Perspective and proficiency in L2 referential communication. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. **9**. 171-200.

Bongaerts, T. and Poulisse, N. (1989). Communication strategies in L1 and L2: Same or different? **Applied Linguistics**. **10** (3). 253-268.

Brown, H.D. (1976a). Discussion of Systematicity/ Variability and Stability/ Instability. In H.D. Brown, Papers in second language acquisition. **Language Learning**. Special Issue. **4**. 135-140.

Brown, H.D. (1976b). Papers in second language acquisition. **Language Learning**. Special Issue. **4**.

Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. **Applied Linguistics**. **1** (1). 1-47.

Cohen, A.D. (1998). **Strategies in learning and using a second language**. N.Y.: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.

Corder, S.P. (1978). Strategies of communication. In M. Leiwo and A. Rasaren (Eds.), **AFinLAN Vuosikirja**. Publications de l'Association Finlandaise de Linguistique Appliquée.

Corder, S.P. (1983). Strategies of communication. In C. Faersch and G. Casper (Eds.), **Strategies in Interlanguage Communication**. pp. 15-20. N.Y.: Longman.

Dewaele, J.M. (1998). Lexical Inventions: French Interlanguage as L2 versus L3. **Applied Linguistics**. **19** (4). 471-490.

Dörnyei, Z. and Thurell, S. (1991). Strategic competence and how to teach it. **ELT Journal**. **45**. 16-23.

Dörnyei, Z. (1995). On the teachability of communication strategies. **TESOL Quarterly**. 29. 55-85.

Dörnyei, Z. and Scott, M.L. (1997). Communication strategies in a second language: Definitions and taxonomies. **Language Learning**. **47**(1).179-210.

Faersch, C. and Kasper, G. (1983). **Strategies in interlanguage communication**. N.Y: Longman.

Faersch, C. and Kasper, G. (1987). From product to process: Introspective methods in second language research. In C. Faersch and G. Kasper (Eds.), **Introspection in Second Language Research**. pp. 5-24. Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Finegan, E. (1990). English. In B. Comrie (Ed.), **The World's Major Languages**. pp. 77-110. N.Y.: Oxford University Press.

Green, J.N. (1990). Romance languages. In B. Comrie (Ed.), **The World's Major Languages**. pp. 203-210. N.Y.: Oxford University Press.

Hawkins, J.A. (1990). German. In B. Comrie (Ed.), **The World's Major Languages**. pp. 111-139. N.Y.: Oxford University Press.

Hymes, D. (1971). On communicative competence. In J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (Eds.), **Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings**. pp. 269-293. Baltimore: Penguin.

Kasper, G. and Kellerman, E. (1997). Introduction: Approaches to communication strategies. In G. Kasper and E. Kellerman (Eds.), **Communication Strategies: Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Perspectives**. pp. 1-15. N.Y.: Longman.

Kellerman, E. (1977). Towards a characterization of the strategy of transfer in second language learning. **Interlanguage Studies Bulletin. 2**. 58-145.

Kellerman, E. (1978). Giving learners a break: Native language intuitions as a source of predictions about transferability. **Working Papers on Bilingualism. 15**. 59-92.

Kellerman, E., Bongaerts, T. and Poulisse, N. (1987) Strategy and System in L2 Referential Communication. In R. Ellis (Ed.), **Second Language Acquisition in Context.** N.Y.: Prentice Hall.

Kellerman, E., Ammerlaan, T., Bongaerts, T. and Poulisse, N. (1990). System and hierarchy in L2 compensatory strategies. In R. Scarcella (Ed.), **Developing Communicative Competence in a Second Language**. pp. 34-45. N.Y.: Newbury House.

Klaus, G. and Buhr, M. (Eds.). (1976). **Philosophisches Wörterbuch**. Leipzig: VEB Bibliographisches Institut.

Klein, E. C. (1995). Second versus third language acquisition: Is there a difference?. **Language Learning**. **45** (3). 419-465.

Kornfilt, J. (1990). Turkish and Turkic languages. In B. Comrie (Ed.), **The World's Major Languages**. pp. 619-645. N.Y.: Oxford University Press.

Lam, W. and Wong, J. (2000) The effects of strategy training on developing discussion skills in an ESL classroom. **ELT Journal. 54** (3). 245-255.

Lambert, W.E. (1974). Culture and language as factors in learning and education. In F. Aboud and R.D. Mead (Eds.), **Cultural Factors in Learning**. Bellingham: Washington State College.

Magiste, E. (1984). Learning a third language. **Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development**. **5** (5). 415-421.

Nayak, N., et al. (1990). Language-learning strategies in monolingual and multilingual adults. **Language Learning**. **40** (2). 221-244.

O'Malley, J.M. and Chamot, A.U. (1990). **Learning strategies in second language acquisition**. N.Y.: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R L. (1990). **Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know**. N.Y.: Newbury House Publisher.

Papaeftymiou-Lytra, S. (1987). **Communicating and learning strategies in English as a foreign language with particular reference to the Greek learner of English**. Athens: The University of Athens Press.

Paribakht, T. (1985). Strategic competence and language proficiency. **Applied Linguistics**. **6** (2). 132-146.

Poulisse, N. (1987). Problems and solutions in the classification of compensatory strategies. **Second Language Research**. **3**. 141-153.

Russel, G. (1997). Preference and order in first and second language referential strategies. In G. Kasper and E. Kellerman (Eds.), **Communication Strategies: Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Perspectives**. Pp. 65-96. N.Y.: Longman.

Sanz, C. (2000). Bilingual education enhances third language acquisition : Evidence from Catalonia. **Applied Psycholinguistics**. **21**. 24-43

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. **International Review of Applied Linguistics**. **10**. 209-320.

Singleton, D. (1987). Mother and other tongue influence on learner French. **SSLA**. **9**. 327-346.

Si-Qing, C. (1990). A study of communication strategies in interlanguage production by Chinese EFL learners. **Language Learning**. **40** (2).155-87.

Stavans, A. (1992). Sociolinguistic factors affecting codeswitches produced by trilingual children. **Language, Culture and Curriculum**. **5** (1). 41-53.

Tarone, E., Cohen, A. D., Dumas, G. (1976). A closer look at some interlanguage terminology: A framework for communication strategies. **Working Papers on Bilingualism**. **9**. 76-90.

Tarone, E. (1977). Concious communication strategies in interlanguage: A progress report. In A.D. Brown, C.A. Yario and R.H. Crymes (Eds.), **On TESOL`77: Teaching and learning English as a second language**. pp. 194-203. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Tarone, E. (1980). Communication strategies, foreigner talk, and repair in interlanguage. **Language Learning**. **30** (2). 417-431.

Tarone, E. (1981). Some thoughts on the notion of communication strategies. **TESOL Quarterly**. **15** (3). 285-295.

Tarone, E. (1983). Some thoughts on the notion of communication strategies. In C. Faersch and G. Kasper (Eds.), **Strategies in Interlanguage Communication**. pp. 61-74. N.Y.: Longman.

Tarone, E., Cohen, A.D. and Dumas, G. (1983). A closer look at some interlanguage terminology: A framework for communication strategies. In C. Faersch and D. Kasper (Eds.), **Strategies in Interlanguage Communication**. pp. 5-14. N.Y.: Longman.

The Webster's Encyclopedic Dictionary of English Language (1992). N.Y.: Lexicon Publications, Inc.

Thomas, J. (1988). The role played by metalinguistic awareness in second and third language learning. **Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development**. **9** (3). 235-247.

Wagner, J. (1983). Dann tu tagen einee-weisse platte-An analysis of interlanguage communication in instructions. In C. Faersch and D. Kasper (Eds.), **Strategies in Interlanguage Communication**. pp.159-175. N.Y.: Longman.

Wagner, J. and Firth, A. (1997). Communication strategies at work. In G. Kasper and E. Kellerman (Eds.), **Communication Strategies: Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics Perspectives**. pp. 323-345. N.Y.: Longman.

Willems, G.M. (1987). Communication strategies and their significance in foreign language teaching. **System**. **15** (3). 351-364.

Yarmohammadi, L. and Seif, S. (1992). More on communication strategies: classification, resources, frequency and underlying processes. **IRAL**. **3** (3). 223-232.

Yule, G. and Tarone, E. (1987). Communication strategies in East-West interactions. In L. Smith (Ed.), **Discourse Across Cultures: Strategies in World Englishes**. pp. 49-65. N.Y.: Prentice Hall.

Yule, G. and Tarone, E. (1997). Investigating communication strategies in L2 reference pros and cons. In G. Kasper and E. Kellerman (Eds.), **Communication Strategies: Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Perspectives**. N.Y.: Longman.

APPENDIX I

TARONE'S CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Avoidance:

-Topic avoidance

-Message abandonment

Paraphrase:

-Approximation

-Word coinage

-Circumlocution

Conscious Transfer:

-Literal translation

-Language switch

Appeal For Assistance

Mime

APPENDIX II

FAERCH AND KASPER'S CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Formal Reduction: Phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical levels.

Functional Reduction: Actional Reduction, modal reduction, reduction of propositional content (topic avoidance, message abandonment, meaning replacement)

Achievement Strategies:

-Compensatory Strategies:

*codeswitching

*interlingual transfer

*IL based strategies(generalization, paraphrase, word coinage, restructuring)

*cooperative strategies

*non-linguistic strategies

-Retrieval Strategies

APPENDIX III

PARIBAKHT'S CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Linguistic Approach:

- **Semantic Contiguity**

*superordinate

*comparison (positive comparison: analogy, synonymy)

(negative comparison: contrast &opposite, antonymy)

- **Circumlocution**

*physical description (size, shape, color, material)

*constituent features (features, elaborated features)

*locational property

*historical property

*other features

*functional description

- **Metalinguistic Clues**

Contextual Approach: (Linguistic context, use of L2 idioms and proverbs, transliteration of L1 idioms and proverbs, idiomatic transfer)

Conceptual Approach: (Demonstration, exemplification, metonymy)

Mime: (Replacing verbal output, accompanying verbal output)

APPENDIX IV
DÖRNYEI AND SCOTT'S CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

a) Direct Strategies:

Resource deficit-related strategies: Message abandonment, message reduction, message replacement, circumlocution, approximation, use of all purpose words, word-coinage, restructuring, literal translation, foreignizing, literal translation, code switching, use of similar sounding words, mumbling, omission, retrieval, mime

Own performance problem related strategies: Self-rephrasing, self repair

Other performance problem related strategies: Other-repair

b) Interactional Strategies:

Resource deficit-related strategies: Appeals for help

Own performance problem related strategies: Comprehension check, own accuracy check

Other performance problem related strategies: Asking for repetition, asking for clarification, asking for confirmation, guessing, expressing non-understanding, interpretive summary, responses

c) Indirect Strategies:

Processing time pressure related strategies: Use of fillers, repetitions

Own performance problem related strategies: Verbal strategy markers

Other performance problem related strategies: Feigning understanding

APPENDIX V

POULISSE'S CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Conceptual Strategy:

-Holistic strategy

-Analytic Strategy

Linguistic Strategies

APPENDIX VI

KELLERMAN ET AL.'S CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Approximative Strategies:

-approximation

-generalization

-exemplification

Analytic Strategies:

-circumlocution

-paraphrase

Linguistic Strategies:

-borrowing

-foreignization

-transliteration

APPENDIX VII

Table Ib

Total number of CSs used by MLLs and BLLs Independent Samples Test (T-Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	1.066	0.306	-3.007	58	**0.004**	-12.300	0.306
Equal variances not assumed			-3.007	51.206	**0.004**	-12.300	0.306

Table IIb

Total number of CSs used by MLLs and BLLs Independent Samples Test (T-Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	1.066	0.306	-3.007	58	**0.004**	-12.300	0.306
Equal variances not assumed			-3.007	51.206	**0.004**	-12.300	0.306

APPENDIX VIII

Table IIIb

Comparison of BLL and MLL in terms of CS-T							
T-Test (Independent Samples Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	2.828	0.098	-1.869	58.000	**0.068**	-5.400	2.889
Equal variances not assumed			-1.869	49.542	**0.068**	-5.400	2.889

Table IIIc

Comparison of BLLs and MLL in terms of CS-E							
Independent Samples Test (T-Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	1.134	0.291	0.413	58.000	**0.681**	0.800	1.935
Equal variances not assumed			0.413	56.074	**0.681**	0.800	1.935

APPENDIX IX

Table Vb

Comparison of BLLs and MLLs in terms of "code switching" Independent Samples Test (T-Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	10.136	0.002	-3.637	58.000	**0.001**	-11.233	3.089
Equal variances not assumed			-3.637	47.226	**0.001**	-11.233	3.089

Table VIb

Comparison of MLLs and BLLs in terms of "literal translation" CS use Independent Samples Test (t-test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	5.738	0.020	-1.636	58	**0.107**	-0.500	0.306
Equal variances not assumed			-1.636	35.148	**0.111**	-0.500	0.306

Table VIIb

Comparison of MLLs and BLLs in terms of "exemplification" CS Independent samples Test (t-test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	0.169	0.682	-0.665	58.000	0.508	-0.167	0.250
Equal variances not assumed			-0.665	57.664	0.508	-0.167	0.250

APPENDIX X

Table VIIIb

Comparison of MLLs and BLLs in terms of "generalization" CS Independent Samples Test (t-test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	2.49	0.12	2.07	58.00	**0.04**	1.70	0.82
Equal variances not assumed			2.07	48.78	**0.04**	1.70	0.82

Table IXb

Comparison of MLLs and BLLs in terms of "paraphrase" CS Independent Samples Test (T-Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	3.368	0.072	-0.202	58.000	0.841	-0.233	1.155
Equal variances not assumed			-0.202	52.584	0.841	-0.233	1.155

APPENDIX XI

Table Xb

Comparison of MLLs and BLLs in terms of "use of all purpose words CS Independent Samples Test (T-Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	0.668	0.417	-0.952	58.000	0.345	-0.333	0.350
Equal variances not assumed			-0.952	56.033	0.345	-0.333	0.350

Table XIb

Comparison of MLLs and BLLs in terms of "word coinage" CS Independent Samples Test (t-test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	14.698	0.000	-1.736	58.000	0.088	-0.133	0.077
Equal variances not assumed			-1.736	41.769	0.090	-0.133	0.077

APPENDIX XII

Table XIIb

Comparison of MLLs and BLLs in terms of "restructuring" CS Independent Samples Test (T-Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	4.319	0.042	-1.568	58.000	0.122	-0.400	0.255
Equal variances not assumed			-1.568	41.294	0.124	-0.400	0.255

Table XIIIb

Comparison of "Cooperative Appeal" CSs by MLLs and BLLs Independent Samples Test (T-Test)							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	5.868	0.019	-2.179	58.000	0.033	-1.500	0.689
Equal variances not assumed			-2.179	46.734	0.034	-1.500	0.689