

MULTILINGUAL COMMUNICATION IN EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS:
THE CASE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS
AT
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

AHMAD KAFFASH KHOSH

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

JUNE 2015

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name: **Ahmad Kaffash khosh**

Signature:

ABSTRACT

**MULTILINGUAL COMMUNICATION IN EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS:
THE CASE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS
AT
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY**

Kaffash khosh, Ahmad

Ph.D., English Language Teaching

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. ıgdem Sađın-Şimşek

June 2015, 299 pages

The aim of this study is to investigate the communication strategies and language choice strategies of international students who come to study at METU. To this end, two groups of new-comer international students with no prior contact to Turkish were chosen based on their linguistic background: Turkic and Indo-European language backgrounds. These two groups were chosen based on the two languages that were used on the campus: English and Turkish. Four means were used to collect data about the multilingual behavior. First, the participants completed a language background questionnaire. Second, they were given multilingual communication act problems. That is, they went to the post office, ICO/Registrar's Office, pharmacy, a friend of theirs, and their instructor with specific problems determined by the

researcher. They asked their questions and solved their problems while their interaction was being voice recorded. Third, after each task was completed the participant and his/her addressee were interviewed for how they managed their communication. Finally, stimulated recall of the participants provided more details about the tasks. The oral data were transcribed using the transcription software EXMARaLDA. With regard to language choice strategies, the results of the data analysis indicated various modes of multilingual communication being used by the participants. The Indo-European group more used English as a lingua franca, while the Turkic group tended to use Turkish more, receptively and in code-switching mode. As for communication strategies, participants used various devices to solve their communicative problems. The Turkic group used Turkish in some of their communication strategies.

Keywords: Communication Strategies, Language Choice Strategies, Multilingual Communication, English as a Lingua Franca, Code-switching, Receptive Multilingualism

ÖZ

EĞİTİM ORTAMLARINDA ÇOKDILLİ İLETİŞİM: ORTADOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ'NDEKİ ULUSLARARASI ÖĞRENCİLERİN DURUM ÇALIŞMASI

Kaffash khosh, Ahmad

Doktora, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Çiğdem Sağın-Şimşek

Haziran 2015, 299 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, ODTÜ'ye gelen uluslararası öğrencilerin iletişim ve dil seçimi stratejilerini araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla, daha önceden Türkçe'ye maruz kalmamış ve ODTÜ'ye yeni gelmiş olan uluslararası öğrencilerden iki farklı dil grubundan olmaları göze alınarak iki değişik grup seçilmiştir: Türkî dil konuşucusu ve Hint-Avrupa dil konuşucusu grup. Bu iki grup ODTÜ yerleşkesinde kullanılan iki dil baz alınarak seçilmiştir: İngilizce ve Türkçe. Çokdilli olan bu bireylerin iletişim ve dil seçimi stratejileriyle ilgili veri toplamak üzere dört veri toplama aracından faydalanıldı. Öncelikle katılımcıların bir dil geçmişi anketini doldurmaları istendi. İkinci olarak katılımcılara çokdilli iletişim problemleri verildi. Yani, araştırmacı tarafından kararlaştırılmış olarak katılımcılardan postane, Yabancı Öğrenci Ofisi, eczaneye gitmeleri ve arkadaşları ve hocalarıyla bir görüşme yapmaları istendi. Katılımcılar, kendilerine araştırmacı tarafından verilen problemi çözmeye çalışırken

ses kayıt cihazı ile kayıt altına alındılar. Üçüncü olarak, her bir görev bittiğinde, katılımcılar ve muhatapları ile iletişimin nasıl gittiği ile ilgili olarak mülakat yapıldı. Son olarak, katılımcılarla yapılan uyarılmış-geri-çağırma mülakatı ile verilen görevlerle ilgili ayrıntılı geridönütler alındı. Sözlü veriler EXMARaLDA adı verilen bir yazılım ile çeviriyazıya dönüştürüldü. Dil seçim stratejilerle ilgili olarak yapılan veri analizi, katılımcıların çokdilli iletişim dahilinde değişik modlarda iletişim kurduğunu göstermiştir. Türkî dil grubuna dahil olan katılımcılar kod-değiştirimi ve algısal olarak daha çok Türkçeyi kullanırken Hint-Avrupa dil grubundan olan katılımcılar ortak iletişim dili olarak İngilizce'yi tercih etmiştir. Bununla birlikte, iletişim stratejilerinin verisi, katılımcıların iletişimsel sorunlarını çözmek üzere birçok farklı yönteme başvurduklarını göstermiştir. Bu bağlamda Türkî dil konuşucuları iletişim stratejisi olarak Türkçeyi tercih etmektedirler.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İletişim Stratejisi, Dil Seçim Stratejisi, Çokdilli İletişim, Ortak İletişim Dili olarak İngilizce, Kod-değiştirimi, Algısal Çokdillilik

TO SHABNAM

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to express my heartfelt appreciation to my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. ıgdem Sađın-Şimşek for her never-ending patience, guidance, invaluable and constructive advice and feedback, constant encouragement throughout this long and demanding endeavor as well as her friendly and kindly support throughout my PhD education. I would also like to thank the jury members Assist. Prof. Dr. Margaret J. M. Sönmez, Assoc. Prof. Dr. A. Cendel Karaman, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nuray Alagözlü and Assist. Prof. Dr. Elena A. Ünlü for their invaluable feedback and helpful suggestions.

Furthermore, I owe a debt of gratitude to my friends who were always there with me in full support. I would like to express my special gratitude to Mehmet Akkuş and other friends in the department. I have always felt lucky to be around them.

Last but not least, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my wife Shabnam, whose love, patience and support paved the way for me. Also, I would also like to appreciate my parents Mohammad Reza and Kobra, parents-in-law Mohammad and Safiyye, my brothers Ahad and Masoud, my brother-in-law Vahid and my sister-in-law Neda for their unconditional love and patience. Without their endless encouragement, I would not have written this thesis at all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	vi
DEDICATION	viii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xvi
LIST OF FIGURES	xx
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xxiv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background to the Study	1
1.2. Statement of Purpose	8
1.3. Research Questions	9
1.4. Overview of Methodology	9
1.5. Significance of the study	10
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	13
2.1. Introduction	13
2.2. Multilingualism	14
2.3. Multilingual Communication	19
2.4. Modes of Multilingual Communication	23
2.4.1. English as a Lingua Franca	23
2.4.2. Code Switching	32
2.4.3. Receptive Multilingualism	36
2.4.4. Final Remarks on Language Choice Strategies	43
2.5. Communication Strategies	43

2.5.1. Historical Outline of CS	44
2.5.2. Noncomprehensibility of the Scope of CS	52
2.5.3. Foreigner Talk	54
2.5.4. Hearer-based Communication Strategies	57
2.5.5. Final Remarks on Communication Strategies	61
3. METHODOLOGY	63
3.1. Introduction	63
3.2. Research Objectives	63
3.3. Research Questions	64
3.4. Research Design	64
3.4.1. Setting	65
3.4.2. Case Selection and Sampling	66
3.4.3. Data Collection	69
3.4.3.1. Questionnaire	71
3.4.3.2. Communication Acts	72
3.4.3.2.1. Post Office	75
3.4.3.2.2. Bank	75
3.4.3.2.3. Pharmacy	76
3.4.3.2.4. Registrar's Office	77
3.4.3.2.5. Instructor's Office	78
3.4.3.2.6 Friendly Talk	79
3.4.3.3. Post Interview	79
3.4.3.4. Stimulated Recall	80
3.5. Expected Outcomes	80
3.6. Procedure	82
3.7. Triangulation	83
3.8. Ethical Considerations	84
4. DATA ANALYSIS	86
4.1. Introduction	86
4.2. Data Analysis Framework	89

4.3. Transcription System	93
4.4. Data Analysis Procedure	95
4.5. Individual Analysis	96
4.5.1. Indo-European Language Group	100
4.5.1.1. Indo-European Language Group: English	101
4.5.1.1.1. US Participant: Post office	102
4.5.1.1.2. US Participant: Pharmacy	108
4.5.1.1.3. US Participant: ICO office	111
4.5.1.1.4. US Participant: Instructor	113
4.5.1.1.5. US Participant: Turkish Friend	114
4.5.1.1.6. US Participant: Conclusion	117
4.5.1.2. Indo-European Language Background: Dutch	119
4.5.1.2.1. Dutch Participant: Post Office	121
4.5.1.2.2. Dutch Participant: Pharmacy	126
4.5.1.2.3. Dutch Participant: ICO Office	129
4.5.1.2.4. Dutch Participant: Instructor	130
4.5.1.2.5. Dutch Participant: Turkish Friend	132
4.5.1.2.6. Dutch Participant: Conclusion	134
4.5.1.3. Indo-European Language Background: Polish	135
4.5.1.3.1. Polish Participant: Post office	137
4.5.1.3.2. Polish Participant: Pharmacy	139
4.5.1.3.3. Polish Participant: ICO Office	142
4.5.1.3.4. Polish Participant: Instructor	143
4.5.1.3.5. Polish Participant: Turkish Friend	145
4.5.1.3.6. Polish Participant: Conclusion	146
4.5.1.4. Indo-European Language Background: German	148
4.5.1.4.1. German Participant: Post Office	149
4.5.1.4.2. German Participant: Pharmacy	150
4.5.1.4.3. German Participant: ICO Office	154
4.5.1.4.4. German Participant: Instructor	155

4.5.1.4.5. German Participant: Turkish Friend	156
4.5.1.4.6. German Participant: Conclusion	158
4.5.1.5. Indo-European Language Background: French	159
4.5.1.5.1. French Participant: Post Office	160
4.5.1.5.2. French Participant: Pharmacy	162
4.5.1.5.3. French Participant: ICO Office	164
4.5.1.5.4. French Participant: Instructor	165
4.5.1.5.5. French Participant: Turkish Friend	166
4.5.1.5.6. French Participant: Conclusion	167
4.5.2. Turkic Language Background	169
4.5.2.1. Turkic Language Background: Kazakh	169
4.5.2.1.1. Kazakh Participant: Post Office	171
4.5.2.1.2. Kazakh Participant: Pharmacy	175
4.5.2.1.3. Kazakh Participant: Registrar's Office	178
4.5.2.1.4. Kazakh Participant: Instructor	182
4.5.2.1.5. Kazakh Participant: Turkish Friend	183
4.5.2.1.6. Kazakh Participant: Conclusion	184
4.5.2.2. Turkic Language Background: Azeri 1	186
4.5.2.2.1. Azeri 1 Participant: Post Office	187
4.5.2.2.2. Azeri 1 Participant: Pharmacy	191
4.5.2.2.3. Azeri 1 Participant: Registrar's Office	193
4.5.2.2.4. Azeri 1 Participant: Instructor	195
4.5.2.2.5. Azeri 1 Participant: Turkish Friend	196
4.5.2.2.6. Azeri 1 Participant: Conclusion	197
4.5.2.3. Turkic Language Background: Kyrgyz	199
4.5.2.3.1. Kyrgyz Participant: Post Office	200
4.5.2.3.2. Kyrgyz Participant: Pharmacy	201
4.5.2.3.3. Kyrgyz Participant: ICO Office	203
4.5.2.3.4. Kyrgyz Participant: Instructor	205
4.5.2.3.5. Kyrgyz Participant: Turkish Friend	207

4.5.2.3.6. Kyrgyz Participant: Conclusion	208
4.5.2.4. Turkic Language Background: Azeri 2	209
4.5.2.4.1. Azeri 2 Participant: Post Office	210
4.5.2.4.2. Azeri 2 Participant: Pharmacy	213
4.5.2.4.3. Azeri 2 Participant: Registrar's Office	214
4.5.2.4.4. Azeri 2 Participant: Instructor	216
4.5.2.4.5. Azeri 2 Participant: Turkish Friend	217
4.5.2.4.6. Azeri 2 Participant: Conclusion	218
4.6. Group Analysis	219
4.6.1. Indo-European Group	219
4.6.2. Turkic Group	222
4.7. Group Comparison	225
5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	226
5.1. Introduction	226
5.2. Summary of the Study	226
5.2.1. Language Choice Strategies	227
5.2.1.1. Language Choice Strategies: Linguistic View	228
5.2.1.2. Language Choice Strategies: Language Background View.....	230
5.2.1.3. Language Choice Strategies: Constellation View.....	231
5.2.2. Communication Strategies	232
5.2.2.1. Communication Strategies: Role Viewpoint	233
5.2.2.2. Communication Strategies: Functional Viewpoint	234
5.2.2.3. Communication Strategies: Language Choice View	238
5.2.3. Task Accomplishment	240
5.3. Discussion of the Results	240
5.3.1. Language Background in Multilingual Communication	241
5.3.2. English as a Lingua Franca in Multilingual Communication	243
5.3.3. Genetical Proximity in Multilingual Communication	245
5.3.4. Communication Strategies: Innovative View	247
5.4. Implications of the Study	250

5.5. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for further research	251
REFERENCES	253
APPENDICES	
Appendix A: Email	268
Appendix B: Note	269
Appendix C: Questionnaire	270
Appendix D: Ethics office approval	272
Appendix E: Consent Form	273
Appendix F: Sample Transcription from the Data	274
Appendix G: Vita	280
Appendix H: Turkish Summary	281
Appendix I: Tez Fotokopi İzin Formu	299

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 2.1 Typology of bilingualism (adapted from Butler & Hakuta, 2006)	21
Table 2.2 Communication strategies (Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976)	46
Table 2.3 List of CS identified in Dörnyei and Scott (1995b)	49
Table 2.4 Formal features of FT (Ellis, 1985, p. 135)	56
Table 2.5 Interactional features of FT (Ellis, 1985, p. 136)	57
Table 3.1 Participants of the study	70
Table 4.0 Recorded data from the participants	88
Table 4.1 Stages of H's reception of S's speech action (adapted from Rehbein, 2006)	91
Table 4.2 CS and their functions used by all participants	97
Table 4.3 US participant language background information	101
Table 4.4 Information about the oral data for the US participant	102
Table 4.5 CS used by the US participant in the post office	106
Table 4.6 CS used by the US participant in the pharmacy	111
Table 4.7 CS used by the US participant in the ICO office	112
Table 4.8 CS used by the US participant with her instructor	114
Table 4.9 CS used by the US participant with her Turkish friend	116
Table 4.10 Summary of all CS used by the US participant in the five communication acts	117
Table 4.11 Dutch participant language background information	120
Table 4.12 Information about the oral data for the Dutch participant	120
Table 4.13 CS used by the Dutch participant in the post office	125
Table 4.14 CS used by the Dutch participant in the pharmacy	128
Table 4.15 CS used by the Dutch participant in the ICO office	130
Table 4.16 CS used by the Dutch participant with his instructor	132

Table 4.17 CS used by the Dutch participant with his Turkish friend	133
Table 4.18 Summary of all CS used by the Dutch participant in the five communication acts	134
Table 4.19 Polish participant language background information	136
Table 4.20 Information about the oral data for the Polish participant	136
Table 4.21 CS used by the Polish participant in the post office	138
Table 4.22 CS used by the Polish participant in the pharmacy	141
Table 4.23 CS used by the Polish participant in the ICO office	143
Table 4.24 CS used by the Polish participant with her instructor	145
Table 4.25 CS used by the Polish participant with her Turkish friend	146
Table 4.26 summary of all CS used by the Polish participant in the five communication acts	147
Table 4.27 German participant language background information	148
Table 4.28 Information about the oral data for the German participant	149
Table 4.29 CS used by the German participant in the post office	150
Table 4.30 CS used by the German participant in the pharmacy	154
Table 4.31 CS used by the German participant in the ICO office	155
Table 4.32 CS used by the German participant with her instructor	156
Table 4.33 CS used by the German participant with her Turkish friend	157
Table 4.34 Summary of all CS used by the German participant in the five communication acts	158
Table 4.35 French participant language background information	159
Table 4.36 Information about the oral data for the French participant	160
Table 4.37 CS used by the French participant in the post office	162
Table 4.38 CS used by the French participant in the pharmacy	163
Table 4.39 CS used by the French participant in the ICO office	164
Table 4.40 CS used by the French participant with her instructor	166
Table 4.41 CS used by the French participant with her Turkish friend	167
Table 4.42 Summary of all CS used by the French participant in the five communication acts	168

Table 4.43 Kazakh participant language background information	170
Table 4.44 Information about the oral data for the Kazakh participant	170
Table 4.45 CS used by the Kazakh participant in the post office	174
Table 4.46 CS used by the Kazakh participant in the pharmacy	177
Table 4.47 CS used by the Kazakh participant in the Registrar's office	181
Table 4.48 CS used by the Kazakh participant with her instructor	183
Table 4.49 CS used by the Kazakh participant with her Turkish friend	184
Table 4.50 summary of all CS used by the Kazakh participant in the five communication acts	185
Table 4.51 Azeri 1 participant language background information	187
Table 4.52 Information about the oral data for the Azeri 1 participant	187
Table 4.53 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant in the post office	188
Table 4.54 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant in the pharmacy	193
Table 4.55 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant in the Registrar's office	194
Table 4.56 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant with his instructor	196
Table 4.57 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant with his Turkish friend	197
Table 4.58 Summary of all CS used by the Azeri 1 participant in the five communication acts	198
Table 4.59 Kyrgyz participant language background information	199
Table 4.60 Information about the oral data for the Kyrgyz participant	200
Table 4.61 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in the post office	201
Table 4.62 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in the pharmacy	202
Table 4.63 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in the ICO office	204
Table 4.64 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant with her instructor	206
Table 4.65 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant with her Turkish friend	207
Table 4.66 Summary of all CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in the five communication acts	208
Table 4.67 Azeri 2 participant language background information	209
Table 4.68 Information about the oral data for the Azeri 2 participant	210
Table 4.69 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant in the post office	212

Table 4.70 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant in the pharmacy	213
Table 4.71 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant in the Registrar's office	215
Table 4.72 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant with her instructor	216
Table 4.73 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant with her Turkish friend	217
Table 4.74 Summary of all CS used by the Azeri 2 participant in the five communication acts	218
Table 4.75 Summary of all CS used by the five Indo-European participants	220
Table 4.76 Language choice strategy of the five Indo-European participants	222
Table 4.77 Summary of all CS used by the four Turkic participants	223
Table 4.78 Language choice strategy of the four Turkic participants	224

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 3.1 Procedure of Data collection	82
Figure 4.1 The basic linguistic model Adapted from Ehlich & Rehbein (1986, p. 96, cited in Redder, 2008, p. 136)	93
Figure 4.2 Example of transcription in EXMARaLDA	95
Figure 4.3 US participant ‘language choice marker’ strategy	103
Figure 4.4 US participant foreigner talk strategies	103
Figure 4.5 US participant response self-repetition and self-rephrase	104
Figure 4.6 US participant back-channeling	105
Figure 4.7 Back-channeling: confirmation	105
Figure 4.8 US participant in the post office: instances of CSW	107
Figure 4.9 US participant foreigner talk strategies in the pharmacy	109
Figure 4.10 ‘A more difficult item replaced with a more frequent one by the US participant	109
Figure 4.11 ‘self-repetition’ and ‘self-rephrase’ by the US participant	110
Figure 4.12 US participant content repair as a response	112
Figure 4.13 US participant ‘other-repetition: question’ strategy	113
Figure 4.14 US participant ‘expanding’ strategy	115
Figure 4.15 US participant BrE/AmE form self-repair	116
Figure 4.16 Content self-repair by the Dutch participant	121
Figure 4.17 Dutch participant ‘other-repetition: question’ and ‘asking for clarification: meaning’ CS	122
Figure 4.18 Dutch participant ‘asking for clarification: meaning’ and ‘mentioning the antecedent of proform’ CS	123
Figure 4.19 Dutch participant’s cases of using ‘uninverted questions’	123
Figure 4.20 Dutch participant’s ‘asking for confirmation’	124
Figure 4.21 Dutch participant’s probable receptive Turkish understanding	125

Figure 4.22 Dutch participant's 'asking for confirmation' in the pharmacy	127
Figure 4.23 Dutch participant's 'response: rephrase' and 'or-choice question' strategies in the pharmacy	127
Figure 4.24 Dutch participant use of 'circumlocution' in the pharmacy	128
Figure 4.25 Dutch participant's 'other-repetition' in ICO office	129
Figure 4.26 Dutch participant's 'self-rephrase' of questions	131
Figure 4.27 'Use of all-purpose word' by the Dutch participant with his Turkish friend	133
Figure 4.28 Polish participant saying hello in Turkish	138
Figure 4.29 An instance of Polish participant's receptive understanding of Turkish	139
Figure 4.30 Polish participant's 'response: confirmation'	139
Figure 4.31 Polish participant's 'self-rephrase' of questions in the pharmacy	140
Figure 4.32 Polish participant's 'form self-repair' in the ICO office	141
Figure 4.33 Polish participant's 'circumlocution' in the ICO office	142
Figure 4.34 Polish participant's using 'lengthened sound' with her instructor	144
Figure 4.35 Instances of Polish participant's 'back-channeling: confirmation'	144
Figure 4.36 German participant 'guessing' in the post office	150
Figure 4.37 German participant's using 'shorter utterances' and 'response: confirmation' CS	151
Figure 4.38 German participant overcoming her addressee's understanding problem with CS	153
Figure 4.39 German participant's 'content self-repair' in her talk with her Turkish friend	157
Figure 4.40 French participant's 'interpretive summary' in the post office	161
Figure 4.41 French participant's 'repetition' and 'rephrase' as a response	161
Figure 4.42 French participant's 'asking for clarification'	163
Figure 4.43 French participant saying hello in Turkish	163
Figure 4.44 French participant's 'content restructuring'	165
Figure 4.45 Kazakh participant's using CS to make the country understood to the male clerk	171

Figure 4.46 Kazakh participant's 'asking for clarification' and 'other repetition' .	172
Figure 4.47 Kazakh participant's 'interpretive summary'	172
Figure 4.48 Kazakh participant's 'Response: rephrase in interlocutor's L1'	173
Figure 4.49 Kazakh participant CSW to Turkish	174
Figure 4.50 Kazakh participant's receptive Turkish understanding	175
Figure 4.51 Kazakh participant's 'asking for repetition'	176
Figure 4.52 Instances of Kazakh participant's accurate receptive understanding of Turkish	178
Figure 4.53 Kazakh participant's applying various CS in the Registrar's office ...	179
Figure 4.54 Kazakh participant's 'response: self-repetition in interlocutor's L1' ..	179
Figure 4.55 Kazakh participant's 'self-repetition in interlocutor's L1'	180
Figure 4.56 Kazakh participant's 'asking for slower speech rate'	180
Figure 4.57 Kazakh participant's instances of productive Turkish use	182
Figure 4.58 Kazakh participant's 'expressing non-understanding'	184
Figure 4.59 Azeri 1 participant's using Azeri in communication	189
Figure 4.60 Azeri 1 participant's CSW between Azeri and Turkish	189
Figure 4.61 Azeri 1 participant's Azeri and Turkish back-channeling signals	190
Figure 4.62 Azeri 1 participant's 'self-repetition in speaker's L1'	191
Figure 4.63 Azeri 1 participant's 'self-rephrase in speaker's L1'	192
Figure 4.64 Azeri 1 participant's Azeri-Turkish CSW and receptive Turkish understanding	195
Figure 4.65 Kyrgyz participant's resort to her native language	203
Figure 4.66 Kyrgyz participant's use of English in the pharmacy	203
Figure 4.67 Kyrgyz participant's 'language choice marker' strategy in her talk with instructor	205
Figure 4.68 Kyrgyz participant's switch from Turkish to English	206
Figure 4.69 Azeri 2 participant's 'language choice marker' strategy in the post office	211
Figure 4.70 Azeri 2 participant's instances of using Azeri in her speech	212
Figure 4.71 Azeri 2 participant's CSW to English	214

Figure 4.72 Azeri 2 participant's 'comprehension check'
in the Registrar's office 215

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AmE	American English
BrE	British English
CS	Communication Strategies
CSW	Code-Switching
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
FT	Foreigner Talk
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MLC	Multilingual Communication
RM	Receptive Multilingualism
SLA	Second Language Acquisition

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Communication. *The American Heritage Dictionary of English Language* (1992) defines communication as “the exchange of thoughts, messages, or information, as by speech, signals, writing, or behavior” (p. 1584). As the definition suggests, to communicate there is to be different media used to convey messages and information. There are visual methods of using fire, lamps, flags, pennants, and heliograph, among others. Auditory methods, including for example using drums, horns, bells, whistles, cymbals, yelling, stick thumping, and specialized calls, have also been used in different cultures to communicate message and information from person to person and from place to place. However, these methods have been stopped using or are being used so rarely for two reasons. First, they are primitive methods with limited functionality. That is, they have been used to carry over very simple and short messages, and used to fall short of conveying longer and more complex messages. For example, Romans used flags just to signal between firing positions during battle or fire was used to send the sole message of victory by Greeks. Second, the use of language as the most sophisticated and the most ancient method of communication left very little place for non-linguistic methods mentioned above.

A review of the history of language and its origin reveals its evolution from prehistory era alongside the evolution of human species. “With the advent of the Enlightenment in Europe, Western speculation about the origin of language became increasingly materialistic” (Armstrong, 1999, p. 15). Since the advent of Enlightenment various theories have been brought up about the origin of language. On one camp theories of “discontinuity hypothesis” (ibid. p. 18) have proposed a rabbit-out-of-the-hat view (Aitchison, 2000) towards the origin of language. This

view is associated with Chomsky's 'language acquisition device', an innate language faculty humans endowed with (ibid., 2000). The opposite theories of "continuity hypothesis" take a gradual orientation and take the view that the biological capacity for language evolved through millennia (Armstrong, 1999). According to this view, which is the stronger view toward the origin of language, in the course of human evolution our genus, which was a subdivision of hominid family, split away from australopithecines (southern apes) around 3 million years ago and through a one-million-year period evolved into *Homo habilis* (tool-using man) followed by half a million years in the course of evolution to become *Homo erectus* (upright man) (Aitchison, 2000, Armstrong, 1999). Freeing hands by becoming bipedal, anatomic changes as a consequence of becoming upright, and taking another one-million-year step forward in evolution led to the Archaic *Homo sapiens* (wise man) and later to *Homo sapiens* (modern man) around 175000 years before present (Aitchison, 2000). Freeing hands and becoming upright was the first turning point for the human species for communication. Corballis (2008) states that "in the course of hominin evolution, it is likely that language increasingly incorporated facial as well as manual movement, especially with the emergence of the use and manufacture of tools" (p. 13). Language evolutionary transition from the hands to the face and later to vocalization led to the incremental emergence of language. This was not before the modern *Homo sapiens* "somewhere between 100,000 to 75,000 BP [before present] perhaps, [that] language reached a critical stage of sophistication" (Aitchison, 2000, p. 60).

Such a long history, in fact as long as the arrival of primitive humans on the planet earth, reveals how sophisticated and how complex a system language must be. Studying language, thus, must have as long a history. In fact, studying language dates back to first millennium BC when "in India one of the earliest of the great traditions of the linguistic scholarship was founded leading to Panini's grammar of Sanskrit" (Howatt, 2002, p. xxv). Continued to the modern times, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries of Enlightenment gave rise to diachronic study of languages. Later on, with Ferdinand de Saussure's ground breaking lectures, historical and comparative philology was transformed into contemporary linguistics. And in recent times, during a century or so of development, modern linguistics have come to cover not only

issues of pure linguistic interest as in phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics, since 1960s the field is expanded and diversified to include interdisciplinary fields. Sociology, psychology, anthropology, neurology, speech language pathology are some of the fields linguistics draws on and informs work from.

However, this is not the end of the story. The story of language genesis and evolution has an ending that affects the whole picture depicted about the study of language. Genesis, evolution, diffusion, and at the end comes diversity. Ostler (2005) finishes the story:

The presumption is that before the discovery and expansion of agriculture, human communities were small bands, just as the remaining groupings of hunter-gatherers are to this day. These groups all have languages, and ancient lore and stories which the old retail to the young. The density of the human population, wherever people were living, would have been far less than it is today. It is a commonplace of historical linguistics that related languages diverge when contact ceases between groups, so we can also presume that in this early period each self-sufficient community, of up to a few thousand people, would by and large have had its own language.

All this changed in communities that adopted a settled way of life, based on herding and agriculture. Now communities would have become both larger and more organized. In settled communities, one's neighbors in one year would remain one's neighbors for many years, indeed generations, to come. One might have dues to pay, and negotiate, with higher authorities. Festivals, and markets, would bring together people from a wide area. Militias would be raised to defend local communities, and to steal from others perceived to be weaker. There began to be a motive for communication among people over longer distances. Bilingualism would have increased in the population, and also languages would have grown in terms of the number of speakers; quite likely, too, the absolute number of languages would have fallen, smaller communities losing speakers through war, marriage or desertion, or simply a pragmatic tendency to use other people's languages (p. 27).

As indicated above, bilingualism, added variety to communication. Throughout history, bilingualism, that has a history probably as ancient as the development of language, as indicated above, shows itself in various forms—using a lingua franca, translation, code switching. With regard to the use of lingua francas in ancient times, Janssens, Mamadouh, and Maracz (2011) state that “the term *lingua franca* is widely used to characterize older examples like Aramaic in the Persian Empire, the Greek *koine* in the times of Alexander, Latin in medieval Western Europe, Arabic in the

Islamic world, French in the diplomatic exchanges from the 18th century onward” (p. 71). The use of Aramaic, for example, as a lingua franca in the Persian Empire dates back to between 600 BC and around 600 AD, when the use of Arabic with the Muslims was onset (Ostler, 2005). As for code-switching, Simon Swain (2002) in his article about Cicero’s bilingualism, analyses his letters written to his closest friend, Atticus. Swain states that “most of Cicero’s letters to Atticus contain a few code-switches” (p. 149). Medicine, discussion of literature, and emotive sphere are among the topics for which Cicero used code-switching between Roman, Latin and Greek.

In modern times the diversity of languages spoken all the world around has reached 6700 in about 200 nation states (Romaine 2004). This means that “bilingualism or multilingualism is present in practically every country in the world” (ibid. p. 388). Grosjean (1982) estimates that probably about half of the world’s population is bilingual. The distribution of languages among countries, however, is uneven. More than 70 percent of all languages found worldwide are spoken in only 20 nation-states. In Papua New Guinea alone there are 860 languages spoken (Romaine, 2004). At the other end of the extreme, there are languages that have been recognized internationally and are spoken as the mother tongue, the second language as well as a foreign language like English, French, and Spanish among which “in the early twenty first century, English is not only an international language, but *the* international language” (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 2, cited in Hulmbaur, 2011). According to Crystal (2003), 570 million people world-wide speak English 41 percent of whom are bilingual in English and some other languages.

The state of having knowledge of two or more languages is a major fact of life in the world today (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004). This has manifested itself in different spheres of life: home and family, professional fields and business, media and advertising, internet, and of course education. For example, heritage language speakers, “those who have been exposed to a language of personal connection” (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 23), have knowledge of two languages: the home language, i.e. the heritage language, and the language of the environment or school (ibid.). LSP (language for specific purposes), in general, and ESP (English for specific purposes), in specific, are the fields of language teaching and learning concerned with use of language in specialized fields of science. People watch TV channels of other

countries via satellite and develop a receptive knowledge of a second language as is the case with Azerbaijani people who, according to Sağın-Şimşek and König (2011), follow TV shows and soap operas in Turkish. Education in different levels, probably, has been most affected by bilingualism. Bilingual education in schools, as in French immersion program in Canada (Ellis, 1994), is evident in different countries where bi-/multilingual children take schooling services. For higher education learning English as the leading language for academic purposes has become inevitable almost in all universities around the world. According to Federation Internationale de Documation, a branch of UNESCO dealing with scientific information, approximately 7000 scientific articles are published every day plus other resources available in government publications, conference proceedings, reports of private industry, and computer networks, 85 percent of which are stored and abstracted worldwide in English (Tollefson, 1991). In line with the global tendency toward using English, Middle East Technical University (METU), in Ankara, Turkey, enjoys a double advantage in that it not only enjoys various English resources, as other universities, but also the medium of instruction is English.

With regard to what has been mentioned above regarding the long history of bilingual language speakers and bilingual forms of language use, and also the contemporary manifestations of bilingualism in various domains of life, studying bi- and multilingualism needs to be as fruitful. However “while bilingualism may be a very ancient phenomenon, its study is still relevantly young” (Dewaele, Housen, & Wei, 2003, p. 3). In fact, studies of bilingualism started from the nineteenth century and the field experienced a turning point in 1960s. From the nineteenth century to 1960s, studies indicated various detrimental effects of bilingualism. Weinreich (1953) in his classical ‘Language in Contact’ cites many of the problems apparently faced by bilinguals including split national loyalties and problems of “marginalization”, emotional difficulties, moral depravity, stuttering, left-handedness, excessive materialism, laziness, and detrimental consequences for intelligence. Also, up to the 1960s it was believed that monolinguals had superiority over bilinguals considering intelligence. Research findings of the time supported this belief. It is worth noting that at the same time as these monolingual-biased comparative early studies were being conducted, a second line of studies was

concerned with carefully documenting descriptions of the linguistic development of bilingual children. The 1960s was a turning point for almost all language-related fields of study, including bilingualism. A major reason for this, according to Dewaele et al. (2003), is the acknowledgement of the researchers that bilingualism is far more common than was formerly thought and even probably the norm. A number of studies were conducted on bilingual development but they were based on general theoretical models of language acquisition (Hamer & Blanc, 2004) since the field was too young to have its own theories of bilingual language development. It is since the 1980s that bilingualism research started processing to systematically process its own findings. This was after an intensive but mainly descriptive initial phase (Dewaele, et al., 2003). Systematic study of bilingualism inevitably demanded interdisciplinary work. That is, to account for a clearer and more encompassing picture of bilingualism, in its individual and social aspects and both in its processing and use, other fields were to be employed. Interdisciplinary fields of linguistics like neurolinguistics, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistics and anthropological linguistics expanded their fields of inquiry to be able to account for bilingual research studies. Moreover, new fields specific to bilingualism were established. Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Language Contact, Bilingual Education, Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), and Bi-/Multilingual Communication are among such fields. It must be noted that the research domain of these fields are not exclusive.

Widespread use of English, increased mobility of the population of the world (with purposes as varied as migration, education, finding a job, refuging, etc.), recognition of minority languages (Cenoz, Hufeisen, & Jessner, 2001), and international business has further complicated the issue of bilingualism. For some, knowing two languages does not fulfill their communicative needs and learning a third, or a fourth, or even a fifth language is not an exceptional situation any more (ibid.).

Globalization in the twenty first century has reduced the distances between communities and cultures. Communities and community members are in closer contact with each other. More often than ever, individuals with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds come together for different purposes. One of prevalent reasons for individuals to leave their native communities is education. According to

UNESCO statistics in the year 2009 the number of international students worldwide was 3.43 million. Statistics show a huge rise in numbers rising by more than 75 percent since the year 2000 (Coughlan, 2011). When it comes to Turkey this increase is even more evident. According to ÖSYM statistics the number of international students studying in Turkey in the academic year 2001-2002 was 15,505. Ten years later, this number increased by more than 100 percent and reached 31,170 in the academic year 2011-2012. The international students in Turkey come from more than forty countries (Türkiye'deki uluslararası öğrenci, 2013). METU with a quota of 1800 international students from more than 80 countries (International University, n.d.) plays a significant role in educating international students. The medium of instruction in METU is English, therefore all students accepted need to have a good command of English, international students being no exception. Furthermore, Turkish, as the national language of Turkey, is another language international students are inevitably exposed to. All in all, their previously known languages, English and Turkish, to different degrees of proficiency, are the languages international METU students are equipped with and apply creatively in various communicative situations.

This ensemble of diverse students with even more diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds set the best scene ever for multilingual communication research studies. Where more than one language is available in the linguistic repertoire of an individual, language choice demands the use of some strategies that are based on the constellation the multilingual person finds himself/herself in. Evaluation of the constellation by a multilingual person will give him/her clues as to which language/s be used. The language choice strategy is not a static choice of one language over the other; it is a constant evaluation of all the components of the constellation—the addressee/s and the language/s s/he/they know plus his/her/their linguistic command of any of the languages, the topic of communication, (which may vary throughout the discourse,) interpersonal issues, such as the power difference, age, gender, etc., and so on —the multilingual individual is acting in. Moreover, as in all communication acts, a second set of strategies are used to manage the flow of communication and provide maximum mutual intelligibility between/among interlocutors. They are communication strategies which have been defined as “a mutual attempt of two

interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared” (Tarone, 1981, p. 419). The use of these strategies is more prevalent in cases where shared linguistic, sociolinguistic, cultural and personal background is lacking, as in the case of international students. Presuppositions facilitate mutual understanding and lack of such shared knowledge adds an additional load for interlocutors in managing the smooth flow of communication. Also, inadequacies in verbal resources, especially lexically and also grammatically, in the additional languages challenge the smooth unfolding of interaction. This is exactly what this thesis study is concerned with.

1.2. Statement of Purpose

In the world today, Globalization has led peoples to come together for various purposes. As individuals with distinctive linguistic backgrounds meet, communication becomes a novel challenge. In multilingual communication, to be able to provide mutual intelligibility interactants need to be equipped with additional languages. And when using this multilingual repertoire, interactants, based on their evaluation of the constellation they find themselves in, resort to some strategies to select the proper language(s). These are called language choice strategies and cover code-switching, use of a lingua franca, and lingua receptiva. In addition, to provide mutual intelligibility both speakers and hearers use another set of strategies. These are called communication strategies. These strategies are frequently but not exclusively used in multilingual communication due to lack of shared cultural and personal backgrounds and also due to inadequacies in verbal resources, especially lexically and also grammatically, in the additional languages. Topic avoidance, circumlocution, miming and back channeling are some examples of such strategies. Multilingual individuals, based on their evaluation of the linguistic constellation, use these two sets of language choice and communication strategies creatively, to manage multilingual communication. With regard to what is mentioned above, the purpose of this study is to shed some light on the multilingual behavior of multilingual individuals in divergent linguistic constellations. More specifically, this

study aims at observing, describing, and accounting for the multilingual behavior of new-comer international students on the METU campus.

1.3. Research Questions

With regard to the aim of the study, there are five research questions as follows:

- 1.1. What language choice strategies do international students on METU campus choose based on the verbal repertoire available to them and their assessment of the communicative constellation they find themselves in? And why?
- 1.2. How do participants with Turkic and Indo-European linguistic backgrounds differ in their language choice strategies?
 - 2.1. What communication strategies do participants use to overcome interpersonal and intercultural (non)understandings?
 - 2.2. How do differences in participants' linguistic background affect their approach in using communicative strategies to overcome understanding problems?
3. Do participants with different linguistic background differ in communication act accomplishments?

1.4. Overview of Methodology

In order to answer the research questions given above, a multiple case study was designed. A total of nine participants, five with Indo-European language backgrounds and four with Turkic language backgrounds were selected through convenience sampling strategies. They were all new-comers to Turkey and METU with no prior knowledge of Turkish. As one of the defining characteristics of qualitative research in general and case study in particular is availability of multiple sources of evidence (Duff, 2008, Yin, 2011 among others), three data collection tools were used to collect data.

In the first place participants were given a 'language background' questionnaire to fill out. This was the preliminary stage of data collection. Since this study is about the linguistic performance of participants, additional information about the language background of the participants needed to be attained.

To be able to study the communicative behavior of the participants, their communication acts needed to be spotted in action. This means that linguistic performance of the participants while they were engaged in real-life communication needed to be recorded and then studied upon. To come up with a solution to protect the naturalness of the oral data some sort of communication acts were designed. Participants were asked to refer to some places and people and try to solve a predetermined information-gap problem given by the researcher. Five communication acts were estimated to provide adequate verbal sample from each participant for the data to be rich enough to indicate the multilingual behavior of the participant. To come up with a decision for selecting the five constellations four criteria were considered: probability of attendance by the international students, topic knowledge, expected language of the addressees and the level of formality. The result was the selection of the following five communication acts: post office, pharmacy, Registrar's / ICO office, a talk with an instructor and a talk with a Turkish friend.

After each communication act was done the participant and the addressee were interviewed for a general evaluation. The issues addressed were general evaluation of both interactants about the quality of the interaction, whether there were any problems in the course of communication, the language(s) used and the reason(s) for using those languages and a brief language background of the addressee.

Sole analysis of the oral data could not sufficiently provide evidence on why such and such strategies were used by each individual participant. So, while analyzing the transcribed oral data, stimulated recall of the participants provided help on understanding the moment by moment mental actions of the participants during communication.

The recorded oral data was transcribed using EXMARaLDA and analyzed in Functional Pragmatics framework.

1.5. Significance of the study

The world today is witnessing a widespread mobility of population for various reasons: tourism, trade, education, etc. This situation gives rise to linguistic issue of

mutual intelligibility. That is, as individuals coming from diverse linguistic backgrounds need to find a common means of communication. As a result, although the matter of bi- or multilingualism is as old as history itself, creating a linguistic repertoire of more than one language has gained more importance.

One of the places individuals with diverse linguistic backgrounds come together is universities. Whether self-funded, with scholarships or through international cooperation programs, every year more and more students leave their home countries to study abroad.

As individuals with more than one language come together, they need to agree on a language to communicate. Their settlement on a common code is affected by various parameters. Moreover, as the individuals who do not share the same linguistic and cultural background, proficiency and world knowledge try to communicate, they require a set of strategies to help them make up for their mis- and non-understandings and to improve the quality of the communication.

The aim of this study is to investigate language choice and communication strategies of international students on METU campus. This study can carry a four-fold significance. First, individuals who have a linguistic repertoire of more than one language have the opportunity to select the language/s to be used in any specific constellation based on their evaluation. That is, multilingual individuals can put their messages in any of the codes they have available in their linguistic repertoire. However, selecting the most suitable language/s is the responsibility the multilingual individuals has to shoulder. This selection can be affected by all the variables the show up in the constellation. For example, the multilingual individual needs to examine the addressee's language background, the topic of the conversation, etc. In the same line this study can shed light on the preferences made by multilingual individuals in various constellations they find themselves in. It can reveal the patterns of correlation between the variables of constellation on the mode of multilingual communication participants prefer and the adjustments participants make to their language use according to the changes on the variables.

Second, these language choice preferences multilingual individuals make in different constellations are dependent on the languages available in their linguistic repertoire. So, at a deeper level, this study can reveal the differences in multilingual

individuals' preferences according to their language background. Apart from the general differences between the participants based on their linguistic repertoire, there is a macro diversity among the participants that, according to their language background, puts them in two groups: in this case Indo-European and Turkic language backgrounds. This study investigates the differences that can be created in language choice strategies according to the participants' different language background.

Third, this study is a step in understanding how multilingual individuals manage problems in mutual understanding interactionally through applying communication strategies, i.e. the types of linguistic tools they resort to, as multilingual individuals feel the risk of breakdown for the communication they are engaged in. When mutual intelligibility is not yielded, or at times to guarantee the quality of mutual intelligibility, interactants use some communication strategies. The use of these strategies is highly dependent on the requirements of communication in that moment. Also, both as speakers and as hearers, interactants inevitably resort to these communication strategies. So, this study is investigating the participants' use of these communication strategies in various constellations. Also, to have a more inclusive picture of the multilingual behavior of the participants, their role not only as a speaker but also as a hearer is investigated.

Fourth, possessing varied and diverse language backgrounds can affect the use of the communication strategies in time of need. So in a more detailed analysis, this study reveals the differences individuals with different language background can show in applying communication strategies, i.e. the ways participants belonging to the two groups of Indo-European and Turkic language backgrounds can differ in their use of communication strategies based on their differences in their linguistic repertoire.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

With regard to the topic of this thesis study, three main domains need deeper exploration. First of all, the issues related to the concept of multilingualism need to be probed into. Most related to the topic of the study are the debate about multilingualism versus monolingualism which was a hot issue in the early twentieth century, a controversial issue about who to be called a multilingual, and a classification of different types of bilingualism. This part would help better understand who to be called a multilingual and to be involved as a participant in this study. When individuals with a command of more than one verbal code try to interact, another topic, directly related to the concept of multilingualism, arises: multilingual communication (from now on MLC). Thus, a brief overview about the characteristics of MLC and the multilingual individuals would deepen the understanding of the issue in hand. In a situation when individuals with several languages come together and utilize their language repertoire for a common purpose of communication, different modes of MLC may come up. A classification is proposed by the project ‘A Toolkit for Transnational Communication in Europe’. In this project four commonly used language choice strategies have been identified: English as a lingua franca (henceforth ELF), regional lingua franca, receptive multilingualism (henceforth RM), and code switching or mixing (SCW). Among these four strategies ELF, RM and CSW, which are on the focus for this study, will be discussed in the following. The last issue related to this study is that of communication strategies (from now on CS). In its young history the notion of CS has undergone different modifications and this study is not an exception. As will be

explored later, this term was coined to cover solely the strategies used by language learners in their effort to come up with solutions for their L2 insufficiencies. However, with this restricted definition, the notion cannot be comprehensive enough to cover all the strategies used by multilingual language users. As a result, foreigner talk and hearer-based strategies need to be added to the notion of CS to come to an all-encompassing concept.

At the end of this section, two points need to be clarified. One is that, not to be confused with various specific terms for knowing two, three, four or more languages (i.e. bi-, tri-, quadri-, or pentalingual), in this thesis multilingualism is used as a cover term to mean the state of having a command of more than one language. The other is that, multilingual behavior is used as the cover term to include both language choice and communication strategies.

2.2. Multilingualism

In estimation there are around 6700 languages spoken in about 200 nation states (Romaine 2004) that makes more than thirty languages for each country (although in earlity they are not evenly spread), and this means that multilingualism is an inevitable phenomenon in much of the world. In line with this fact Crystal (2003) estimates that two-thirds of the world's children grow up in a bilingual environment. Considering only English, according to Crystal (2003), 570 million people world-wide speak English, 41 percent of whom are bilingual in English and some other languages. The process of globalization increases the tendency toward multilingualism as people get acquainted with the advantages of adding other languages, especially English, to their linguistic repertoire. With this ever-growing rate of multilingualism as “a major fact of life” (Bhatia and Ritchie, 2006, p. 1), it is not surprising that the body of research on bi- and multilingualism has grown in the recent years. Various studies have investigated multilingualism from different aspects: linguistically, psychologically, neurologically, socio-culturally, and communicatively, among others. To better understand the concept of multilingualism three related issues need to be examined: defining multilingualism, the recent history

of multilingualism and its bias toward monolingualism versus bi- and multilingualism, and different classifications of multilingualism.

A basic issue in the literature of multilingualism is concerned with who should be called a bilingual or multilingual person. Generally speaking, “there is no agreed-upon definition of bilingualism among researchers” (Butler & Hakuta, 2006, p. 114). Researchers have approached the issue of competence in more than one language from different perspectives. Earlier definitions generally involved acquisition of formal rules of language (ibid.) and tended to restrict bilingualism to equal mastery of two languages (Edwards, 2006). For example, Bloomfield (1933) defined bilinguals as individuals who have “native-like control of two languages” (p. 56). Likewise, Weinreich (1953) defined it as “the practice of alternately using two languages” (p. 1). These definitions might be considered as somehow superficial and simplistic since too many issues from psycholinguistic to psychomotor to sociolinguistic to individual differences are involved in learning and using additional languages. From a psycholinguistic perspective, for example, the age the second language/s have been started learning/acquiring, the order of learning/acquiring the additional language/s, psychotypological issues and the genetical relatedness between the first and the additional language/s, the orthographic similarities/differences between the first and the second languages, etc. can affect learning and using the additional languages. Also, as learning an additional language occurs in adulthood, not being able to obtain a native-like accent in the additional language can be because of the psychomotor issue of vocal tracts not being flexible to adapt to the articulatory system of the new language. Sociolinguistically, issues related to the attitude of the native speakers of the native and additional languages to each other, cultural differences of the communities where the additional language/s are spoken, social status of the additional language/s, etc. are of relevance. In fact, it is because of these various reasons that different terms and types have been used to define multilingualism. Taking these varied issues into consideration, on the other end of the spectrum, modern treatments admit that any definition to be meaningful needs to take into account the context and the purpose (Edwards, 2006), and hence they allow for much variation. With this regard, Butler and Hakuta (2006) state that in the recent definitions there is a shift of focus towards communicative skills and

researchers therefore define bilinguals as “people who obtain communicative skills, with various degrees of proficiency, in order to interact with speakers of one or more languages in a given society” (p. 115). In a more detailed description, Grosjean (2006) distinguishes six individual areas of differences between bilinguals:

1. Language history and language relationship: Which languages (and language skills) were acquired, when and how? Was the cultural context same or different? What was the pattern of language use? What is the linguistic relationship between the bilingual’s languages?
2. Language stability: Are one or several languages still being acquired? Is the bilingual in the process of restructuring (maybe even losing) a language or language skill because of a change of linguistic environment? Has a certain stability being reached?
3. Function of languages: Which languages (and language skills) are used currently, in what context, for what purpose and to what extent?
4. Language proficiency: What is the bilingual’s proficiency in each of the four skills in each language?
5. Language modes: How often and for how long is the bilingual in a monolingual mode (i.e. when only one language is active) and in a bilingual mode (i.e. when both languages are active)? When in a bilingual mode, how much code switching and borrowing is taking place?
6. Biographical data: What is the bilingual’s age, sex, socio-economic and educational status, etc.? (pp. 34-35)

It is all clear from the above mentioned explanations that a person with a survival command of few words in the additional language cannot be equally classified as bilingual alongside more proficient bilingual who has acquired the second language to the same degree as his/her mother tongue. As Edwards (2006) points out “the question, of course, is one of degree ...” (p. 7) and coming to a unified and clear-cut definition of multilingualism is impossible in practice and specificities must be identified to come to an ad-hoc delineation of the phenomenon.

Another issue of concern is the discrimination against multilingualism in comparison with monolingualism. From the nineteenth century to the 1960s, studies indicated various detrimental effects of bilingualism on speakers. This biasedly reflected that “monolingual acquisition is the norm. Indirectly, at least, such an approach conveys the view that multilingualism deviates from what may be regarded as normal” (Meisel, 2006, p. 93). For example, Weinreich (1953) in his classical ‘Language in Contact’ cites many of the problems apparently faced with bilinguals including split national loyalties and problems of “marginalization”, emotional

difficulties, moral depravity, stuttering, left-handedness, excessive materialism, laziness, and detrimental consequences for intelligence. Also, up to the 1960s it was believed that monolinguals have superiority over bilinguals considering intelligence. Research findings of the time supported this belief. One of the most cited studies was conducted by Saer (1923) who compared 1400 Welsh-English bilinguals with English monolingual speakers and found a 10-point superiority of monolinguals in IQ tests. Parenthetically, it must be mentioned that such studies had severe methodological problems, hence not reliable results. In the same vein, Wei (2000) refers to the common story of the children who persisted in speaking two languages in school and having had their mouths washed with soap and water or being beaten with a cane. Gumperz (1982) goes even further by reporting that some bilingual speakers who mixed languages regularly still believe such behavior as bad manners or a sign of lack of education or improper control of language. Degrading bilingualism in Europe might have its roots in ‘one nation one language’ policy in some modern European nation states that “defined themselves not in the least by the (one) standard language which was chosen to be the symbolic expression of their unity” (Auer & Wei, 2007, p. 1). In the US most early studies were conducted at a time of concern with the torrent of immigrants from Europe (Edwards, 2006) many of whom had to inevitably become bilingual in English and some European languages. Before moving on to the second era of bilingual studies, it is worth noting that at the same time as these monolingual-biased comparative early studies were being conducted, a second line of studies was concerned with carefully documented description of the linguistic development of bilingual children, most popular of which are Ronjat (1913) who made detailed records of his son’s language behavior from birth to the age of 4 years and 10 months, and Leopold (1939-49) in which the author describes the language acquisition of his two daughters (cited in Hamers & Blanc, 2004).

The 1960s was a turning point for almost all language-related fields of study, including bilingualism. A major reason for this, according to Dewaele, Housen and Wei (2003), is the acknowledgement by the researchers that bilingualism is far more common than was formerly thought and even probably the norm. A number of studies were conducted on bilingual development but they were based on general theoretical

models of language acquisition (Hamers & Blanc, 2004) since the field was too young to have its own theories of bilingual language development. “It is only since that time [1980s], after an intensive but mainly descriptive initial phase, that bilingualism research has actually started to systematically process its findings theoretically” (Dewaelle, et al., 2003, p. 3).

Considering different linguistic, cognitive, developmental, and social dimensions of acquiring/learning an additional language and bearing in mind the many varieties classified by Grosjean (2006), classifying all the individuals under the universal term of bi-/multilingualism is misleading. In this regard, Gass and Selinker (2008) highlight that “... it is difficult to pigeonhole all types of bilingualism because there are numerous situations in which individuals use two languages Further, there are different combinations of ability” (p. 26). So, since 1) individual bilingualism is multi-dimensional, 2) social variables affect bilingualism, 3) the nature of bilingualism is non-categorical and continuous, 4) combinations can be independently considered for different aspects of language, 5) language use is deeply embedded in context, and 6) a bilingual’s profile may change over time and bilingualism is not static but dynamic (Butler & Hakuta, 2006), different typologies have been offered in the bi-/multilingual literature (for example, Gass & Selinker, 2008). Table 2.1 on the next page presents a typology of bilingualism adapted from Butler and Hakuta (2006). This is chosen since it gives detailed information about each type.

Beyond all the typifications on bilingualism, for this research study an individual who is able to use more than one language collectively and productively and/or receptively, for the purpose of fulfilling his/her authentic real-world communicative needs for mutual understanding is called a multilingual. In other words, this study considers multilingualism as the regular use of two (or more) languages, and multilinguals as those people who need and use two (or more) languages in their everyday life (Grosjean, 1992).

2.3. Multilingual Communication

When individuals with knowledge of more than one language (as defined above) come together for the purpose of communication, they make up a discourse that is an interplay of several languages (even if only one common language is used), called MLC. To draw a multilingual portrait of communication more clearly some points need to be clarified.

In the first place, the preliminary motive for MLC is that “the postmodern world of high mobility and easy communication pertains to need a large repertoire of verbal resources and sophisticated communicative competence” (Backus, Maracz, and ten Thije, 2011, p. 6). Moreover, the need for MLC is enhanced by “global interaction through the internet/email, and videoconferencing, in business and the academic sphere, by global cooperation in politics, academia and administration, increased migration, short and long term, and study abroad” (Clyne, 2004, p. 24).

Second, although some multilingual language users might be in the process of learning (a) language(s) or language skills whereas others have reached a certain level of stability (Grosjean, 2006), MLC is concerned with language use in interaction to fulfill communicative purposes. Language use in MLC is the creative use of all verbal resources (i.e. languages) available to the interactants in communication. This is the definition taken in this study. Explaining the simultaneous use of all verbal resources available for the multilingual language user in MLC, Grosjean (1992) discusses two totally different views toward bilingualism: the fractional view versus the wholistic view. In the fractional or monolingual view of bilingualism “the bilingual has (or should have) two separate and isolable language competencies; these competencies are (or should be) similar to those of the two corresponding monolinguals; therefore, the bilingual is (should be) two monolinguals in one person” (p. 52). For him the consequences of such a view are, among others, that bilinguals’ contact of the two languages is seen as accidental and anomalous, bilinguals are described and evaluated in terms of the fluency and balancing of the two languages, and that bilinguals’ language skills have almost always been appraised in terms of monolingual standards. However, the wholistic or bilingual view of bilingualism takes account of the integration of the two or more

language systems. In this view, each multilingual person with the languages s/he knows makes a unique linguistic configuration in the mind that cannot be decomposed into corresponding monolingual systems.

In this regard, Grosjean points out that

according to the wholistic view, then the bilingual is a fully competent speaker/hearer: he or she has developed competencies (in the two languages and possibly in the third system that is a combination of the first two) to the extent required by his or her needs and those of the environment. The bilingual uses the two languages separately or together—for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people (p. 55).

Third, and last but not least, MLC entails the use of the verbal varieties (all the languages) available in the repertoire altogether in all forms of MLC (see below for different modes of MLC). That is to say, even if only one language is realized as a MLC event, this does not mean deactivation of all other verbal resources available for the interactant. In line with this point, the Bilingual Interaction Activation Model (BIA) proves that in MLC all languages available in the linguistic repertoire of the multilingual individual becomes activated—even if not used in communication.

The BIA model assumes that recognition of words is language nonselective in nature. That is, in the process of entering the mental lexicon (the database in the mind of the language user containing all the words) to retrieve information about a word, that is called the process of lexical access, lexical form relatives of that word are activated in all languages, including the target or non-target languages (Dijkstra, 2005). Inhibitory connections then modulate competition among alternatives, both from the same or other languages. According to this model then, for example, when a Turkish-English bilingual reads the word 'toast' in English not only are similar-looking English words like 'roast', 'ghost' or 'post' activated, but also Turkish words also become active, like 'tost' or 'post'. Lexical information, that leads to activation of similar-looking words, can be orthographic, phonological or semantic. After a competition among the activated words, the unintended words are inhibited and the final outcome is the desired word.

Table 2.1 Typology of bilingualism (adapted from Butler & Hakuta, 2006)

Typology	Point of focus (Dimension)	Characteristics of SLA	Possible outcomes	Related issues and educational implications
Balanced Dominant	Relationship between proficiencies in two languages	Functional differences; related to age factor	Differences in proficiencies in L1 and L2: achieving equal level of proficiency in L2 with L1 (balanced); L2 proficiency varies but not the same as L1 (dominant)	Conceptualizing and assessing one's language proficiency; Cummins's threshold hypothesis and interdependent hypothesis; semilingualism
Compound Coordinate Subordinate	Organization of linguistic codes and meaning unit(s)	Functional differences; differences in form-meaning mapping	Differences in semantic representation and information processing for L1 and L2	Difficulties with operationalizing distinctions and testing differences
Early Simultaneous Sequential Late	Age of acquisition	Maturation differences; schooling differences	Attainment of L2 proficiency varies by age of acquisition; L1 proficiency is not addressed	Neurolinguistic differences (?); critical period hypothesis
Incipient Receptive Productive	Functional ability	Functional and motivational differences	Different proficiencies in L1 and L2 in different domains	
Additive Subtractive	Effect of L2 learning on the retention of L1	L2 as enrichment with or without loss of L1; status of a language in a given context	L2 as enrichment without loss of L1 (additive); L1 is replaced by L2 (subtractive)	Social status of individual groups and the social value of their L1 greatly influences the retention of L1; support for literacy in L1 and L2 literacy development
Elite Folk Circumstantial Elective	Language status and learning environment; literacy support of L1	Differences in language status and value of bilingualism	No or little additive value of L1 as a language minority status (folk); additive value of L2 (elite)	Support for literacy in L1 and L2 literacy development
Bicultural L1 Monocultural L2 Acultural Deculturated	Cultural identity	Differences in acculturation process	Cultural identity shaped by two cultures (bicultural); identity in one culture; loss of L1 culture	High bilingual competence does not necessarily coincide with dual identity

It is also worth noting that

bilingual word recognition also seems to be automatic in the sense that the process takes place relatively unaffected by nonlinguistic contextual factors. This applies not just to words from the native language (L1), but also to words from the L2. At the same time, when words are processed in sentence context, their processing seems to be sensitive to the semantic and syntactic aspects of the sentence (Dijkstra, 2005, p. 198).

Also, recent work has demonstrated that the same general principles that apply to orthography and visual recognition of words are also extended to phonology and the recognition of spoken word (Kroll & Dussias, 2006).

Based on the multilingual constellation depicted above for communication, House and Rehbein (2004) characterize MLC as:

- The use of several languages for the common purposes of participants
- Multilingual individuals who use language(s) to realize these purposes
- The different language systems which interact for these purposes
- Multilingual communication structures, whose purposes make individuals use several languages. (p. 1)

It is worth noting that MLC is not simply the activation of two or more languages for encoding and decoding messages for a mutual understanding. It is a complex system in its own right, for the ensemble of various languages in the mind of multilingual language user constitutes “a unique and specific linguistic configuration” (Grosjean, 1992, p. 62). That is, multilingual language users do not have separate competencies for each and every language; on the contrary, knowledge of different languages in the mind of multilinguals constructs a whole as the language competence. Furthermore, when in communication, it is not only language knowledge that makes MLC feasible for interactants; all mental, linguistic, cognitive, and interactional competencies come into play. To summarize

participants in multilingual interactions can be said to activate links between language and actions, mental activities, perception, thought patterns, knowledge systems, etc.—in short, all mental and cognitive processes involved in communication—which are active both universally and in each individual language. Due to the situation of contact between different languages as different communication systems, languages mutually influence one another and give rise to changes that may result in the creation of differentiated, multilingual communication systems (House & Rehbein, 2004, p. 2).

2.4. Modes of Multilingual Communication

Generally speaking, when two speakers who do not share the same mother tongue meet, there are three possibilities for them to get into communication: “One speaker switches to the language of the other, both persons take recourse to a third language, or both persons keep using their own language” (Bezooijen & Gooskens, 2007, p.249). The first choice is when — even though there might be another common language — one of the interactants uses the common language as his/her first language and the other as his/her additional language; choosing one of the interactant’s first language instead of other additional shared language(s) might be because of least effort, on the part of one of the interactants. The second possibility is when interactants use a language that is first language for none of them. This language is called a *lingua franca*, that is English in most cases but can be a regional one as well. The last option is the simultaneous use of two languages in communication — each interactant uses a different language — and still providing mutual understanding, hence receptive multilingualism. There can be one more case for simultaneous use of two languages which is called CSW. Another classification proposed by the project ‘A Toolkit for Transnational Communication in Europe’ brings together all the modes. In this project four commonly used language choice strategies have been identified: English as a *lingua franca*, regional *lingua franca*, *Lingua Receptive* (receptive multilingualism), and code switching or mixing. These four strategies, which are on the focus for this study, will be explained briefly in the following sections.

2.4.1. English as a Lingua Franca

The origin of the term ‘*lingua franca*’ stems from when in the 5th century Germanic Franks moved into Gaul and adopted the local language. This local language became known as the language of the Franks, or *lingua franca*. The term then came to mean an unofficial language of wider communication (Ostler, 2005). The first language to be labeled explicitly as ‘*lingua franca*’, was a variety spoken along the south-eastern coast of the Mediterranean from the fifteenth to the

nineteenth centuries. It was a pidgin language likely to have been based initially on certain Italian dialects. It also had elements from Arabic, French, Greek, Persian, Portuguese, Spanish and Turkish (Knapp & Meierkord, 2002). At various points several other languages have also played the role of lingua franca such as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Arabic, Portuguese and others (Ostler, 2005). Also, older examples of lingua franca include Aramaic in the Persian Empire, the Greek *koine* in the times of Alexander, Latin in medieval Western Europe, Arabic in the Islamic world, French in the diplomatic exchanges from the 18th century onward. In addition, there are other languages that are neither local nor global which are used in specific regions, regions that are larger than a state or political entity. These languages are called ‘Languages of Regional Communication’ (ReLan) (Janssens, Mamadouh, & Maracz, 2011). As for a brief history of ReLan in Europe Janssens, et al. (2011) state that:

prior to the establishment of modern nation states, the *language of regional communication* was usually the prestigious language of the ruling class or majority group, who had enough political power to impose their language on other parts of the political entity (be it a modern state or its predecessors). Many languages served as *language of regional communication*, like Latin, Greek, German, Italian, French, English, and Russian. ... Most of the earlier languages of regional communication stopped functioning as such after the political entities to which they were connected collapsed or lost their prestige. ... With the European integration and the evolution of nation states into the Member States of the European Communities and later the European Union, monolingualism has regained more status and practical importance (pp.72-74)

Janssens, et al. (2011) distinguish three specific types of ‘Languages of Regional Communication’ based on the mix of native and nonnative speakers involved: 1) Regional Vernacular Language, which is when users are almost exclusively L1-speakers, as in Polish in Poland-Lithuanian borderlands, Turkish in Bulgarian borderlands, and Yiddish in central eastern Europe, 2) Regional Lingua Franca, as when the language is almost exclusively spoken by L2 speakers with different L1, as in Russian in central and eastern Europe, Serbo-Croatian in former Yugoslavia and German in central Europe, and 3) regional vehicular language, that is used in the more balanced situation, the unmarked case, as in Latin in Europe in middle ages and early Renaissance, Scandinavian mutual intelligibility in Nordic countries, French in southern Europe and English in Brussels (Janssens, et al. 2011).

It is noteworthy that with granting scholarships under the condition of taking a Turkish course for a year (see below for details), and raising the quota of universities for international students, students from Turkic Republics in specific, Turkish is also becoming a regional lingua franca in the region extending from Afghanistan to the former Soviet Republics to Balkan countries and some countries in Africa. Furthermore, Classical Arabic, Persian, and Russian must not be forgotten as lingua francas that are applied among states in Middle East and African countries.

Moving on to English, before English became “*the* international language” (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 2; italics original), it had served as a lingua franca in Asia, as in India and Singapore, and Africa, like in Nigeria and Kenya, as “these regions have gone through extended periods of colonization, essentially by the users of the inner circle varieties. The linguistic and cultural effects of such colonization are now a part of their histories” (Kachru, 1985, p. 12). These are countries where English is only one of two or more languages in the linguistic repertoires of its bi- or multilinguals and that English plays an important political role in these countries (ibid.). However, due to various reasons as in expansion in scientific, technical and economic activities on an international scale together with the economic power of the US in the post-war world (Hutchinson & Waters, 1991), after World War II, English became an international language and spread over countries that did not necessarily have a colonization history but acquired English as a functioning code of wider international communication. In these regions English was/is taught and learnt as a foreign language that was/is based on native-speaker norms. This picture of a worldwide use of English in different regions, with different language users and for different purposes led Kachru (1985) to present the most influential model of World Englishes. With this regard he states that

The initial questions about the universalization of English are: what is the major stratification of use due to the internationalization? And, what are the characteristics of such stratification? The spread of English may be viewed in terms of three concentric circles representing the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages. I have tentatively labeled these: the *inner* circle, the *outer* circle (or *extended* circle), and the *expanding* circle. In terms of the users, the inner circle refers to the traditional bases of English—the regions where it is the primary language ... The outer circle involves earlier phases of the spread of English and its institutionalization in non-native contexts ... These

regions have gone through extended periods of colonization, essentially by the users of the inner circle varieties. ... Understanding the function of English in this [expanding] circle requires a recognition of the fact that English is an international language ... It is the users of this circle who actually further strengthen the claims of English as an international or universal language (Kachru, 1985, pp. 12-13; italics original).

That is, English has moved beyond its territories, where it is spoken as the first language, to become “the default option” (Hülmbaur, 2011, p. 43) of communication when people are not acquainted with each other. “Deterritorialization” (Tomlinson, 1999) gave English the status of a global language. Beneke (1991) estimates that approximately 80 percent of verbal exchanges in which English is used as a second or foreign language do not involve any native speakers of English. In other words, English does not belong to its native speakers anymore. It is a common language in its own right so all communication in which English is the medium of communication are conducted locally in a “third space” (Bhabha, 1994), an ad hoc here and now meaningfulness (Hülmbaur, 2011) and with no reference to its native speakers. Graddol (1997) concludes that “native speakers may feel the language ‘belongs’ to them, but it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its world future” (p. 10). This was the way to a new approach view of English as a shared property of all individuals with no other preferred means of communication, i.e. a lingua franca.

As for defining ELF, whether who to be included as the speakers of ELF variety of English has led different definitions to be proposed for this concept. In its narrower sense, Firth (1996) defines ELF as “a ‘contact language’ between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture and for whom English is the chosen *foreign* language of communication” (p. 240; italics original). In the same line House (1999) describes ELF interactions as “interactions between members of two or more different linguacultures in English, for none of whom English is the mother tongue (p. 74). With these definitions native speakers are excluded from ELF communication. In fact, in his article, Firth was trying to demonstrate how English may be used successfully in lingua franca communication, often with low level proficiency language users despite all the erroneous instances of language production from the viewpoint of native speaker assessment (Jenkins,

2011). However, a more useful and basic definition has been proposed by Seidlhofer (2011). Accordingly, ELF is “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option” (p. 7). According to this definition, speakers of no first languages, including English, are excluded from ELF; like speakers of all other first languages, they are assumed to be using it as an additionally acquired language. This means that native English and ELF are two separate categories and English native speakers need to acquire the ELF system, like native speakers of any other languages, to be able to communicate successfully in ELF (Jenkins, 2011).

With this view towards ELF, then, English is not a foreign language and ELF and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) are two different categories to be studied separately. Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey (2011) provide a three-fold summary of the differences as following:

- ELF is part of the paradigm of Global Englishes, according to which most speakers of English are non-native speakers, and all English varieties, native or non-native, are accepted in their own right rather than evaluated against English native speaker norms. By contrast, EFL is part of the Modern Foreign Languages paradigm, according to which most interaction involving non-native speakers is with native speakers of the language, and the goal of non-native speakers is to approximate the native variety as closely as possible.
- An ELF perspective sees non-native Englishes as different rather than deficient. That is, differences from English native speaker norms are not assumed to be signs of incompetence, as they are when viewed from an EFL perspective, but are explored as emerging or potential features of ELF.
- Whereas EFL is underpinned by theories of L1 interference and fossilization, ELF is underpinned by theories of language contact and evolution. As a result, while in EFL code-switching is regarded as evidence of a gap in a nonnative speaker’s English knowledge, in ELF it is seen as a crucial bilingual pragmatic resource.

Studying ELF in its modern sense began in 1980s with the work of two German scholars Hüllen (1982) and Knapp (1985, 1987) whose interest was in identifying the

importance of ELF as an objective for English language teaching (Jenkins, et al., 2011). The turning point in the study of ELF was in 1999 when House emphasized the overriding importance of description of ELF:

It seems vital to pay more attention to the nature of ELF interactions, and ask whether and how they are different from both interactions between native speakers, and interactions between native speakers and non-native speakers. An answer to this question would bring us closer to finding out whether and in what ways ELF interactions are actually *sui generis* (p. 74).

Efforts to codify ELF were studied in different linguistic levels: from phonological to lexicogrammatical to pragmatic. It is worth mentioning that during the decade there has occurred a shift from mainly linguistic feature-oriented research studies to studying the speakers' motives that give rise to using one form or another. The main studies and findings in these two fields are explored in some detail in the following paragraphs.

One of the earliest studies to characterize ELF was conducted by Jenkins (2000), who looked at pronunciation. Seidlhofer (2004) believes this linguistic level was chosen because it is a closed system and almost all ELF users, use the language. However, Jenkins gave a different reason. In her data, pronunciation was the most common cause of intelligibility problems. Looking for pronunciation errors that were leading to intelligibility problems for different L1 interlocutors, Jenkins culminated 'Lingua Franca Core (LFC)'. LFC consisted of phonological features that caused intelligibility problems (while other errors that did not lead to such problems were considered as non-core and excluded). The core areas identified are as follows:

1. The consonant inventory with the exception of the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ and of dark 'l' /ɫ/, none of which cause any intelligibility problems in the lingua franca data.
2. Additional phonetic requirements: aspirational word-initial voiceless stop /p/, /t/, and /k/, which were otherwise frequently heard as the lenis counterparts /b/, /d/, and /g/; and shortening of vowel sounds before fortis consonants, and the maintenance of length before lenis consonants, e.g. the shorter /æ/ in the word *sat* as contrasted with the phonetically longer /æ/ in the word *sad*.
3. Consonant clusters: no omission of sounds in word-initial clusters, e.g. in proper and strap; omission of sounds in word-medial and word-final clusters only permissible according to L1 English rules of syllable structure so that, for example, the word *friendship* can become /frenʃɪp/ but not /frendɪp/ or /frendʃɪp/.

4. Vowel sounds: maintenance of the contrast between long and short vowels, such as the /ɪ/ and /i:/ in the words live and leave; L2 regional vowel qualities otherwise intelligible provided they are used consistently, with the exception of the substitution of the sound /ɛɪ/ especially with /ɑ:./
5. Production and placement of nuclear (tonic) stress, especially when used contrastively (e.g. He came by TRAIN vs. He CAME by train) (Seidlhofer, 2004. P. 216).

Another seminal study to identify the characteristics of ELF was conducted by Seidlhofer (2004). The survey was based on the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) which was launched in the University of Vienna as the first ELF corpus. This empirical study was conducted to identify the lexicogrammatical features of ELF. The features of ELF from this corpus were:

1. Dropping the third person present tense –s
2. Confusing the relative pronouns *who* and *which*
3. Omitting definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in ENL, and inserting them where they do not occur in ENL
4. Failing to use correct forms in tag questions (e.g., *isn't it?* or *no?* instead of *shouldn't they?*)
5. Inserting redundant prepositions, as in *we have to study about ...*)
6. Overusing certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do, have, make, put, take*
7. Replacing infinitive-constructions with *that*-clauses, as in *I want that*
8. Overdoing explicitness (e.g., *black color* rather than just *black*) (Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 220)

As Seidlhofer (2004) also mentions, these features are those that most English teachers would consider as errors that need urgent correction, hence spending a lot of time and effort. Nevertheless, now they appear to be unproblematic in ELF communication. Communication problems in ELF are, indeed, those that are caused by unfamiliarity with certain vocabulary and made worse by ELF users lacking paraphrasing skills, and by ‘unilateral idiomaticity’, use of particular idiomatic expressions by one interlocutor which is not known to the other interlocutor(s) (ibid.).

Added to the lexicogrammatical features of Seidlhofer (2004) are those of Cogo and Dewey’s (2006). In the analysis of their data two more features emerged:

1. Preference for bare and/or full infinitive over the use of gerunds, as in *interested to do* rather than *interested in doing*, or as in *to study is ...* and *to read is ...*, where the infinitive is used as the subject of a clause

2. Exploited redundancy, such as ellipsis of objects/compliments of transitive verbs as in *I wanted to go with, You can borrow*, etc. (pp. 75-76).

Another list of lexicogrammatical features of ELF is presented by Kirkpatrick (2010) who is working on ELF in ASEAN (the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, namely Burma, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam). This association of nations comprises a great variety of languages spoken. They have signed a juridical document to promote a linguistic monopoly for English as a working language. The list of features found by Kirkpatrick (2010) is as follows:

1. The flexible use of definite and indefinite articles (*I know when we touch money issue it can be very controversial*);
2. absence of plural marking on nouns of measurement (*one three time or four time a years*) (and note the use of non-standard '-s' on years);
3. morpheme final consonant cluster deletion (*I check' the placard*);
4. non marking of past tense forms (*I couldn't see, that's why I sit and take a rest*);
5. use of prepositions in different contexts (*and the second purpose is to seek for a discussion*);
6. copula absence or deletion (*once this blueprint adapted*) (p. 8).

Interestingly, both Cogo and Dewey (2006) and Kirkpatrick (2010) mention that these features are not limited to ELF but are features shared by other varieties of English (as L1) such as British vernaculars. Cogo and Dewey (2006) in their justification of the omission of third person singular –s by ELF users cite Trudgill (2002) who takes a step forward to assert that in standard English the third person singular –s is a typological anomaly. Trudgill gives two reasons for this claim. Firstly, this feature is solely for third person singular form. Secondly, according to typologists the occurrence of –s is unusual because it is the least likely form to receive any marking. That is, it is more justifiable to ask not the ELF users but the L1 standard English users why they use third person singular –s since it is an unregularity.

The most important point about ELF is its view toward language. ELF views language not as an end in itself but as a means to fulfill some functions, i.e. communicative functions in interactions. Setting the goal as mutual intelligibility in an ad hoc local interaction relegates formal correctness to a secondary importance.

This view towards communication means going beyond formal description of ELF to ‘pragmatic motives’ (Cogo & Dewey, 2006) and ‘functional effectiveness’ (Hülmbaur, 2009). At the beginning, research into the pragmatics of ELF was oriented toward mutual cooperation and securing mutual understanding regardless of formal correctness. Later on the focus of studies changed to miscommunication and negotiation and resolving non-understanding (Jenkins, et al., 2011). In relation to this approach, Seidlhofer (2004, 2007) makes a generalization about the pragmatics of ELF:

1. Misunderstandings are not frequent in ELF interactions; when they do occur, they tend to be resolved either by topic change or, less often, by overt negotiation using communication strategies such as rephrasing and repetition.
2. Interference from L1 interactional norms is very rare—a kind of suspension of expectations regarding norms seems to be in operation.
3. As long as a certain threshold of understanding is obtained, interlocutors seem to adopt what Firth (1996) has termed the “let-it-pass principle,” which gives the impression of ELF talk being overtly consensus-oriented, cooperative and mutually supportive, and thus fairly robust. (Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 218)

Although scholars are trying to find some regularity to this new variety of English, coming to a comprehensive codification seems more and more challenging and far-reaching. This is because of diversity of users. Mauranen (2007) describes the ELF context as “a hybrid of many backgrounds” (p. 244). That is, the two or more language users who come together to fulfill their communication needs through ELF may come from various “nationalities, ethnicities, cultures, linguistic and social backgrounds . . . [with various] level of competence . . . [and] different experiences in learning and using the language” (Kaur, 2011, pp. 2704-5). This range of diversity makes each and every particular ELF interaction unique, unique compared to any other context of ELF use and unique at any point in a given interaction (Jenkins, et al., 2011). This is the ‘fluidity of ELF’ (Jenkins, 2006, 2011; Jenkins, et al., 2011; Cogo & Dewey, 2006). It is this fluidity that makes ELF communication unpredictable and unstable (Mauranen, 2007) and hard to describe.

2.4.2. Code Switching

The American Heritage Dictionary of English Language defines ‘code’ as “a system of signals used to represent letters or numbers in transmitting messages” (p.1519). The concept has been used in various domains as in computer sciences, military and telecommunication with varied conceptualizations. For the first time, the concept of ‘code’ was used in relation to language by Bernstein (1962a, 1962b; cited in Ataş, 2012) in his ‘the sociolinguistic code theory’ which was further developed into a social theory examining the relationships between social class, family and the reproduction of meaning systems with code as referring to the principles regulating meaning systems (Bernstein, 1973; cited in Ataş, 2012). According to Wardrough (1990) code is the most suitable and neutral term to be used to refer to “any kind of system that two or more people employ for communication” (p. 87) since “such terms as dialect, language, style, standard language, pidgin, and creole are inclined to arouse emotions” (ibid., p. 87).

Language users in their effort to convey their intended meaning, make selections from the various codes available to them in their repertoire, based on the contextual preferences. However, they sometimes switch from one code to another and even mix them and create a new system of codes and simultaneously use features from different codes, which is called CSW. Although this phenomenon might seem simple and straightforward in the first look, there is no unanimous definition of it since the “‘switching’ of *code-switching* seems stable in perception, with generally meaning *alteration* and/or *mixing*, the perception of *code*, which is a more complex and broad part, differs according to the viewpoint of the researchers ending up with various definitions” (Ataş, 2012, p. 19). Hymes (1977) defines it as “the alternate use of two or more languages, varieties of a language, or even speech styles” (p. 103). Valdés-Fallis (1978) with a more linguistic inclination defines CSW as “the alternating use of two languages on the word, phrase, clause or sentence level” (p. 6). Poplack (1980) in a more general and discursive viewpoint states that CSW is “the alteration of two languages within a single discourse or constituent” (p. 583). In the same line, Gumperz (1982) views CSW as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or

subsystems” (p. 89) and Vivien Cook (1991) defines it as “going from one language to the other in midspeech when both speakers know the same languages” (p. 63). All in all, it might be said that juxtaposition of elements from more than one code, generally two, is the key to call a mode of MLC as CSW.

Before discussing the typologies and approaches to the study of CSW, some clarification is worth to be made between CSW versus borrowing and CSW versus code-mixing. With regard to the difference between the first pair, according to Gumperz (1982), borrowing is introducing single words or phrases from a variety into another which might also be integrated into the grammatical system of the borrowing language while CSW relies on meaningful juxtaposition of what speakers process as string formed according to the internal rules of two distinct grammatical systems. That is, there is a morphological and frequently phonological adoption of the borrowed word or short phrase into the base language (Grosjean, 2010). With regard to the distinction between CSW and code-mixing, Ritchie and Bhatia (2006) state that:

We use the term code-switching (CS) to refer to the use of various linguistic units (words, phrases, clauses, and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems across sentence boundaries within a speech event. In other words, CS is intersentential and may be subject to discourse principles. It is motivated by social and psychological factors. We use the term code mixing (CM) to refer to the mixing of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a sentence. In other words, CM is intrasentential and is constrained by grammatical principles and may also be motivated by social-psychological factors (p. 337).

However, this categorization is not accepted by all researchers. Muysken (2000), for example, uses code-mixing as a generic term and CSW as the umbrella term. In this study, as well, there is no distinction made between CSW and code-mixing and CSW is used as the umbrella term to cover sorts of code juxtapositions.

Throughout the history of the field, various attempts have been made to put different instances of CSW into classes and come up a categorization. One the earliest classifications came from Blom and Gumperz (1972) who studied CSW between dialects in Hemmesberget, a fishing village in Norway. In this study, they outlined the formal and informal functions dialect switching played in various social settings and events. They identified that instances of CSW between standard and

local dialects were either ‘situational’, which was an accommodating to a change in social situation and occurred when participants redefined the rights and obligations of each other, or ‘metaphorical’, that is triggered by changes in topic.

In addition, a seminal study by Poplack (1980) added a linguistic perspective to the categorization of CSW. In her study, she analyzed the speech of twenty Puerto Ricans born in New York City for instances of Spanish-English CSW and proposed the ‘equivalence constraint’ and the ‘free morpheme constraint’ as two constraints as rules governing CSW. With regard to ‘equivalence constraint’ she argued that

code-switches will tend to occur at points in discourse where juxtaposition of L1 and L2 elements does not violate a syntactic rule of either language, i.e. at points around which the surface structures of the two languages map onto each other. According to this simple constraint, a switch is inhibited from occurring within a constituent generated by a rule from one language which is not shared by the other (p. 586).

And according to the ‘free morpheme constraint’ “codes may be switched after any constituent in discourse provided that constituent is not a bound morpheme” (ibid., p. 585-586). In addition to these constraints, from linguistic viewpoint she identified three types of CSW: 1) inter-sentential switching, which occurs between sentences at clause or sentence boundaries, 2) intra-sentential switching, that takes place within a sentence, and 3) tag switching, that involves inserting tags and interjections into the sentence of another language.

Another line of studies in CSW has tried to look at *why* the phenomenon occurs and investigate CSW from a sociolinguistic perspective. In one of these studies Gardner-Chloros (2009) recognizes three aspects for CSW: 1) factors independent of speakers and circumstances in which the varieties are used and which affect the speakers of that variety in a particular community, 2) factors dependent on the speakers as both individuals and members of a variety of sub-groups such as social networks and relationships, attitudes and ideologies, and 3) and factors within the conversation where the CSW occurs.

Looking at CSW from the conversational point of view, Auer (1984, 1998) argues that macro-linguistic analysis of the speech situation does not completely determine language choice including CSW, and that CSW is not limited to an intra-sentential case which might be obedient to syntactic analysis (Auer, 1998). That is,

sociolinguistic and grammatical (linguistic) approaches to the study of CSW do not explore all the features completely so

there is a level of conversational structure in bilingual speech which is sufficiently autonomous both from grammar (syntax) and from the larger societal and ideological structures to which the languages on question and their choice for a given interactional episode are related (Auer, 1998, p. 4).

From a conversational approach, thus, he categorizes three aspects of CSW: 1) discourse-related switching, that organizes a conversation by contributing to the interactional meaning of a particular utterance, 2) participant-related switching, that is concerned with the preferences of participants, and 3) preference-related switching which indexes extra-conversational knowledge.

In another typology Muysken (2000) classifies CSW into three groups: insertion, alteration and congruent lexicalization. The first type, insertion, is characterized by inserting lexical items or entire constituents from a language into the structure of the other (matrix or base) language. The second type, alteration, occurs where the two languages seem relatively separate with a relative clause in language A and the subordinate clause in language B. The third type, congruent lexicalization, occurs in cases where the grammatical structure of the core-switched sentence is shared either partly or fully. The three examples below illustrate these three types:

1. CSW between Quechua – Spanish: “Chay-ta las dos de la noche-ta chayamu-yk” (Muysken 2000, p. 63).
(There at two in the morning we arrive).
2. CSW between French – Dutch: “Je téléphone à Chantal he, meestal voor commieskes te doen en eten” (Treffers-Daller, 1994; cited in Muysken 2000, p. 97).
(I call Chantal, hm, mostly to go shopping and get food).
3. CSW between Sranan – Dutch: “Soort bijdrage yu kan lever op het ogenblik gi a opleving fu a kulturu?” (Bolle, 1994; cited in Muysken 2000, p. 139).
(Which contribution can you make at this moment for the revival of culture?)

Finally, the Matrix Language Frame Model (MLF) (Myers-Scotton, 1992, 1993b, 2002, 2006) deserves some discussion since it is ground-breaking in systematically investigating CSW. This model is inspired by Poplack’s (1980) morpho-syntactic approach and thus is a morphological approach to study CSW. It is specifically designed to explain structural configurations found in CSW and is a

comprehensive treatment for intra-sentential CSW and also classic CSW (Myers-Scotton, 2006). MLF claims that structuring of sentences containing CSW is directed by two interrelated hierarchies: the ‘Matrix Language’ versus the ‘Embedded Language’ and the ‘System Morpheme’ versus the ‘Content Morpheme’. With regard to the first hierarchy Myers-Scotton (1992) states that CSW involves at least two languages used in the same conversation and of these two languages, one language is known as the ‘matrix language (ML)’ which “defines the surface structure positions for content words and functional elements” (MacSwan, 2006, p. 291). Myers-Scotton (1993b) claims that the ML is the language that contributes the greater number of morphemes to the discourse, excluding cultural borrowings from the Embedded Language for new objects and concepts. On the other hand, there is the Embedded Language (EL) into which the insertion from the ML is made. The ML and EL do not participate equally in constituent structure in that even though both languages are active when a speaker engages in CSW, the ML is always more active. Moreover, according to the ‘System Morpheme’ versus ‘Content Morpheme’ hierarchy, another tenet of MLF is that there is a differential accessing of content morphemes (nouns and verb stems) and system morphemes (inflections and articles) in the sense that not all morpheme types come equally from the ML and EL. In the MLF, the ML is identified by the relative frequency of morphemes. However, in cases where there is extensive use of CSW, identification of the ML might be more difficult, for which reason the MLF has received some criticism. It was argued that determining the matrix language may not always be easy as “there is always an asymmetry between the ML and the embedded language (EL)” (Myers-Scotton, 2000, p. 16).

2.4.3. Receptive Multilingualism

As the title suggests, in this mode of MLC there is reliance on the receptive competences of the interactants. RM is when the interactant uses one language productively as the speaker but as a hearer receives the other interactant’s speech in a different language, a language s/he does not have sufficient competence to produce but can comprehend due to genetical proximity of the languages or due to shared common cultural background (forthcoming). That is, in addition to having productive

commands in one language, each interactant in receptive multilingual communication needs to know the other interactant's language passively and understand it when receiving that language. So, "the potential receivability of linguistic forms is of relevance here" (House & Rehbein, 2004, p. 6). The definition given by Zeevaert and ten Thije (2007) restricted the languages involved only to mother tongues of the interactants. They defined RM as referring to "the language constellation in which interlocutors use their respective mother tongue while speaking to each other" (Zeevaert & ten Thije, 2007, p.1). However, Rehbein, ten Thije, and Verschik (2012) gave a broader scope to the languages that can be used by interactants irrespective of whether it is the mother tongue or any additional language. They define RM as "a mode of multilingual communication in which interactants employ a language and/or a language variety different from their partner's and still understand each other without the help of any additional *lingua franca*" (Rehbein, ten Thije, and Verschik 2012, pp. 248-249).

The history of studying RM goes back in 1950s when Voegelin and Harris (1951) designed a two-layered testing method consisting of an interrogative interview and a comprehension test. The interview was designed to find out the participants' ideas about language relatedness and mutual intelligibility among languages, and the auditory comprehension test, prepared in each of the indigenous languages of Americas under investigation, was designed to rate the mutual intelligibility based on participants' translation of what they heard into their native languages. Voegelin and Harris's method was used by other researchers such as Hickerson, Turner and Hickerson (1952), who investigated testing procedures for estimating transfer of information among Iroquois dialects and languages. Also, Olmsted (1954), used Voegelin and Harris's (1951) method in a study of non-reciprocal intelligibility among Achumawi and Atsugewi languages of Americas, and Biggs (1957), used it to test mutual intelligibility among six closely-related Yuman languages of Americas (cited in Akkuş, 2013).

All the above mentioned studies used translation as the method for measuring degree of mutual intelligibility and it was not until 1959 that this method was questioned. Wolff (1959) criticized that translation is not a controlled method as "uncontrollable factors enter into the testing situation" (p. 34). This criticism was

based on his observation of mutual intelligibility between Nigerian languages which ranged from closely related to less related. His observation of mutual intelligibility of closely related and less closely related languages led him to put a step forward and argue that genetical proximity per se cannot guarantee mutual intelligibility and close communication between languages involved is also an important factor. In this regard he states that

Linguistic (phonemic, morphemic, lexical) similarity between two dialects does not seem to guarantee the possibility of interlingual communication; similarly, the existence of interlingual communication is not necessarily an indication of linguistic similarity between two such dialects (Wolff, 1959, pp. 441-442; cited in Romaniuk, 2010).

‘Semicommunication’ was the term coined by Haugen (1966) in his study of the mutual intelligibility of Scandinavian languages. Norden countries (including three sovereign states of Denmark, Norway and Sweden) and their common cultural heritage, which unites these nations to some degree and differentiates them from other nations, were focused on in this study. Haugen was trying to investigate the “actual attitudes and experiences involved in inter-Scandinavian communication” (ibid., p.282) by collecting statistically valid information concerning the functions and problems of language within the social setting of inter-Scandinavian communication. To this end he designed a questionnaire consisting of four sections and forty five questions. In the first section there were demographic questions about sex, age, birthplace, present and past residence, marital status, nationality, occupation and title, education, and political affiliation of the participants. The second section consisted of questions related to the participants’ willingness to change certain spelling rules in their own language to accommodate inter-Scandinavian communication. The third and fourth sections contained 15 identical questions which were designed to test the participant’s linguistic relationship to each of the two sister countries. The participant was asked how often and for how long s/he had visited each country or how many persons of that nationality s/he had met, how well s/he had understood the other language, and how well s/he had been understood. S/he was asked to report any cases of misunderstanding s/he had experienced. S/he was asked whether s/he made any changes in her/his own speech to improve understanding. After preparation in English and translation into the three languages they were

mailed to 300 people in each country who were chosen randomly from the national telephone directory. The results of the study showed that 1) Nordic cooperation is of primary interest for members of the academic and middle classes; 2) Danes show the most active interest in Nordic cooperation; and 3) a cleft between Danish and its Nordic neighbors created by phonetic developments constitutes a basis both for incomprehension and an irritation and general distaste for Danish on the part of other countries.

It must be noted here that, according to Zeevaert (2007) there are differences between RM communication and semicommunication. RM is used to refer to communication between speakers of languages which are mutually unintelligible due to linguistic distance and also languages that are intelligible for neighboring communities but cannot be regarded as dialects of the neighboring community since it has a highly developed literacy. On the other hand, semicommunication, as a subcategory of RM, is only used to describe communication among languages which are mutually intelligible for the neighboring communities. He lists studies that have investigated semicommunication among various related languages such as Czech-Polish (Hansen, 1987), Croatian-Serbian (Haugen, 1990), Hindi-Urdu (Haugen, 1990), Icelandic-Faroese (Braunmüller & Zeevaert, 2001), Portuguese-Spanish (Coseriu, 1988; Jensen, 1989;), Spanish-Italian (Hansen, 1987), Frisian-Dutch (Feitsma, 1986), Macedonian-Bulgarian (Haugen, 1990) or Russian-Bulgarian (Braunmüller & Zeevaert, 2001).

In some other studies Turkic languages were studied. Sağın-Şimşek and König (2012) investigated Azerbaijani and Turkish language understanding within the framework of receptive multilingualism. The participants in this study were a group of 30 Turkish university students. The study took 40 minutes in total and was conducted in a classroom setting. Before the test, the participants were asked to fill a language awareness questionnaire. Questionnaire items included their age, gender, home language, other languages known, attitudes towards Azerbaijani, and their self-reflections about how well they could speak and understand. A language understanding test which composed of two Azerbaijani newspaper articles with an average level of complexity in both written and spoken forms was conducted. Later on, self-reflections and comments of participants were collected. The study

suggested that the intelligibility was not high as estimated in spite of the fact that these two languages are classified as closely-related languages of Turkic origin.

Azeri-Turkish receptive multilingualism was also the focus of the thesis study conducted by Akkuş (2012). The study included the forms and functions of interjections in an Azerbaijani-Turkish receptive multilingual communication. The aim was to find out the contribution of interjections as indicators of understanding. Two Azerbaijani and four Turkish university students were selected for this study. To elicit the instances of interjections, a popular word guessing party game called Taboo was selected and modified in accordance with the scope of the study. Three sessions of word guessing party game Taboo were played by the Turkish and Azerbaijani interlocutors and they were video-recorded for the analysis. The approximately two hours of data obtained from these recordings were transcribed using the transcription softwares EXMARaLDA and PRAAT. The results indicated asymmetrical relationship between Azerbaijani and Turkish languages caused signals of the instances of miscommunication.

In another study Sağın-Şimşek (2014) examined receptive multilingual communication of Turkmen-Turkish in academic counseling sessions. The aim of the study was to investigate the contribution of linguistic and extralinguistic factors that might facilitate and/or constraint interlocutors' understanding in receptive multilingual communications. To this end, elicited conversations of a Turkish academic advisor and a Turkmen university student were video recorded and analyzed. The results of the data analysis indicated that linguistic factors such as morpho-syntactic and lexical similarities between the two languages do not guarantee but facilitate understanding. In the case of extralinguistic factors, the study verified that the use of institutional keywords in academic counseling sessions activates the interlocutors' common institutional knowledge, and as a result the interlocutors' understanding is facilitated.

In a paper presented at the 16th International Conference on Turkish Linguistics, Kaffash Khosh (2012) investigated accommodation in Azeri-Turkmen and Azeri-Kyrgyz Conversations. The participants of this study were an Azeri, a Turkmen and a Kyrgyz student. The Azeri participant instigated communication with the Turkmen and the Kyrgyz participants separately while keeping the topic of communication

constant. The two interactions were video-recorded and transcribed using the transcription software EXMARaLDA. The results of the study indicated that, with regard to the relative linguistic distance between Azeri and Turkmen versus Azeri and Kyrgyz, in receptive multilingual mode of communication the Azeri speaker used more repair strategies of repeat and reformulation when speaking to the Kyrgyz interactant than when speaking to the Turkmen interactant.

In a more comprehensive research project funded by TÜBİTAK (Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) the rate of understanding in receptive multilingualism between Turkish and a variety of Turkic languages including Azeri, Turkmen, Kazakh and Uzbek was investigated. The languages were chosen based on their genetical proximity to Turkish. For each of the Turkic languages four participants were chosen. They were all new-comer students to Turkey. Each participant's communication with a native speaker of Turkish was video-recorded. The data was then transcribed using EXMARaLDA. The final step was analyzing the data in the framework of Functional Pragmatics. Instances of full understanding, partial understanding and non-understanding were determined for each group. The results of the study demonstrated that the highest level of mutual understanding was with Azeri-Turkish receptive multilingual communication, with Turkmen-Turkish following. Kazakh-Turkish and Uzbek-Turkish receptive multilingual communication was not so successful and problems of understanding impeded successful mutual understanding in those communication incidents. It was concluded that closely related languages could be more mutually intelligible in receptive multilingual communication.

Border areas can be optimal places to study RM since there is inevitably a great deal of contact between people from the neighboring nations and there are often constant interactions for various reasons such as governmental and custom affairs, commerce and traveling. This leads to developing receptive competence of the neighboring country's language. The receptive multilingual situation in the Dutch-German border area of Euregio-area, including three cities of Enschede, Münster and Osnabrück, was studied by Beerkens (2010). The study included real communication settings of civil society and governmental organizations. The analysis of 29 hours of corpus, which was focused on the active role of the speaker in the spoken discourse,

was based on an online sociolinguistic survey in order to reveal the choice of interactant's on language mode. The study used qualitative functional pragmatic discourse analysis to investigate the functional aspects of RM and it indicated that RM as a multilingual mode of communication was successfully utilized for business communication in the Dutch-German borderline.

In an effort to elaborate on the receptive component of RM, as essential in grasping the notion of understanding and misunderstanding, and to operationalize the different receptive mechanisms involved, Rehbein, et al. (2012) introduced “lingua receptiva” (abbreviated LaRa) as “the ensemble of those *linguistic, mental, interactional*, as well as *intercultural competencies* which are *creatively* activated when interlocutors listen to linguistic actions in their ‘passive’ language or variety” (p. 249, italics original).

One point needs to be mentioned at the end of this part. Mutual intelligibility in this mode is partially dependent on the genetical proximity of the languages, i.e. languages coming from the same family have a higher chance being mutually understandable. However, this factor cannot be the only or even the main reason for successful RM communication since “people sharing common cultural traditions, common professional knowledge or general common interests are consequently more successful than people without a common background” (Zeevaert & ten Thije, 2007, p. 10). Furthermore, social status of the speakers of the language can have effects in using or not using that language for communication. In this regard RM offers the most equal status for communication as each person uses his/her own language. Concerning this issue Ribbert and ten Thije (2007) state that

besides linguistic distance, differences in the socio-political status of the two languages and nations also play a part in the determination of receptive multilingualism as a form of multilingual communication. Receptive multilingualism is the most equal mode of communication, as none of the interlocutors has to adapt to the other, nor are they forced to use a lingua franca. Therefore, we would rather expect to find receptive multilingualism in situations in which the two languages have an equal socio-political status (p. 76).

2.4.4. Final Remarks on Language Choice Strategies

In this modern world that geographical borders are faded by international and worldwide business, education, politics, tourism, media, and internet, multilingualism has become as the default norm and inevitable. In multilingual communication, individuals based on linguistic, sociolinguistic and interpersonal issues, as in topic of the communication, addressee, addressee's linguistic repertoire(s), social norms, identity, and so on, choose one or more language in each specific constellation (whether productively, receptively, or both). That is, any minute change in the constellation, even in the same interaction, can lead to a change in the language/s being used. For example, a change in topic from everyday-talk to an academic issue between two classmates can lead to a change in the agreed language from L1 to academic or a combination of L1 and academic. Also, Hülmbaur (2009) shows how ELF speakers make use of shared non-nativeness in the form of CSW, transfer from L1 and use of cognates. It means that there can sometimes be no clear-cut boundaries between the modes in interactions. This is natural since multilinguals are creative in exploiting all the resources available to accomplish their communicative goals.

2.5. Communication Strategies

In line with and, in a sense, encompassing the language choice strategies discussed above, are communication strategies (CS). As a new area of research in SLA, CS was first mentioned in the early 1970s. A variety of approaches to the concept from the 1970s to the 1990s has substantially changed understanding of CS and its taxonomies. Thus, a brief review of the history might be helpful for coming to an understanding of the concept. However, in the literature CS are defined as devices used by second language learners and it is not conceived of broadly enough to encompass strategies used by proficient language users. Thus, after discussing the history of CS, their limits will be discussed and two additional theories will be introduced to come to a broader and more all-encompassing view of CS, as needed for the current study. Finally, a revised definition will be presented.

2.5.1. Historical Outline of CS

Selinker (1972) in his classical article on interlanguage introduced the notion of ‘strategies of L2 communication’ for the first time (beside language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning and overgeneralization of target language linguistic material) as she discussed about “processes *central* to second-language learning” (p. 215). She did not, however, go into details as what these strategies are. In the same year, Savignon (1972) published a language teaching experience in which she discussed about the importance of ‘coping strategies’ (the term she used for CS) in communicative language teaching and testing. One year later, Varadi (1973 but published in 1980) “gave a talk, at a small European conference, generally considered the first systematic analysis of strategic language behavior ... although it informally circulated among researchers, it only came out in print in 1980” (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997, p. 175). In his article, Varadi discusses message adjustment, in particular, as an attempt by the learner to communicate his/her intended meaning in an alternative form due to inadequacies in the interlanguage structures to convey the thought.

The first definition and taxonomy of CS was given by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976). This definition was an attempt to reflect on ‘production strategy’ defined by Tarone, Frauenfelder and Selinker (1976). Tarone, Cohen and Dumas thought that “certain interlanguage strategies associated with production also apply to comprehension of language as well” (pp. 77-78), so to broaden the terminology they preferred ‘communication strategy’ to production strategy and defined it 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. 78). Table 2.2, on the next page, presents the first list of CS determined by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976) with their definitions. It is worth noting that these strategies were determined to be used for interlanguage deficiencies in all levels of phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon. In 1977, Tarone, published another seminal experimental work and added some more details to Varadi’s (1973) work and the taxonomy presented by herself and her associates in the two previous works a year before. In her study she identifies five basic CS of

avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime. Among the five basic CS and their subcategorization, 'mime' was introduced for the first time as "use of nonverbal communication strategies by a second-language learner" (p. 199).

Canale and Swain's seminal paper with proposing a new theoretical framework for communicative competence and including strategic competence beside grammatical and sociolinguistic competence was the beginning of a turning point in the study of CS. They defined strategic competence as

verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence. Such strategies will be of two main types: those that relate primarily to grammatical competence (e.g. how to paraphrase grammatical forms that one has not mastered or cannot recall momentarily) and those that relate more to sociolinguistic competence (e.g. various role-playing strategies, how to address strangers when unsure of their social status) (Canale & Swain, 1980, pp. 30-31).

Another seminal paper of the same year was from Tarone who reconceptualized the notion of CS and differentiated them from 'production strategies' (and 'learning strategies'). She redefined CS as "mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where the requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone, 1980, p. 420). This was a broader view and introduced interactional perspective to CS. "Mastery of strategic competence in a language entails the ability to transmit information to a hearer and correctly interpret information received" (Tarone & Yule, 1987, p. 50), and if repair mechanisms are used for this joint negotiation of meaning, where both interlocutors are involved in constructing a shared meaning, and not just to correct linguistic form, they can also be considered as CS (Tarone, 1980).

Table 2.2 Communication strategies (Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976)

Transfer from Native Language	The type of negative transfer from the native language resulting in utterances that are not just inappropriate but actually incorrect by native standards.
Overgeneralization	The application of a rule of the target language to inappropriate target language forms or contexts.
Prefabricated Pattern	A regular patterned segment of speech employed without knowledge of its underlying structure, but with the knowledge as to which particular situations call for what patterns.
Overelaboration	The learner in an attempt to produce careful target language utterances produces utterances which seem stilted and inordinately formal.
Epenthesis (vowel insertion)	The learner is unable to produce unfamiliar consonant clusters in the target language, and in attempts to produce them, s/he uses schwa vowel between consonants.
Avoidance	These strategies are all different means of getting around target language rules or forms which are not yet an established part of the learner's competence.
a) Topic avoidance 1) Change Topic 2) No Verbal response	It is the attempt to totally evade communication about topics which require the use of target language rules or forms which the learner does not yet know very well.
b) Semantic Avoidance	The learner evades the communication of content for which the appropriate target language rules and forms are not available, by talking about related concepts which may presuppose the desired content.
c) Appeal to Authority 1) Ask for Form 2) Ask If Correct 3) Look It Up	It is when the learner asks someone else to supply a form or lexical item, asks if a form or item is correct or else looks it up in a dictionary.
d) Paraphrase 1) High Coverage Word 2) Low Frequency 3) Word Coinage 4) Circumlocution	It refers to the rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable, target language construction, in order to avoid a more difficult form or construction.
e) Message Abandonment	Communication on a topic is initiated but then cut short because the learner runs into difficulty with a target language form or rule.
f) Language Switch	The learner transports a native word or expression, untranslated, into the interlanguage utterance.

This interactional view toward the use of CS and had three necessary criteria:

1. Speaker's desire to communicate a meaning x to a listener,
2. Speaker's belief that the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure to communicate meaning x is not available or not shared with the listener,
3. Speaker's choice between:
 - a. To avoid attempt to communicate meaning x or
 - b. Attempt alternative means to communicate meaning x. trying alternative means stops when the speaker makes sure there is shared meaning with the listener (Tarone, 1980, 1981).

In Tarone's idea criterion 3b is missing with production strategies; i.e. when using a production strategy the speaker is trying to use linguistic system efficiently and clearly, with a minimum of effort. With this framework, Tarone excluded communication maintaining fillers and gambits from CS since they are not offering alternative means to communicate the intended message. This issue is addressed by Dörnyei and Scott, explored in more details below.

In an effort to re-examine the earlier position on communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), Canale (1983) published another seminal paper in which he offered the broadest extension of the concept of CS. He proposed that CS involve any attempt to "enhance the effectiveness of communication (e.g., deliberately slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect)" (p.11). This definition was broader than any other proposed before and included not only problem solving aspect, but also other strategies that increase the quality of mutual understanding. Therefore "a *communication strategy* in the most general sense is a plan of action to accomplish a communication goal; the enhancement of communication effect is certainly such a goal" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, p. 179, italics original). Dörnyei and Scott (1997), also, include methods of managing potentially difficult discourse situations as "communication-enhancing strategies" (p. 180) as in methods used to interrupt someone, methods to hold the floor, and ways to close a conversation. Swain (1984) also touches upon this enhanced conceptualization of CS by giving the two-fold role of "either to enhance the effectiveness of communication or to compensate for breakdowns in communication" (p. 189).

In 1983 Færch and Kasper (1983a) published an edited volume, *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*, and collected the most important published papers together. They defined CS as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an

individual presents as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (Færch and Kasper 1983b, p. 36). Like Tarone, for them, also, any filled pause, verbal or nonverbal, is a temporal variable of speech performance and cannot be counted as CS.

In 1990s it was Færch and Kasper’s definition of ‘problem orientedness’ and ‘consciousness’ that prompted Dörnyei (1995) and Dörnyei and Scott (1995b) to include stalling strategies as CS since “the conscious use of communication maintenance fillers and gambits appear to satisfy both criteria” (Dörnyei, 1995, p. 59). Including stalling strategies as CS is because for L2 speakers the primary source of communication problems is insufficient time for processing and these stalling strategies, whether in the form of (non)verbal fillers or hesitation gambits, help language speakers to gain time to think and keep the channel open for communication, hence problem-solving strategies (Dörnyei, 1995, Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

In his 1995 study, Dörnyei and Scott investigated communication strategy use of 44 Hungarian learners of English and yielded data of over 60 different types of coping devices. In this study they aimed at covering all the various types of CS in the literature of SLA (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Four types of language problems cause the CS to be used by learners: 1) resource deficits, which concern gaps in the L2 knowledge of speakers preventing them from verbalizing a planned message; 2) processing time pressure, which concerns the L2 speaker’s frequent need for more time to process and plan speech than would be naturally available in fluent real-life communication; 3) own-performance problems, which the learner detects during the continuous process of monitoring his/her own speech; and 4) other-performance problems, which concern problems caused by the interlocutor’s speech in the speaker. The management of these problems is by using coping devices (i.e. CS). They can be either direct, by providing an alternative manageable means of overcoming the problem and conveying the intended message across (although sometimes modified), indirect, by facilitating the conveyance of meaning by creating the circumstances for mutual intelligibility, or interactional, by participants’ carrying out trouble-shooting exchanges cooperatively (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995b). Instances of these three types of CS are given in the Table 2.3 with their description.

Table 2.3 List of CS identified in Dörnyei and Scott (1995b)

DIRECT COPING DEVICES	
Message abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty
Message reduction	Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language-wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources
Message replacement	Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it
Circumlocution	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action. Several illustrative approaches may be combined.
Approximation	Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure.
Approximation: preposition	A subclass of approximation when a preposition is substituted by an alternative one. The reason for treating this coping device separately from approximation is that it shows different features, the most obvious of which is that it usually results in ungrammatical utterances. Whereas the approximation of content words typically results in grammatical solutions.
Use of all-purpose words	Extending a general, “empty” lexical item to context where specific words are lacking.
Word-coinage	Creating a nonexisting L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.
Restructuring	Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan.
Literal translation from L1	Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2. In some cases a literal translation can result in a good English structure.
Literal translation of prepositions	Similarly to ‘approximation: preposition’ the transfer of prepositions was considered to be a subclass literal translation.
Literal translation: false friends	Expressing the meaning a L1 word by using a L2 word very similar in form but, in fact, meaning something else.
Literal translation from L3	The source of the interlingual transfer is a L3 which the speaker is currently learning or is competent in.
L1-based foreignizing	Using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology.
L3-based foreignizing	The source of foreignizing is a L3 word.
Code switching to L1	Including L1 word with L1 pronunciation in L2 speech. This may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Code switching to L3	The source of the interlingual borrowing is a L3
Use of similar-sounding words	Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or nonexistent) which sounds more or less like the target item.
Mumbling	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.
Omission	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said.
Retrieval	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.
Self-rephrasing	One type of repetition appears to be somewhere between self-repetition and self-repair: the speaker repeats the term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase, in spite of the first version being already appropriate and therefore not necessitating a repair.
Question rephrasing	Reformulating a question within the same term.
Self-repair	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech typically after the wrong form has been uttered; however, advanced L2 speakers can occasionally monitor their intended output at the planning stage and can make corrections before actually uttering the incorrect form.
Other-repair	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech for politeness' sake, other-repairs are often phrased as confirmation requests in which the trigger is changed, using <i>oh</i> , you mean ...
Mime	Describing how concepts nonverbally or accompanying a verbal coping device with a visual illustration.
INDIRECT COPING DEVICES	
Use of fillers	Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and mention discourse at times of difficulty.
Inappropriate transfer of fillers	The use of certain fillers was the result of transfer from the L1 and was inappropriate in the L2.
Inappropriately fossilized fillers	The use of inappropriate fillers not as a result of L1 interference.
Code switching: L1 Structure words	Using highly automatized L1 structure words in L2 unconsciously.
Self-repetition	Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.
Other-repetition	Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time. It can also occur with a question intonation when it is clear that the speaker is not expecting an answer; that is, the repetition is not a clarification question.
Lengthened sound	Lengthening a sound in hesitation.
Umiming and erring	Using nonlexicalized filled pauses ("er", "uh", "mhm")
Feigning understanding	Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by feigning understanding.
Verbal strategy markers	Using verbal marking phrases before or after a coping device to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.
Nonverbal strategy markers	A nonverbal signal having a similar function to verbal markers.
Self-confirmation	Self-confirmation occurs after a repair or retrieval sequence, and serves as a signal that the final form the person used does carry the intended meaning adequately.

Table 2.3 (Continued)

INTERACTIONAL COPING DEVICES	
Direct appeal for help	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning the gap in one's L2 knowledge. When the speaker shares the L1 with the interlocutor (e.g. in monolingual language classes) the appeal may be in the L1.
Indirect appeal for help	Trying to elicit help indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally. Similarly to direct appeals, this may sometimes happen in the L1.
Asking for repetition	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.
Asking for clarification	Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar structure.
Asking for confirmation	Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly.
Guessing	Guessing is similar to a confirmation request but the latter implies a greater degree of certainty regarding the key word, whereas guessing involves real indecision.
Expressing non-understanding	Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.
Interpretive summary	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly.
Asking persistence questions	Asking the same question (or an alternative version) after some requested information/clarification has failed to be provided either because the interlocutor was not forthcoming for some reason or because he/she has misunderstood the question.
Comprehension check	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you.
Own-accuracy check	Checking that what you said was correct by asking concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation. Confirmation is typically signaled nonverbally by the interlocutor (e.g. with a nod) without generating a verbal exchange.
Response: repeat	Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other-repair).
Response: repair	Providing other-initiated self-repair.
Response: rephrase	Rephrasing the trigger.
Response: expand	Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context.
Response: confirm	Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.
Response: reject	Rejecting what the interlocutor has said or suggested without offering an alternative solution.

With regard to the use of CS, it is worth noting that CS need not necessarily be used one at a time. That is, two or more CS can be used together to solve one specific problem or one be used within the other. For example, Wongsawang (2001) in a

study which was aimed at exploring CS use for culture-specific notions in L2, came across with participants who used “embedded CS” (ibid., p. 123). In this study, some participants used all-purpose words with circumlocution since when using semantically empty words more explanation is needed to clarify what that means, hence using one strategy within another.

Another point about the use of CS is that it is generally accepted that CS are not unique to L2 speakers for overcoming lack of linguistic repertoire of inproficient language learners. Since communication problems and misunderstandings can also occur in L1, native speakers can also employ CS (Yule and Tarone 1997, Dörnyei 1995). With this perspective, CS “seem to be used between dialects of the same language. In fact, to the extent that there is always a gap between a speaker and a hearer’s linguistic and semantic systems, this is undoubtedly so” (Tarone, 1981, p. 289).

At the end it must be noted that there are different CS-related topics in the literature such as effects of task on strategy choice, various effects of proficiency level of learners on strategy choice, the relationship between communication strategy use in L1 and L2, the effectiveness of different types of CS or the teachability of CS and the usefulness of training on CS use (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Also, different factors affecting learners’ choice of CS has been proposed in the studies. Jidong (2011), for example, has studied some of these factors such as gender, personality, and learners’ first language.

2.5.2. Noncomprehensibility of the Scope of CS

As indicated by a chronological review of the development of the concept of CS above, different approaches to the conceptualization of CS started from the traditional view of seeing CS as devices to compensate for gaps in L2 learners’ speaking proficiency. Although Tarone (1980) added an interactional perspective to the concept, she never extended the taxonomy to include interactional troubleshooting mechanisms (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Later, it was Dörnyei (1995) and Dörnyei and Scott (1997) who extended the scope to include stalling devices and interactional problem-solving devices to the taxonomy of CS. However, these all

taxonomies and extensions had some shortcomings that neither satisfied the definition of strategy nor the concept of CS needed for this study.

In the studies we have reviewed above, the strategy users are L2 learners, and in few cases L2 language users who are trying to compensate for their lack of linguistic knowledge through using strategies. In other words, the participants in these studies are low-level L2 learners who are inproficient in the language they are learning and need to convey their intended meaning either to other nonnative speakers of language or to native speakers of language who are trying to come to an understanding of the meaning being tried to be conveyed. Whereas, the literal meaning of ‘strategy’, originally a military term, which is defined as “a plan of action ... intended to accomplish a specific goal” (*The American Heritage Dictionary of English Language*, 1992, p. 7061), counts all efforts to get the message across as CS without taking the strategy user into account. That is, CS need not necessarily be associated with inproficient L2 learners, as is implied in the literature; proficient language users in their attempt to communicate a message either to an inproficient language user or to another language user who is not sharing the same background can also resort to CS to convey the message over to their hearer.

Another issue that needs to be addressed to come to a more comprehensive notion of CS is related to the role the hearer plays in communication. In the studies, conceptualizations and taxonomies presented in the literature almost all the focus is on the speaker as the entity playing the key role in keeping the communication channel open in spite of all the problems. This viewpoint is evident even in interactional approaches toward the concept of CS. However, the hearer as the one who is the recipient of the message plays as important a role, since his/her signaling success in understanding the message—or at least feigning to understand—is an indication of the ultimate goal of the speaker in the interaction. Thus, strategies hearers, as co-constructors of interaction, use in communication need also be taken into account.

These two issues, more proficient language user versus less proficient interactant and interactant as hearer, will be focused upon in the following two sections.

2.5.3. Foreigner Talk

It is not always the less proficient language learners or users that make efforts to get their message across; the opposite can also be possible. More proficient language users can also have difficult times trying to get their intended meaning through to less proficient language users. This time the source of the problem is not in the sender but the receiver of the message. “This particular linguistic adjustment that NSs [native speakers] make interacting with L2 speakers” (Zuengler, 1991, p. 234) is called ‘foreigner talk’ (henceforth FT). Main functions of FT are to promote mutual intelligibility in communication and to teach the target language (Brulhart, 1986). If FT is primarily used to satisfy the first function of increasing the efficacy of communication, it can fulfill the criteria for being counted as a communication strategy. This attitude toward the interrelationship between CS and FT is also reflected in an article by Tarone (1980): *Communication Strategies, Foreigner Talk, and Repair in Interlanguage*. She asserts that many of the

characteristics of foreigner talk may be communication strategies on the part of the native speaker in that they seem to be extended efforts to negotiate some clarification of the learner’s intended meaning, or to provide alternative means of communicating the native speaker’s intended meaning (p. 424).

The essential point is needed to be mentioned here with regard to the scope of FT users. Although, in the literature, this type of speech is mainly associated with native-speakers of a language when communicating with inproficient nonnative speakers of the language, its scope can be extended to include strategies incorporated by all proficient users of a language, whether native or nonnative, when trying to communicate with less competent nonnative language users.

For the first time, Ferguson (1971) began to study this phenomenon. He defined it as “a register of simplified speech . . . used by speakers of a language to outsiders who are felt to have very limited command of the language or no knowledge of it” (p. 1). Since then various features of FT, both formal and interactional, have been addressed in different studies. In documentation of formal features of FT, an observed phenomenon is variation in grammaticality. That is, native speakers sometimes make some syntactic changes to their FT that would be considered as

ungrammatical within the native speaker community (Zuengler, 1991; Ellis, 1985). Ferguson (1975) suggests that ungrammaticality can be categorized in three ways:

1. Omission of grammatical functors such as copula, articles, and conjunctions,
2. Expansion as in the use of *you* with imperatives,
3. Replacement/rearrangement as when post-verbal negation is replaced by pre-verbal negation in English FT (cited in Ellis, 1994).

The ungrammatical FT features are highly marked and the norm is grammatical FT.

With regard to interactional features of FT, Ellis (1985) affirms that they consist of discourse markers that are also used in conversations involving only native speakers, hence common in both native speaker-native speaker and native speaker-nonnative speaker communication. The difference lies in the frequency of use. Table 2.4 and 2.5 characterize formal and interactional features of FT, adapted from Ellis (1985). Another point that can be observed is the similarity between the interactional modifications in FT and CS.

These various formal features listed above might be classified into three general processes:

1. Simplification: that is achieved through adjusting temporal variables such as speech rate, articulation rate, and silent pause phenomena; in the case of syntactic and lexical modifications it is achieved through avoiding difficult items and reduced use of them.
2. Regularization: which is the selection of forms that are in some way basic or explicit; for example fewer false starts, the preference for full forms, the preference for canonical word order, use of explicit markers of grammatical relations, the movement of topics to the front of sentences, the avoidance of forms associated with a formal style, avoidance of idiomatic expressions, and the use of lexical items with a wide coverage.
3. Elaboration: that is the opposite of simplification. They are used to make the message more cognitively simple and result in too much of redundancy. It usually involves lengthening sentences, using analytic paraphrases of lexical items native speakers consider difficult, offering synonyms, defining items, adding information that help contextualize an item (Ellis, 1994).

Table 2.4 Formal features of FT (Ellis, 1985, p. 135)

Level	Standard	Non-Standard
Pronunciation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Slowing down speech - Separate word/syllable articulation - More careful pronunciation (e.g. final stops released) - Heavier stress - Increased volume on key words 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Addition of vowel to final consonant - Fewer reduced vowels - Exaggerated intonation
Lexis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Restricted vocabulary size - Difficult items replaced with more frequently occurring items - Fewer proforms (e.g. nouns preferred to 'he, she, it') - Repetition of words - Use of analytic paraphrases (e.g. hammer: 'tool for hitting with') - Use of gesture (e.g. ostensive definitions) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Special lexicon of quantifiers, intensifiers, and modal particles - Use of foreign or foreign sounding words (e.g. 'savvy')
Grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fewer contractions - Overall shorter utterance length - Grammatical relations made explicit (e.g. he asked to go → He asked if he could go) - Co-ordination preferred to subordination - Less preverb modification - Topics moved to the beginnings of utterances (e.g. I like John → John, I like him) - Fewer WH questions and more yes/no questions - More uninverted questions (e.g. you like John?) - More 'or-choice' questions - More tag questions - More present (versus non-present) temporal markings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Omission of: copula 'it' 'do' verb inflections - Use of interlanguage forms (e.g. 'no' + verb)

Table 2.5 Interactional features of FT (Ellis, 1985, p. 136)

Type	Description	Example
More 'here-and-now' topics	Native-speaker refers to objects/events which are contiguous.	NS: what's that you are wearing?
More topic-initiating moves	Native-speaker starts a conversational topic by asking a question or making a comment.	
More confirmation checks	Utterances designed to elicit confirmation that a learner utterance has been correctly heard or understood.	NNS: I went to cinema. NS: The cinema?
More comprehension checks	Attempts by the native speaker to establish that the learner is following what he is saying.	NS: It was raining cats and dogs. Do you follow?
More clarification requests	Utterances designed to get the learner to clarify an utterance which has not been heard or understood.	NNS: She very high. NS: Sorry?
More self-repetitions	The native-speaker repeats part or the whole of his preceding utterance.	NS: He got stuck in the window trying to get in. He got stuck.
More other-repetitions	The native-speaker repeats part or the whole of the learner's previous utterance without seeking confirmation.	NNS: I went to the cinema. NS: Yeah. You went to the cinema.
More expansions	The native-speaker expands the learner's previous utterance by supplying missing formatives or by adding new semantic information.	NNS: I wear a sweater. NS: Yes, you're wearing a red sweater.
Shorter responses	The native-speaker restricts the length of his response to a learner question or comment.	

2.5.4. Hearer-based Communication Strategies

Communication is in nature created through step by step unfolding of discourse that is a result of speaker's efforts to convey the intended meaning to the hearer and hearer's adoption of speaker's plan (Rehbein & Kameyama, 2003). Therefore, moving one step ahead in the co-construction of discourse in all normal communication requires, as the final phase, hearer's understanding, i.e. reconstructing of the message as close as possible to the speaker's intended meaning, hence hearer's importance as the speaker in building the discourse up. In other

words, “what really matters from the speaker’s perspective is what the audience is required by the speakers to believe” (Kecskes, 2013, p. 1) and at this point, the hearer must play his/her active role of ensuring the speaker that the implied message is received. Bjøge (2010) highlights this point by mentioning that active listening is “a part of an interactive process, where the interlocutors make explicit that they are paying attention and contributing towards common understanding of the topics being debated. This behavior contributes to rapport management and is an aspect of interlocutor’s pragmatic competence” (p. 192). This necessity for hearer’s confirmation of understanding in each stage of interaction is even more vital when interactants come from various nationalities, cultures, ethnicities, and linguistic and social backgrounds; that is, they lack any common background whether linguistically or sociolinguistically and need to establish the communication on naïve grounds not experienced before.

Beerkens (2010) in her study of RM in Dutch-German border area lists five hearer strategies:

1. ‘Let-it-pass’ principle
2. Await using RM
3. Counter questions
4. Preparation for the topic
5. Back channeling

Let-it-pass principle is used when the hearer has not (completely) understood the speaker, nevertheless not disturbing the flow of communication and “waiting for a clarification of the problem later in the discourse” (Zeevaert, 2007, p. 118) by gathering more contextual and discursive information (Beerkens, 2010). Baumgarten and House (2007) also mention let-it-pass as a feature of ELF talk and explain that

‘Let-it-pass’ refers to the participants’ willingly ignoring grammatically incorrect, incomprehensible, or dubious, i.e. incompatible with the overall goal of the talk, contributions of their interactants. ‘Let-it-pass’ thus highlights the goal-orientedness of ELF talk and presumably also of interactions which are characterized by receptive multilingualism; it reduces the talk to the referential, transactional dimension of communication by focusing speakers’ attention on the retrieval of informational content of a contribution to the detriment of grammatical correctness and interactional and interpersonal appropriateness.

Under such circumstances, inappropriate and unexpected expressions of subjectivity and constructions of speaker stances may not be overtly detectable on the surface of the discourse unless they represent serious breaches of the communicative norms and evoke reactions by the other participants (p. 210).

The second strategy mentioned above, await using RM, was observed by Zeevaert (2007) studying Scandinavian RM. This strategy is special for RM and means that the individual who is attempting to use RM should wait and make sure that the other interactant(s) has/have sufficient receptive knowledge of one's own language (Beerrens, 2010).

Counter questions are posed when the hearer does not understand what is said by the speaker. These are in fact strategies mentioned by Dörnyei (1995) as interactional CS for not understanding or hearing the speaker and asking for repetition, clarification, and confirmation. Beerrens (2010) states that “this hearer strategy can lead to losing face, because one admits that something—or maybe the entire discourse—is not understood (p. 35).

Preparation for the topic, although mentioned for RM discourse, can be applied for all types of planned discourse whereby before the interaction takes place the interactant looks up some words in the language to be used for communication about the to-be-discussed topic and may learn certain keywords. This strategy is commonly used by interpreters who need to be prepared for the translation job in advance since they have to interpret a certain jargon (ibid.).

By definition backchannels are

those verbal and non-verbal utterances, such as *mhm, uh, huh, ya, right*, head nods and smiles, whereby the listener signals that they are paying attention to what is being said and that they want the speaker to continue talking. Apart from encouraging the current speaker to continue their turn, it seems that backchannels may serve other functions, among which that of ensuring the efficiency of the communication (Cogo & Dewey, 2006, p. 68).

Verbal backchanneling may be expressed by means of items from non-lexical level to lexical phrasal and syntactic levels (Bjøge, 2010):

- Non-lexical level: *ah, aha, hm, mhm, uh, etc.*
- Lexical level: *fine, good, no, yes, yeah, really, right, sure, so, OK*
- Phrasal level: *good heavens, of course, oh my God, quite really*

- Syntactic level: *I see, that's nice' that's right, that's not bad, I know*

Back-channeling, as a central aspect of active listening (Bjøge, 2010), is the most common strategy used by hearers in all types of communication, whether mono- or multilingual. The hearer uses back-channeling in its various forms with the communicative intention of sending messages like 'I heard what you said and could decode your intended message; you can continue to the next stage'. This way, congruous understanding is provided by the hearer ensuring the speaker that what is stated so far, as the content of the message, has been successfully identified and deciphered (or at least pretending so, as sometimes let-it-pass strategy requires so) by the hearer and there is a synchronization between the speaker and the hearer and that the speaker can continue to a new phase of his/her talk, hence the continuity of discourse is supported (Beerens, 2010). Thus, to assess if his/her utterances are understood, the speaker has to not only take into account counter questions by the hearer, but also take into consideration "whether or not the hearers perform a normal back-channeling behavior" (Zeevaert, 2007, p. 118-119) since interactants show the same back-channeling behavior in monolingual communication. This means that, back-channeling signals are more or less performed automatically and demand less mental activity than producing complete utterances, so the absence of backchannel signals is an obvious sign of problems in understanding (Zeevaert, 2007).

This out-standing importance of back-channeling in guaranteeing smooth flow of communication is doubled as MLC is considered. Baring in mind that interaction in (monolingual) communication is established on the common ground already created by the interactants and that the discourse is built up step by step throughout the interaction by one piece being laid on all the preceding, when two more multilingual speakers without any prior established background try to interact, understanding of no piece of utterance can be taken for granted by the speaker. Consequently, the speaker, in each and every stage of communication, needs the hearer's confirmation of understanding the message as intended by the speaker to build the next stage up on the previous which is already agreed.

At the end, a point needs to be made with regard whether an item is to be classified as a backchanneling or as a turn. Bjøge, (2010) states that "whether an item

is to be classified as a backchanneling item or as a turn depends on its role in the interaction” (p.193). And Tottie (1991; cited in Bjøge, 2010) points out that when an item elicits a response it can be classified as a turn, which can be determined on the basis of the following utterance. In other words, backchannels are used solely to indicate understanding and to encourage the speaker to carry on his/her speech in the same track. However, when there is a change of track in speaker’s speech that is a result of hearer contribution to the discourse, this contribution is not a backchannel anymore and might be counted as a turn on the side to that interactant.

2.5.5. Final Remarks on Communication Strategies

Generally speaking, communicative events occur with/for a purpose. That is, the message to be conveyed to the receiver is encoded through language(s) and other nonverbal means. So in any authentic communication the most basic goal is to carry over the content from the sender to the receiver. To this end there is the “practical goal-oriented communication co-operation” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 73) between/among the parties involved. In other words, in order to assess the success of any real-life interaction, the basis need to be the extent to which the meaning intended by the sender has been decoded/understood by the receiver. That is, it is not the code itself but the message that is to be considered. Lüdi (2007) states that “in order to measure the success of this communicative event, we do not have to assess the quality of the language(s) spoken, but we have to answer the question whether the goal of the interaction has been achieved” (p. 169). However, the quality of the apparatus used for conveying the message well affects the extent to which the desired purpose has been achieved in general; i.e. the extent to which there is compatibility between the intended and deciphered meaning. It must be borne in mind that the quality of the apparatus used is defined not according to the standards but according to the receiver and the degree of successful decoding that can be realized.

Three conclusions can be drawn based on what mentioned above and the use of CS. One, CS have a two-fold function in communication. At one level, they are used to resolve the problems in conveying the intended message. At another level they are used to improve the quality of the apparatus used, or in Canale’s (1983) words “to

enhance the effectiveness of communication” (p. 11). Two, there need not be a restriction to the users of or the tools used as CS. Any language user, at any proficiency level, can use any strategy to convey the meaning optimally. And three, the tools used as CS are by the sender of the message considering the receiver for optimal transformation of the intended meaning; thus, the receiver’s success in decoding the intended meaning is at the canon of attention for the sender and his/her confirmation of the decrypting the message as intended by the sender is essential, hence hearer’s key role as the speaker in the communication dyad.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This thesis presents an investigation of the multilingual behavior of nine international students on the campus of the Middle East Technical University (METU). The research objectives, questions and design are discussed in the following parts.

3.2. Research Objectives

The reasons for undertaking a study and the problems and issues to be addressed affect the design of the study, and the analysis and interpretation of the results. Thus, the primary goals of the study and the issues addressed need to be clarified in advance to guide other components of the research (Duff, 2008).

In multilingual communication, to be able to attain mutual intelligibility interactants need to be equipped with additional languages. And when using their multilingual repertoires, interactants, based on their evaluation of the constellation they find themselves in, use some strategies to select the appropriate language(s). These are called language choice strategies and they comprise code-switching, use of a lingua franca, and receptive multilingualism. In addition, to provide mutual intelligibility both speakers and hearers use another set of strategies. These are called communication strategies. These strategies are frequently but not exclusively used in multilingual communication and they are prompted by lack of shared cultural and personal backgrounds and may also be due to inadequacies in verbal resources, especially lexically and also grammatically, in the additional languages. Topic

avoidance, circumlocution, miming and back channeling are some examples of such strategies. Multilingual individuals, based on their evaluation of the linguistic constellation, use these two sets of strategies creatively to manage multilingual communication. With regard to what mentioned above, the purpose of this study is to shed some light on the multilingual behavior of multilingual individuals in divergent linguistic constellations. More specifically, this study aims at observing, describing, and accounting for the multilingual behavior of international students on METU campus.

3.3. Research Questions

With regard to the aim of the study, there are five research questions as follows:

- 1.1. What language choice strategies do international students on METU campus choose based on the verbal repertoire available to them and their assessment of the communicative constellation they find themselves in? And why?
- 1.2. How do participants with Turkic and Indo-European linguistic backgrounds differ in their language choice strategies?
- 2.1. What communication strategies do participants use to overcome interpersonal and intercultural (non)understandings?
- 2.2. How do differences in participants' linguistic background affect their approach in using communicative strategies to overcome understanding problems?
3. Do participants with different linguistic background differ in communication act accomplishments?

3.4. Research Design

The research design may be described in terms of the setting, the participants and their sampling and selection, the data collection tools, and the expected outcomes.

3.4.1. Setting

As indicated above, this study aims to investigate the multilingual behavior of international students on METU campus. Some information about METU campus is essential to become more familiar with the setting where data is collected. To become more acquainted with the setting, two sets of information need to be presented: campus life and campus language.

METU currently has about 24,500 students of which 4,800 are in masters and 2,900 are in doctorate programs. Out of the total number, 1700 are international students from around 85 countries. Also, METU, with 168 Erasmus agreements and 182 bilateral exchange and cooperation agreements with universities in third countries (i.e., in Central Asia, Middle East, North America, Australia, Far East and Pacific Region), annually hosts 300 international exchange students (general information, n.d.).

There are several services available on the campus fulfilling nearly all needs of students. Apart from the departments and academic offices, there are other places and services available for students. There are 18 dormitories plus 3 guest houses, 6 banks, a book store, a health and psychological counseling center, museums, several restaurants, many places for sports activities, and a shopping center where one can find drugstores, photography shops, stationery stores, billiard rooms, boutiques, a tailor, a cobbler, a hairdresser's and a barber's shop (Campus Life, n.d.). So, a large number of non-native and international students spend approximately all their time on the campus because the services make it almost needless to out of campus services.

Two languages play key roles in METU: Turkish and English. For students and academics, the roles that English and Turkish play are almost equal. Turkish is the national language and there is a natural tendency for Turkish use among all individuals, students and academics being no exception. English, on the other hand, is the medium of instruction in METU, so courses, examinations and dissertations are in English. In fact, one of the prerequisites to be accepted by METU is being proficient in English. Administrative personnel in the departments and the offices have a strong inclination toward using Turkish. These individuals usually do not

switch into English unless necessary. Necessity is when an international student is not able to communicate in the default language of Turkish. It is worth noting that the staff in the International Student Office and International Cooperation Office all speak both English and Turkish fluently since they are all in direct contact with international students. For employees in other offices and places on the campus like the post office, pharmacies, banks, restaurants and the like, fluency in English is only a personal preference. Individuals with varying degrees of proficiency in English can be found in different places from no knowledge of the language at all, through broken survival English to more proficient language users, and although rare, to fluent language users.

Newcomer international students with little or no command of Turkish are English speakers on the campus by default. Using English with other students and academics, as indicated above, is not problematic for these international students and even to some extent normal. However, with the administrative staff and employees in other offices and places, mutual understanding is not to be taken for granted. The role of communication strategies is more obvious at this stage. It must be mentioned that over time, international students also start incorporating bits and pieces of Turkish into their speech, generally in the form of prefabricated chunks specifically with greeting expressions and numbers, and in this way they increase the effectiveness of their communication on the campus. During time there seems to be a shift from English-dominant communication to Turkish-dominant communication for these students over time. This is more prevalent with students from Turkic language background.

3.4.2. Case Selection and Sampling

With respect to international perspectives, on the official website of METU, it is asserted that “since its foundation, METU, as an international research university, has been the leading university in Turkey in terms of depth and breadth of international ties and the amount of funds generated from international research projects” (general information, n.d.). This positive viewpoint towards international participation is also reflected in the rector’s words which set of an aim of consistent

development of the university's international recognition and impression (Acar, n.d., own translation). This outlook is realized in the number of international students studying in METU. As mentioned above, currently there are 24500 students in METU, 1700 of whom are international students another plus 300 international students who come through exchange and cooperation agreements like the Erasmus program.

Each international student entering METU is an inevitable multilingual. His/her previously known language(s), i.e. his/her mother tongue(s) plus any other second languages s/he has acquired before, are joined by English as the obligatory language of instruction, and then by Turkish, a language to which they are constantly exposed, to varying degrees. These languages provide all international students a with multilingual repertoire. As shown, the two more outstanding languages on the campus are English and Turkish. Thus, these two languages serve as the main participant selection criteria in the present study.

To come to an understanding of multilingual communication on METU campus, where Turkish and English serve as the major languages of communication, choosing participants with language backgrounds close to these two languages would serve the purpose well. Turkish belongs to the Oghuz branch of Turkic languages and English to Germanic branch of Indo-European languages. Based on linguistic relatedness two groups of students were chosen according to their language background. One group comprised students whose L1 was an Indo-European language and who had little or no contact with Turkish before. These were mainly students from the Erasmus and other Student Exchange programs. The other group comprised those students whose L1 was a Turkic language. Speakers of Azeri, Turkmen, Kazakh, Kirgiz, and Uzbek languages are included in this group. The participants were chosen from newcomer international students. Caution was taken to choose participants who did not have an active command of Turkish, eliminating potential participants from Turkic Republics who had graduated from Turkish schools and Turkish language learning institutions in those countries. This was done during the initial meeting with the participants and through checking their proficiency in Turkish during the meeting and asking for self-evaluation for their Turkish. Naturally, soon after international students arrive in Turkey, they are exposed to the omnipresent Turkish and inescapably start

internalizing bits and pieces of Turkish in chunks and after a longer while develop at least a passive knowledge of the language. This is more prevalent with students who come from Turkic language background since proximity, both linguistically and psycholinguistically, can affect L2 learning (Ellis, 1994). Therefore, newcomers were chosen in order to minimize, if not eliminate, the effects of newly-learned Turkish on their linguistic performance in communication.

There were five participants in the Indo-European group and four in the Turkic group which make the total of nine. This number is considered to be the optimum number for two reasons. In the first place, since the study is designed to be a case study providing an in-depth nature of analysis of cases—beside boundedness or singularity, importance of context, and availability of multiple sources of information—is highlighted in most definitions of case study (Duff, 2008), in the framework of this doctoral thesis the number of cases need to be determined in a way to make the in-depth analysis feasible. Secondly, selection criteria narrow down the number of desired cases. Being solely out of newcomer European and Turkic language background international students with no active command in Turkish well limited the cases that could be availed. This issue is further problematized having access to the desired participant candidates and the volunteering nature of participation.

Albeit, some measures were taken to resolve access and low volunteering problems. To reach the desired participant candidates, in the first place, through International Students' Office and International Cooperation Office, an email (see Appendix A for the content) was sent to all international students inviting them to take part in the study if they meet the requirements of coming from Turkic and Indo-European language backgrounds with no active command of Turkish. Also, some notes were stuck in crowded places like the library and the refectory with all the criteria mentioned. This was done with the permission of the “İç Hizmetler Müdürlüğü” (Directorate of Internal Services) and had a content similar to the email but with more visual attraction (see Appendix B). Also, to have more volunteers and for the selected participants to do their tasks completely and attentively some payment was considered. The amount considered was 25 Turkish Liras and was

given to the participants after they have finished all their tasks. This was noted in the email and in the note to attract more volunteers.

Duff (2008) gives a comprehensive list of strategies used for case sampling. According to Duff's categorization and the explanations given about case selection and sampling indicate that we have a conceptual rationale behind case selection, however no strategy for sampling. That is, the cases need to meet the predetermined criteria of being newcomers to METU with no active command of Turkish and coming from Turkic and Indo-European language backgrounds, hence criteria sampling. Yet, there is no access to the universe of the cases fitting the criteria to sample from, thus the study had to resort to convenience sampling. Even if sampled this way, finding willing cases from the sample was still another issue. Thus, convenience sampling strategies was used and the proper cases that could be availed were used.

The participants selected for the study and a preliminary set of data is given in Table 3.1 on the next page. As the table indicates, there are five participants from the Indo-European language background. However, there are only four for the Turkic group. This is due to two problems. In the first place, newcomer students with Turkic language background generally have a low probability of not knowing Turkish productively. This is due to the ease of learning Turkish because of genetical proximity and due to the role Turkey and respectively Turkish plays among Turkic-speaking regions through media specially TV channels and receiving international students hence leading to Turkish be learned in advance by such students. Second, as mentioned above, there was no direct access to all newcomer international students to apply the criteria and ask for participation.

3.4.3. Data Collection

One of the defining characteristics of qualitative research in general and case study in particular is that there should be multiple sources of evidence (Duff, 2008, Yin, 2011 among others). With this regard Denzin and Lincoln (2005a) point out that "qualitative research involves the studied use and collation of a variety of empirical materials ... to get a better understanding of the subject matter at hand" (p.4). By

triangulating sources of information allows “to corroborate and augment evidence from other resources” (Duff, 2008, p. 128). That is, to provide sufficient data for in-depth analysis of the cases, using a number of instruments and techniques to collect data can facilitate thick description of the phenomena at hand. This study, being no exception, is designed to obtain data from three sources. These three data collection tools are elaborated in this section.

Table 3.1: Participants of the study

No.	Gender	L1	Other languages	Mother language(s)	Father language(s)
1	F	Farsi, Azeri	English, French	Azeri	Azeri
2	F	English	French	English	English
3	F	Kazakh	Russian, English	Kazakh, Russian, French	Kazakh, Russian, German
4	F	French	English, Spanish, Nepaly	French	French
5	F	Polish	English, German, Italian, Russian	Polish, German, Russian	Polish, German, Russian
6	M	Dutch	English, French, German	Dutch, Spanish, English	Dutch, Spanish, English
7	M	Azeri	Farsi, English, German	Azeri, Farsi, English	Azeri, Farsi, English, German
8	F	German	English, French	German	German, French
9	F	Kyrgyz	Russian Kazakh English German	Russian Kyrgyz	Russian Kyrgyz

3.4.3.1. Questionnaire

In the first place participants were given a 'language background' questionnaire to fill out. This was the preliminary stage of data collection. Since this study is about the linguistic performance of the participants, additional information about language background of the participants need to be attained.

The language specific information of the participants needed for the case studies can be categorized into four parts. First, the languages the participants have been exposed to need to be identified. The first source of language acquisition is the people in the immediate environment the child finds him-/herself in, hence parents. So the language(s) the participant's mother and father know were asked to be listed. Then, in a table the participants were asked to list all the languages they know and mention at what age and in which context they started acquiring/learning those languages. This first part gives information about the main languages potentially available in the linguistic repertoire of the participants. It is necessary also to know the degree of proficiency in those languages. This comprises the second part of the questionnaire. Since obtaining information about scores in standard exams for all the languages was practically not feasible, the participants self-evaluated their degree of proficiency in the languages they had listed earlier. The question of how much a participant knows of a language is directly related to the degree of use. That is, the more a participant is proficient in a language, the more command s/he has in that language, and the more conveniently s/he can use that language. Therefore, this part carries some prominence in analyzing the language choice strategies of participants. The third part of the questionnaire is concerned with language use. In this part the participants are asked to indicate which language(s) they use in different given contexts. This part gives information about the language use distribution for all the languages available in the linguistic repertoire of the participants. Finally, the last part of the questionnaire deals with the participants' contact with Turkish. Since Turkish is the handiest means of communication in all the places on campus and it is the ubiquitous language unavoidably being exposed to, obtaining information about history of contact, if any, with Turkish could shed light on the participants' current ability to use this language (Appendix C).

This questionnaire was developed for a TÜBİTAK research project (Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) (Project Number: 110K432) investigating the rate of receptive multilingualism between Turkish and a variety of Turkic languages was utilized in order to find out the interactants' language background.

3.4.3.2. Communication Acts

To be able to study the communicative behavior of the participants, their communication acts need to be spotted in action. It means that linguistic performance of the participants while they are engaged in real-life communication need to be recorded and then analyzed. That is, for the data to be used in case studies, they need to be naturally occurring and the linguistic performance of the participants should not be manipulated. This is, in fact, another feature of qualitative research in general. Yin (2011) lists five features of qualitative research. Among the features are studying the meaning of people's lives under real-world conditions and covering the contextual conditions within which people live. In this study, this is realized by audio recording of the participants while they are using their linguistic repertoire in various constellations to fulfill their authentic communicative needs. However, in doing so two problems arise. First, there is the issue of from where and which contexts must the data be collected. There are numerous institutions and contexts international students find themselves in and in those contexts they perform many communicative acts on various topics with various interactants. For example, when they go to a restaurant, they can speak to their friends, to a stranger, to the waiter/waitress, or to the cashier. With the waiter/waitress they can speak about the meal of the day, about the taste of some foods, or may ask the waiter/waitress for something. Second, since this is a multiple case study, to be able to compare and contrast the individual participants and the two groups as a whole, there must be some invariability in the data obtained from each individual participant and each group. That is, the institution and the topic must be constant for all the participants for the data to be usable and for the results to be comparable.

Yet, sampling the same naturally occurring data for all the participants was practically impossible. To fulfill the two above-mentioned criteria and to protect the naturalness of the oral data some sort of communication acts were designed. Participants were asked to refer to some places and people and to try to solve a predetermined information-gap problem given by the researcher; for example, to go to a bank, talk to the bank clerk and ask for help on how s/he can open a currency bank account. At this point some more elaboration is needed as how and based on what criteria these communication acts and the information-gap problems to be solved by the participants in each of the communication acts were determined.

In selecting communication acts two requirements were needed to be fulfilled. Firstly, there needed to be sufficient verbal sample from each participant for language choice and communication strategies be realized in the data. Secondly, as there can be infinite number of constellations for every international speaker, the communication act selection needed to be based on some rationale. As for the first aspect five communication acts were estimated to provide adequate verbal sample from each participant for the data to be rich enough to indicate the multilingual behavior of the participant. To come up with a decision for selecting the five constellations four criteria were considered, first and foremost, probability of attendance was considered. Communication acts with a higher probability of being attended by the international students served best for the purpose of authenticity. Moreover, topic knowledge, expected language of the addressees and formality issues were also taken into consideration in the selection of communication acts. Following communication acts were chosen:

1. Post office
2. Bank
3. Registrar's office
4. Instructor's office
5. Friendly talk
6. Pharmacy

This last item was added when voice recording in the banks was disapproved for ethical reasons of customer privacy.

To define these information-gap problems for each communication act, two strategies were used. At first, the researcher tried to observe these contexts to find out about the communication acts international students realize in such contexts. However, this strategy failed since it was against ethical and privacy considerations. That is, observing international students in a bank or a post office to see what kind of a problem they are trying to solve communicatively was not ethically appropriate since it was intruding the privacy territory of that individual. A B plan was devised. This time, instead of observing international students, their addressees interviewed. The bank clerk, the post office clerk, two instructors, instructing international students, clerks at the Registrar's office, and the pharmacist were met and interviewed. To enhance consistency, where possible more than one individual was interviewed for each context. The interviews were semi-structured. The questions asked were:

1. What topics are mostly discussed with international students?
2. For what kinds of services do international students come to you?
3. What kind of problems and issues do international students bring to you?

Responses to these questions revealed the most probable topics of communication in those contexts and the communication acts were authentic.

If such problems with predetermined topics are given to the international students and they are asked to enter those contexts and talk to those people and solve the problems, the resulting communicative acts would be stimulated naturally-occurring real-world data. In this way both of the problems stated above about the difficulties of gathering oral data from the international students would be solved and the contextualized real-world nature of the data required for case study qualitative research would be preserved.

The responses of the addressees to the interview questions and the most consistent and the most interaction provoking information-gap problems and topics resulting from them for each context are given below. These problems were defined in a way to reflect the same real-world problems international students might face in case they find themselves in such contexts

3.4.3.2.1. Post Office

There is only one post office on the campus and two clerks work there. They were both interviewed and the questions that international students refer to them are identified as the following:

- what they can send as cargo to their home countries, how they can send it, what are the charges per kilogram and the charge of different types of cargo service,
- how they can send and receive money from their home country, what documents are needed and what is the charge.

According to the questions identified by the clerks at the post office, the task designed for the communication act in the post office can be stated as:

You need money. Your parents want to send some money to you. Go to the post office and ask for help. How can your parents send the money? Where should they send the money from? How can you receive the money? How fast is the money transferred? How much is the transfer fee? What documents are needed to get the money?

3.4.3.2.2. Bank

Two well-known banks were visited on the campus and a total of four clerks were interviewed. Although most of the services in banks are routine and need not much interaction, some of the questions international students ask in banks are:

- how they can open a currency account, what documents are needed,
- how they can transfer money,
- Can they have a credit card, and if so, how, what is the credit limit, and what documents are needed

According to the questions identified by the clerks at the bank, the task for the communication act in the bank can be stated as:

You are new to Turkey and need to have a credit card. How can you have a credit card? What documents are needed? What limit is it going to have? When are you going to get the card?

However, when these two banks were contacted for voice recording approval, both repressed permission to record because under no conditions can communication be recorded because of protecting customer privacy. This context for communication act was therefore cancelled and replaced by the context of pharmacy.

3.4.3.2.3. Pharmacy

There are two pharmacies on the campus. Both were referred to for the interview but one declined to be interviewed saying that they believed that the interviewer was trying to get access to the patients' private information. Nevertheless, the other pharmacist was helpful in giving the following information about the problems and issues international students consult them:

- seeking remedy; without visiting a doctor and taking a prescription for minor health problems international students ask for help from the pharmacists for headaches, sore throats, and colds, among other medical problems,
- asking for help for other health problems as in losing hair (for males) and skin care issues as in dry skin, the proper suntan lotion, among others (for the females),
- cosmetics; females in particular ask for cosmetic products.

According to the issues presented by the pharmacist, the problems for the communication act in the pharmacy can be stated as:

This morning as you got up you felt that your throat is sore and you have a headache. This is because after the gym you walked home last evening. What medicine is needed? In what intervals do you have to take them? For how many days? Do they have any side effects? What if after the medicine is finished you do not feel better?

3.4.3.2.4. Registrar's Office

A total of four clerks were interviewed at the undergraduate and the graduate offices. Like in the bank, in the Registrar's Office routine procedures are frequent. Nonetheless, the issues the clerks identified as pertaining to international students rise are:

- how they can get a transcript, how much the fee is, and when it is ready,
- what the process of graduation is, what they need to do,
- how can they get their diploma, a temporary graduation document,
- how can they take a term off, what do they need to do,
- how a course taken as a special student can be counted in the program,

However, in the interviews it was found that students who come to study at METU through international cooperation agreements, like Erasmus, do not refer to the Registrar's office. The International Cooperation Office (ICO) deals with all problems of such international students. Therefore, another interview was conducted with three of the clerks at ICO and the resulting questions that the clerks identified as typical of international students were:

- how can they change their room in the dorm in order to be with their friends,
- can they move from the dorm to a house outside METU; if yes, how,
- where can their parents stay when they come to see them,
- what is the process of getting a residence permit, what do they need to do, what documents are needed,
- how, and from whom can they get a METU ID card,

According to the problems defined by the clerks at the two offices, the problems for the communication act in the Registrar's Office and ICO office can be stated as:

You are going to graduate in a while and you need to return to your home country soon after. What process is it needed to be taken for graduation? How soon can you have your diploma? How can you get a temporary graduation document to inform you country's embassy?

You have entered Turkey with your student visa. You need to obtain a residence permit. How and where can you get it? What is the process? What documents are needed? How long does it take to get the permit?

3.4.3.2.5. Instructor's Office

Three Instructors in two different departments were interviewed. These advisors were chosen because they had experience advising international students, and were thus more familiar with their issues and problems. The summary of the issues and problems their international students refer to them follows:

- how to finish earlier, in 3 years, for BA/BS students; how to take courses from the upper semesters
- how to count a course taken as a special student in the program
- whether taking the Turkish course is obligatory; if yes, whether they take the course with other native speaker students (undergraduate)
- what to do about late registration,
- ways to get scholarships
- how to become a special student, what documents are needed and where to do this
- which course(s) to take for the semester,

According to the problems defined by the instructors at the two departments, the problems for the communication act in the instructor's office can be stated as:

You have taken the courses for the current semester. You are not sure whether it is sufficient or not. Consult your instructor. Tell him/her course(s) you have taken and the name of the lecturer for each and ask about whether the course(s) taken are sufficient. Ask whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses.

3.4.3.2.6 Friendly Talk

Three international students were interviewed for friendly talk and they were asked to identify the topics they usually discuss with their native Turkish and other international friends in their informal friendly chats. These international students were not the same as the participants. The result is:

- the courses taken and the requirements of each course: the presentations, term paper, midterm and final exams,
- the instructors of courses taken: their teaching style, the classes, personal features

According to the topics introduced for friendly talk, the problems for communication act in this constellation can be stated as:

Go to your friend. After the initial greetings bring up the topic of selecting courses. Mention the course(s) you have taken. Focus on one course and talk about the class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. Then elicit the same sort of information from your friend about his/her course(s).

3.4.3.3. Post Interview

After each communication act is done the participant and the addressee will be interviewed for a general evaluation. The issues addressed are:

1. General evaluation of both interactants about the quality of the interaction,
2. If there were any problems in the course of communication. If yes, what strategies were used to overcome the problems,
3. The language(s) used and the reason(s) for using those languages,
4. And a brief language background of the addressee.

Not to affect the interaction through observer's paradox (Labov, 2006) the researcher was not present during the communication. So, to ensure the participant

has provided a solution for the problem, the researcher asked the participant to give details about what s/he made in hand about the problem.

3.4.3.4. Stimulated Recall

Sole analysis of the oral data could not sufficiently provide evidence on why such and such strategies were used by each individual participant. So, while analyzing the transcribed oral data, stimulated recall of the participants was needed occasionally to discover the details about reasons each strategy was used, and the resulting facility it provided in the smooth flow of communication. Also, stimulated recall helps more on understanding moment by moment mental actions of the participants during communication.

As the oral data for each participant was being analyzed after transcription, there were some questions about the linguistic performance of the participants that could not be replied by referring to the oral data. In such cases, there was a need for stimulated recall. After all the data about one participant was completed, questions that the participant had the answers were formed. Then an appointment with that participant was fixed. In the meeting the researcher raised the questions from the data accompanied by the excerpts from the data where the questions were questions were coming from. The participants had the chance of answering orally and being voice-recorded or provide their answers in the written form and send through mail to the researcher. The answers provided by the participants were integrated into the data coming from other sources, language background questionnaire and the oral transcribed data, to come to a clearer understanding of the multilingual behavior of each and every participant.

3.5. Expected Outcomes

Now that the communication acts have been clarified, some predictions can be made about the outcomes of the study.

Language distance can be viewed from two perspectives. Linguistically speaking, there can be actual distance or proximity between/among languages. That

is, languages belonging to the same genetical branches can be linguistically said to be sharing more features hence linguistically proximate. Psycholinguistically speaking, language learners and users have their own perceptions of the distance between languages. Kellerman (1977) used the term psychotypology to refer to this perceived distance between languages. Rehbein, ten Thije, and Verschik, (2011) indicate that “it is not assumed that the average speakers are aware of language typology, yet research has shown that psychotypology or ‘perceived language distance’ plays a role in multilingual interaction” (p. 151). In the same line Ellis (1994) state that

learners form a ‘projection’ about what can be transferred [from native to target languages] on the basis of their beliefs as to whether the native and the target languages are the ‘same’—either in terms of ‘linguistic detail’ or ‘in very general terms. On the basis of these projections, learning decisions, or ‘conversions’ are made (p. 328).

In the case of the current study, international students in any communication act have two language choices: Turkish, and English. Their language choice will be based on two criteria: 1. They have to choose a language their addressee(s) can understand better, and 2. they need to opt for the language they can use more fluently to make themselves understood. In the case of the first criterion their preferred choice would always be Turkish. This is because all the addressees they face in all the five communication acts are native speakers of Turkish and, by nature, the addressees tend to choose their mother tongue to communicate. Yet for the second criterion, they would probably choose the language which is more accessible for them. That is, both Turkish and English are nonnative languages for international students (except for one of the participants who is from the USA and a native English speaker), and their choice will depend more on which language they feel more convenient with to use. A third choice might also be available for Azeri participants to be involved in a receptive multilingual (see literature review for details) communication and use their mother tongue. This is because of the genetical proximity that exists between Azeri and Turkish as both languages belong to Oghuz branch of Turkic languages. This advantage is not available for the other two languages of the Turkic group since both Kyrgyz and Kazakh are from Kipchak group of Turkic languages. Psycholinguistically, they will tend to use the language

their linguistic background feels more connections with. It is expected that international students choose the language based on psychotypological tendencies with participants with Turkic language background tending to use more of Turkish and Indo-European participants tending to use more of English.

3.6. Procedure

The procedure for data collection consists of four steps (see Figure 3.1 on the next page). This procedure starts after sampling. After meeting the volunteer, preliminary conditions were considered by the researcher. These conditions consist of the first language(s) the participant knows, date of entering Turkey and the proficiency level in Turkish, specifically his/her oral proficiency. In the first meeting if the candidate participant was suitable for the study, the following four-step procedure and the payment were explained to him/her to come to a final conclusion. The whole procedure is better understood if it is given in a flow chart like the one below:

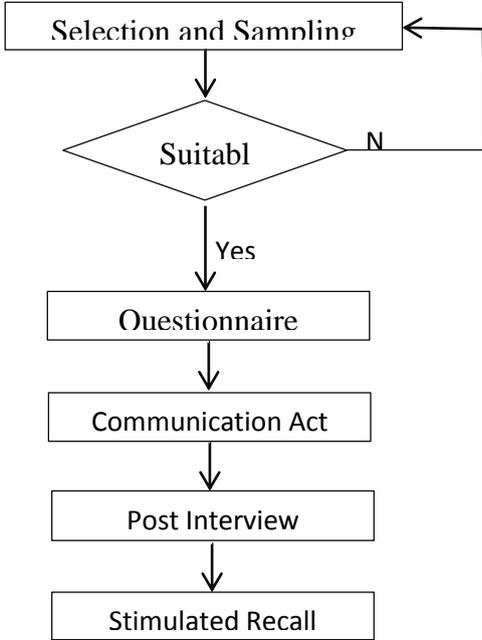


Figure 3.1: Procedure of Data collection

As indicated above, the participants first filled out the questionnaire and then were present in the contexts explained above and completed their communication acts while audio recording the communication. Not to interrupt the natural flow of communication, the researcher was not present in the place. Although if the addressees had not been aware of the communication being recorded, the naturalness of the communicative events would have been increased, this was not possible due to ethical considerations. Therefore, prior to any recording, the addressee was informed about the recording and the consent form was signed. Immediately after his/her job was finished the participant referred to the researcher and gave details about the content of communication and also about the quality of the communication itself, as indicated above. The researcher, then, went to the addressee to sign the volunteer consent form and to do the post interview. In the final stage, after the oral data is transcribed, the participant and the researcher went through the transcribed data for stimulated recall.

3.7. Triangulation

Brown and Rodgers (2002) define triangulation in the social sciences, as referring to “the attempt to understand some aspect of human behavior by studying from more than one standpoint, often making use of both quantitative and qualitative data in doing so” (p. 243). They then give seven types of triangulation: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, methodological triangulation, interdisciplinary triangulation, time triangulation, and location triangulation (ibid., p. 244). In this study, to fulfill the necessary requirement of qualitative case study research, multiple sources of data have been used, and thus may be considered as data triangulation. To have oral communication data from different linguistic backgrounds, multiple participants with as varied as possible linguistic repertoires have been used, hence we may also claim participant triangulation. Also, to have oral communication data in different contexts and with different addressees, five contexts have been defined, which mean that there has been location triangulation. And the last point about triangulation in this study is that two

or three individuals were interviewed in each context to enhance consistency of the information obtained.

3.8. Ethical Considerations

With regard to ethical considerations Duff (2008) states that “there must be an overriding commitment among researchers to protect the well-being of their research participants and respect their confidentiality, privacy, safety, and other legal and human rights” (p. 146). In this research study these ethical issues are considered in various ways.

To be able to do research inside METU campus, approval must be gained from Research Center for Applied Ethics (Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi). This approval is given after the jury examines the list of participants, data collection tools and procedures, research hypotheses and the probable outcomes. Before everything else this approval was gained for this study (see Appendix D). Also, approval was gained, whether orally or in the written form, from all the official places where voice recording was being done. This was done for the post office, the Registrar’s office and the pharmacy. It was at this stage that it was learnt that any kind of recording in the banks is forbidden due to customer privacy protection, and thus the communication act of pharmacy was replaced that of the bank.

From an ethical standing point for all the participants included in the study Duff (2008) states that:

In general, procedures of informed consent involve explaining, in writing, to potential participants what the study entails, who the researchers are, and how they or their supervisors or research officers can be contacted. The researchers must explain what the study is about, what the procedures or methods are, how much time is required, what risks or benefits are entailed in participating, how privacy or confidentiality (anonymity) will be ensured, what resource participants have if they have any concerns ..., and what compensation or payment they will receive for participation, if any. There must be clear statements to the effect that participation is completely voluntary and that they may withdraw from the study at any point without negative repercussions. Also, it is common to state that participants may seek summaries of the result of the study afterward if they wish (p. 146-7).

All these were explained orally to each and every participant, as mentioned above in the procedure part, and they were also given the consent form for participants to sign. The consent form is given in Appendix E. It needs to be noted that all the participants and their addressees are anonymous throughout the study and their names have been replaced by false names.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

METU campus and the international students who attend the University for education provide optimum circumstances for multilingual studies. METU receives numerous international students each year through international exchange and cooperation agreements, scholarships and self-funded students from as many as 85 countries (general information, n.d.). Two languages play key role in communication on the campus: English and Turkish. English is the language of instruction and Turkish is the omni-present national language. Both students and academicians are proficient in English but there is a tendency toward Turkish among all individuals including students and academicians with newcomer international students with little or no command of Turkish being an exception. This tendency is even stronger among administrative personnel in the departments and offices except for staff in International Student Office and International Cooperation Office who all speak both English and Turkish fluently since they are all in direct touch with international students.

This study aims to investigate the multilingual behavior of international students on METU campus. The aim is to find out about CS and language choice strategies of international students, who are inevitable multilinguals, based on the different constellations they find themselves in. With regard to the aim of the study five research questions are as follows:

- 1.1. What language choice strategies do international students on METU campus choose based on verbal repertoire available to them and their assessment of the communicative constellation they find themselves in? And why?

1.2. How do participants with Turkic and Indo-European linguistic background differ in their language choice strategies?

2.1. What communication strategies do participants use to overcome interpersonal and intercultural (non)understandings?

2.2. How do differences in participants' linguistic background affect their approach in using communicative strategies to overcome understanding problems?

3. Do participants with different linguistic background differ in communication act accomplishments?

To answer the above questions a total of nine newcomer international students with little or no command of productive Turkish were chosen from two general language backgrounds: Indo-European and Turkic. These two language branches were preferred based on the two key languages used on the campus: English and Turkish. The participants were selected through convenience sampling strategies.

Four tools were chosen to collect data from the participants: questionnaire, communication acts, post-interview and stimulated recall. To be able to study the communicative behavior of the participants, their communication acts needed to be spotted in action. That is, linguistic performance of the participants while they are engaged in real-life communication needed to be recorded. So, participants were asked to refer to the places and people mentioned below and try to solve a predetermined information-gap problem given by the researcher while being voice recorded. Probability of attendance, topic knowledge, expected language of the addressees and the formality issues gave result to the selection of the following five communication acts:

7. Post office
8. Registrar's office
9. Instructor's office
10. Friendly talk
11. Pharmacy

Table 4.1 gives a general view of the recorded data collected for the nine participants for the above-mentioned five communication acts.

Table 4.0 Recorded data from the participants

Group	Name	Post office	Pharacy	ICO/Reg. office.	Instructor	Friend	Total
Indo-European language background	Mattie	03:35	01:45	02:37	03:04	10:08	21:09
	Ewout	04:15	02:07	03:31	07:13	02:47	19:53
	Louise	02:15	03:56	02:55	05:25	03:06	17:37
	Anna	03:52	01:38	08:00	07:42	02:59	24:11
	Lucie	01:52	02:10	01:19	07:13	03:54	16:28
Turkic language background	Sohrab	01:48	01:57	02:05	02:42	03:32	12:04
	Araylim	06:20	03:04	04:42	06:11	06:18	26:35
	Safoora	02:51	01:59	02:28	03:06	02:00	12:24
	Aichurek	02:11	03:00	05:41	02:16	01:31	14:39
						Total	170:00

To analyze data, two issues need to be clarified. First, the theoretical framework for the analysis needs to be determined. This framework will define the view towards society, language, communication, interaction discourse and its structure. Second, related to the theoretical framework of data analysis is the transcription system. Third, the procedure for the analysis of the nine participants need to be designated, that is, the way individual participants individually and in their groups are going to be investigated and compared and contrasted.

4.2. Data Analysis Framework

To fulfill their needs, individuals need to take some actions. One of these action forms is ‘linguistic action’ (Redder, 2008). It means that individuals use language as a means to actualize their needs. This is the ‘societal’ view towards language which is also observed in this study, too. That is, in this research study language is not studied for its own sake. It is studied for the role that it has taken as a device for participants to achieve the purpose defined by the researcher in each constellation. The preferable theory to encompass such a view toward language is ‘Functional Pragmatics’ (from now on FP).

FP is a linguistic theory which views language as a form of human activity and is deeply embedded in societal practice (Rehbein, 1977), hence, for FP society is at the heart of understanding language. Since Functional Pragmatics view language as a societal action form, it is an *action theory of language*” (Redder, 2008, p. 134) with the fundamental aim of analyzing “language as a sociohistorically developed action for that mediates between a speaker (S) and Hearer (H), and achieves—with respect to constellations in the actants’ action space—a transformation of deficiency into sufficiency with respect to system of societally elaborated needs (ibid., p. 136).

The actants, in their effort to transform deficiency into sufficiency, get into cooperation. ‘Purpose’, as the central category, guides this cooperation. That is, based on the purpose for which the mutual cooperation between the S and the H has been established, speech action is realized linguistically through ‘signs’ in a specific ‘course of action’ (Rehbein, 2006). In other words, individuals as social beings, pursue ‘repetitive societal needs’; these needs are satisfied through actions; “the paths for such actions are societally elaborated as *linguistic actions patterns*” (Redder, 2008, p. 135). These patterns are not ad hoc. In their deep structure, actants have an implicit ‘pattern knowledge’ (Ehlich & Rehbein, 1977a). An important part of actants’ expectations and presuppositions are formed through this pattern knowledge (Redder, 2008). So, patterns, inherent in which are respective purposes, are based on social deep structures and their realization in the linguistic surface are in various manners.

Implicit in the cooperation principle of FP is the fact that unlike Searle's Speech Act Theory that is exclusively speaker oriented (in that Searle had given a four-fold categorization for speech act: propositional act, illocutionary act, utterance act, and perlocutionary act, the fourth item of which is the hearer part counted as speaker's act), FP gives an equal weight to both actants as S and H. On the hearer side understanding is in focus, since "the hearer-sided interactions serve the purpose of establishing mutual understanding ..." (Rehbein, 2006, p. 10). In other words, the interaction would not unfold (would breakdown), if the H does not understand what the S is trying to convey. This is called 'synchronization' of S and H's mental realities for each and every speech action and which is an indication of success of speech action (Redder, 2008) in any phase of the interaction. This is the co-construction of discourse. It means that each phase of the interaction must reach mutual intelligibility before moving onto the next phase. So in occasions of misunderstanding, or non-understanding the communication is pended, the S and H cooperate to resolve the problem of understanding of the H. So, as the inner structure of speech actions comprises three acts: propositional act, illocutionary act and utterance act, the H's understanding process is also threefold:

1. perception of speech action: process of the three acts by the H;
2. reception: the action the H performs after processing the speech action;
3. post-history: H's subsequent actin which depends on the illocution (Redder, 2008).

As mentioned above, in any communication H and understanding on the part of the H plays the role as important as the S's. In other words, the H in any phase of the communication needs to execute his/her action, i.e. the most essential of which is understanding, for mutual intelligibility to be established in communication and result in successful communication as a whole. Rehbein (2006) analyzed the process of understanding in more details. This process consists of eight steps which are divided into three stages. Table 4.2 below indicates the steps and the stages of H reception of speech action.

In ‘Pre-history’ the H, based on pre-knowledge, assesses the situation and correspondingly shapes expectations. This first stage directs the whole process of reception. When the S executes the speech action, ‘History’, the H perceives the action by identifying the acts, and forms the H plan. To understand the whole action, whether it is necessary or not to reconstruct S’s pre-history depends on H. Constantly verified is whether H’s expectations and formed plan match up. This is the critical point in the process of understanding since whether the H has been able to communication-execute the illocutionary point of the S’s action, verifies whether the H is ready to adopt the S’s plan or not. ‘Post-history’ of reception is H’s deciding whether to continue his/her role as a H or take turn and become a S.

Table 4.1 Stages of H’s reception of S’s speech action (adapted from Rehbein, 2006)

Stages of speech action (S side)	Stages of H’s reception of speech action	
Pre-history	(I) (II)	assessment of the situation formation of the H’s expectation
History	(III) (IV) (V) (VI) (VII)	perception of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the utterance act or elements of it • identification of the illocutionary act • identification of the propositional act formation of H’s plan with <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • focus of action • formation of schema • S’s plan of utterance act reconstruction of S’s pre-history plan with <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reconstruction of aim and motivation • assessment of S’s situation checking the correspondence of step (IV) with (II) and of step (V) with (I)
Post-history	(VIII)	follow-up action

An example would be helpful.

Interactant A: Do you have a watch?

Interactant B: It is three o'clock.

In the above interaction Interactant A for some reasons need to know the time. That is s/he has information deficiency of not being aware of time. To fulfill this purpose Interactant A could have taken some actions. S/he could have looked at his/her watch or check other resources to learn the time or s/he could have asked some other persons, the last, have s/he chosen, being a linguistic action. After deciding to ask someone else for time, Interactant A has made a speech plan in his/her mind, has realized the plan by performing a speech act and the final result is an utterance. Meanwhile, Interactant B as the hearer was not passive. Interactant B has, before Interactant A speaking, assesses the situations and forms expectations as what Interactant A's speech is going to be about; for example notices that Interactant A is pointing to his/her wrist with no watch worn. After the utterance is performed, Interactant B perceives it and identifies propositional and illocutionary acts. Then Interactant B, as a hearer, forms the plan in his/her mind, reconstructs speaker's plan (that of asking for time) mentally and adopts it. Interactant A and Interactant B change roles and Interactant B becomes the speaker and provides a response to his/her interactant and transforms Interactant A's deficiency of knowledge gap about time to sufficiency of being aware of time. Some conclusions drawn for this example will shed light on Functional Pragmatics approach.

To account for the linguistic action in any interpersonal interaction, three dimensions of reality need to be taken into account: 'extra-linguistic reality' (capital letter P) which is the specific social constellation that creates the speaker's knowledge deficit, 'mental reality' (Π area) which is knowledge domains of the speaker and the hearer—of course distributed differently, and 'linguistic reality' (small letter p) which is the speaker's linguistic action (see Figure 4.1). In short, in linguistic analyses, according to Functional Pragmatics, to have an all-embracing view not only the linguistic action but also the constellation in which such an action takes place and the mental domain of the speaker and the hearer must be studied interactively.

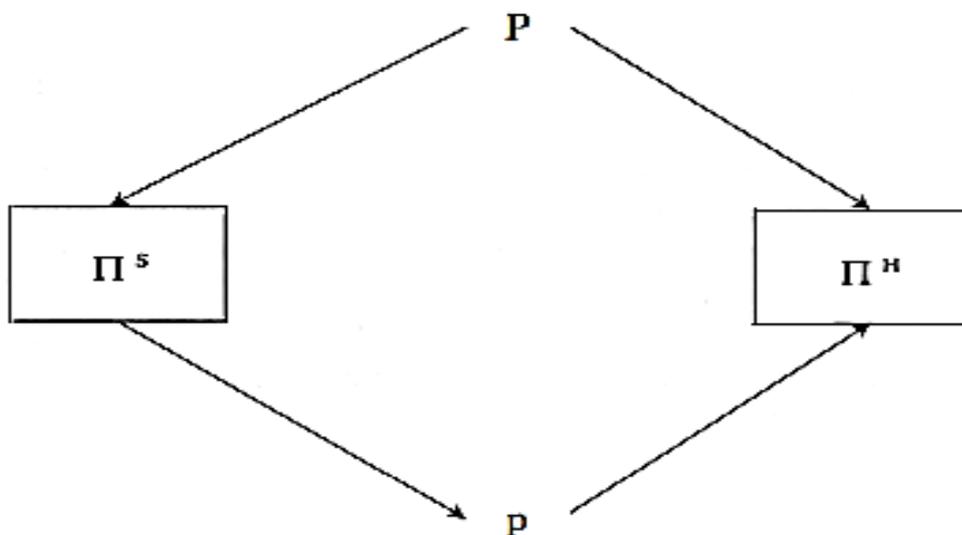


Figure 4.1 The basic linguistic model Adapted from Ehlich & Rehbein (1986, p. 96, cited in Redder, 2008, p. 136).

To sum up, FP is “an integral language theory, i.e. it attempts to recognize all systematic dimensions of language and using language is a societal practice, what FP analyses are embedded in. That is, language is not studied for its own sake. Rather signs “are seen as the medial concretization of action paths, i.e. of socially elaborated ways of pursuing purposes” (Redder, 2008, p. 134). Purposes are repetitive societal needs in repetitive constellations. What satisfy these needs, i.e. fulfill purposes, are actions. Realization of these actions, on their way to satisfy needs, is on a sequence, .i.e. they follow a path. These ‘courses of actions’ create patterns (Rehbein, 2006). Action patterns which are based on deep social structure are acquired by the actants during socialization. Part of Analyzing language in interaction is looking for acts, actions, and patterns in different institutions.

4.3. Transcription System

After data collection, to be able to work on the data oral records need to be fixed. The “process of rendering oral data into a printed text that can be more easily analyzed at some later point” (Duff, 2008, p. 154) is called transcription. According

to Duff (2008) transcription is an important initial phase of data analysis and is theory laden. In other words, it is theory driven. As mentioned above, FP is the theory base for analysis so the transcription system must be compatible with this theory. HIAT is the system used for transcription in FP.

HIAT—standing for ‘Halbinterpretative Arbeitstranskriptionen’ in German and ‘Heuristic Interpretative Auditory Transcription’ in English—was developed by Ehlich and Rehbein (1976b) in an effort to overcome shortcomings in other systems of transcribing that negatively affect the analyses of oral interactive data. The problems with other transcription systems are that 1) when transcribed with each turn under the other, flow of discourse in the course of interaction is almost unable to be identified and simultaneous events (whether verbal or nonverbal) are not neat, and 2) the orthographies that can be used for transcription are not without problems. If standard orthography is used there is loss of information on acoustic structure and if phonetic transcription is used there is loss in ease of use. As a result, the HIAT system was developed with three criteria in mind: 1) simplicity and variability, 2) good readability and correctability, and 3) minimum of transcriber and user training (Ehlich, 1993).

EXMARaLDA, inspired by the system used in musical representation—the musical score—was developed as the software to overcome the first problem. According to its official website (EXMARaLDA, n.d.), EXMARaLDA is an acronym for ‘Extensible Markup Language for Discourse Annotation’. It is a system of concepts, data formats and tools for the computer assisted transcription and annotation of spoken language, and for the construction and analysis of spoken language corpora. One can consider simultaneous speech of several speakers at a time as a complex acoustic event similar to the simultaneous realization of a multitude of musical notes in a concerto. “Whereas the left-to-right direction preserves the unfolding of events in time, the vertical dimension captures how they overlap at each particular point in time” (Ehlich, 1993, p. 131). See Figure 4.2 below as an example.

Moreover, to solve the second problem

The HIAT system ... uses a deviation from written orthography which we call *literary transcription*, or in German, *literarische Umschrift*. Literary transcription

involves systematic departures from the standard orthographic rendering of an item but in a manner that is meaningful to someone familiar with the orthographic system as a whole (ibid., p. 126)

	15 [00:12.2*]	16 [00:12.3*]	17 [00:12.3]	18 [00:13.7]	19 [00:13.8*]	20 [00:14.1*]	21 [00:14.8*]
V [v]	ama ama se/sen			hep zehnimizdasın	zatan.		ama ama
V [mv]							
M [f]			sakın öyle bir şey yapma.		yok.	allah razı olsun	o yeter.
M [mv]							
N [f]	sanı gö/görmeden	gedcan diya çok üzüldü.					
N [mv]							

Figure 4.2 Example of transcription in EXMARaLDA

4.4. Data Analysis Procedure

There are nine participants who come from two language backgrounds: Indo-European and Turkic. Oral data about each and every participant is recorded in five constellations: Registrar's / ICO office, post office, pharmacy, with his/her instructor and her/his Turkish friend. To come to a detailed understanding of the multilingual behavior (i.e. language choice and communication strategies), first, each participant is analyzed for the five constellations s/he has found himself/herself in. This is the first stage which is called 'individual analysis'. Next, participants in their respective groups will be analyzed as a whole to find out about the multilingual behavior of the two groups. This is 'group analysis'. As the final stage the two groups will be compared and contrasted for their language choice and communication strategies. This final step is where there can be found answers for the research questions.

Another point which is needed to be clarified is with CS used in data analysis. The strategies reviewed in the literature review, communication strategies and foreigner talk, and hearer-based strategies, all are borne in mind while analyzing data. However, the terms used with their definitions are adapted to the new more

comprehensive constellation confronted in this study. In other words, as the data collected for this study are not from L2 learners and it does not solely include L1 speakers speaking to foreigners, either, the terminology used is at times inspired from literature although with changes in definition and functioning. So to clearly demonstrate strategies used, in each case the function will be given.

4.5. Individual Analysis

As the first step of the data analysis, the data for each participant is analyzed one by one for the five constellations and then summarized. The first five participants are from the Indo-European group and the remaining four from the Turkic group.

The data analysis presented in this part comes from all three sources of data: Language Background Questionnaire, oral recorded data and stimulated recall. Although the main source is the oral data recorded in each constellation, initial data coming from the questionnaire and complementary data coming from the stimulated recall help deepen the understandings for each case. So for each participant language background information and information about the oral recorded data are presented in the tables first and explanations of the participant as stimulated recall afterwards where necessary to better illuminate the occurrences of CS and language choice strategies for each case. Excerpts from the oral data are also given to illustrate the occurrence of strategies.

Based on the constellation they found themselves in, participants used various CS to overcome problems of mutual intelligibility and to promote the quality of communications. Each communication strategy was used to fulfill a specific purpose. That is, CS were used by participants to fulfill different functions. A total of forty four CS were used by the nine participants from the Turkic and Indo-European group, both as speakers and as hearers. These CS with their functions are presented in the alphabetical order in table 4.2 on the next page.

Table 4.2 CS and their functions used by all participants

	No.	Communication strategies	Function
Speaker-based	1	Asking for clarification: meaning	Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar topic whether directly or indirectly
	2	Asking for confirmation	Requesting confirmation that one has heard and understood something correctly
	3	Asking for repetition	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding the interlocutor properly
	4	Asking for slower speech rate	Asking the interlocutor to reduce the pace of linguistic production to facilitate the understanding
	5	Circumlocution	Trying to provide more explanation for the target item by exemplifying, describing or illustrating in an effort to facilitate understanding where necessary
	6	Comprehension check	Checking that the interlocutor can follow the speaker
	7	Content restructuring	Abandoning the execution of a speech plan unfinished and communicating the intended message according to the alternative speech plan
	8	Content self-repair	Making self-initiated correction in one's own speech after an incorrect content has been uttered
	9	Expanding	putting the issue in hand in a larger context to give more details about it
	10	Expressing non-understanding	Expressing that one did not understand the speaker properly
	11	Form self-repair	Making self-initiated correction in one's own speech after an incorrect form has been uttered
	12	Form self-repair: BrE/AmE	Correcting one's own speech by replacing AmE/BrE vocabulary version of the same concept with the other
	13	Guessing	Estimating or concluding the target word without sufficient information to be sure of being correct
	14	Interpretive summary	Comprehensive paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check one's own correct understanding
	15	Language choice marker	Used to set the language to be used for communication

Table 4.2 Continued

	No.	Communication strategies	Function
Speaker-based	16	Lengthened sound	Lengthening a sound as a sign of hesitation or to gain time to (re)design speech plan or linguistic structure
	17	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	Referring to the antecedent of a proform after the proform has been mentioned to help the interlocutor identify the reference of the proform
	18	Miming	Nonverbal visual illustration of concepts
	19	More careful pronunciation	Articulating words completely in the standard language with all sound pronounced clearly
	20	More yes/no questions	Preferring yes/no questions over wh- questions
	21	Other-repetition	Repeating a part or all the interlocutor's utterance as an indication of understanding the interlocutor's previous utterance sometimes mixed with a sense of surprise
	22	Other-repetition: question	Repeating a part or all the interlocutor's utterance with a rising question intonation as a request for more explanation for the repeated part sometimes not because of understanding problem but because of surprise thus not followed by an answer
	23	Pause	Silent gaps within speech flow while (re)designing speech plan or linguistic structure
	24	Response: confirmation	Confirming what the interlocutor has mentioned. This is done after the interlocutor restates his / her understanding of one's earlier utterances
	25	Response: content repair	Providing other-initiated self-repair for the content already conveyed
	26	Response: rephrase	Rephrasing one's prior utterance partially or completely as a reaction to hearer's expressing incomplete or non-understanding
27	Response: rephrase in interlocutor's L1	Rephrasing one's prior utterance partially or completely in the interlocutor's L1 as a reaction to hearer's not expressing incomplete or non-understanding in the L2	

Table 4.2 Continued

	No.	Communication strategies	Function
Speaker-based	28	Response: self-repetition	Repeating prior utterance partially or completely as a reaction to hearer's not expressing incomplete or non-understanding
	29	Response: self-repetition in interlocutor's L1	Repeating prior utterance partially or completely as a reaction to hearer's expressing incomplete or non-understanding in interlocutor's L1
	30	self-repetition	Repeating prior utterance partially or completely immediately after they were said to provide another chance for interlocutor's understanding
	31	Self-repetition in interlocutor's L1	Repeating prior utterance partially or completely immediately after they were said in the interlocutor's L1 to provide another chance for interlocutor's understanding
	32	Self-rephrase	Repeating one's own utterance partially or completely in other words as one assumes the information provided by the previous utterance may not be sufficient or at the proper quality for hearer's understanding
	33	Self-rephrase in interlocutor's L1	Repeating one's own utterance partially or completely in the interlocutor's L1 in other words as one assumes the information provided by the previous utterance may not be sufficient or at the proper quality for hearer's understanding
	34	Separate syllable articulation	Parsing the utterance to resolve syllabic components of utterances to facilitate the understanding of low-level hearer by making syntactic boundaries and roles more out-standing
	35	Separate word/phrase articulation	Parsing the utterance to resolve phrasal/vocabulary components of utterances to facilitate the understanding of low-level hearer by making syntactic boundaries and roles more out-standing
36	Shorter utterance length	Producing fewer words than normal in an utterance to facilitate the understanding of low-level hearer	

Table 4.2 Continued

	No.	Communication strategies	Function
Speaker-based	37	Slow speech rate	Reducing the pace of linguistic production to facilitate the understanding of low-level hearer
	38	Umiming and erring	Use of verbal nonlexicalized as filled pauses to gain time to (re)design speech plan or linguistic structure while keeping the channel open and holding the floor
	39	Uninverted question	Asking the question without subject-verb inversion, in yes/no question with only rising intonation
	40	Use of all-purpose word	Use of a general empty lexical item instead of a more specific one
	41	Use of high-frequency items	Use of an alternative lexical item which occurs more frequently than the target less frequent one to reduce the chance of non-understanding for that item
	42	Use of or-choice questions	Asking questions by providing options for the addressee to select between/among
Hearer-based	43	Back-channeling	Verbal and nonverbal utterances signaling that the hearer is paying attention to and (feigning to be) understanding the speaker and the speaker can carry on speech
	44	Back-channeling: confirmation	Verbal and nonverbal utterances signaling that the hearer agrees with what is said by the speaker and confirms the speaker

4.5.1. Indo-European Language Group

This section deals with the data analysis of the five participants who were coming from the Indo-European language background. These five participants all come from different Indo-European language background one of whom speaks English as her native language and other as their second languages. Moreover, linguistic repertoire of each and every individual participant differs variously.

In the following, first individual language background will be explored and then the linguistic performance of every participant in the five constellations of the post office, the pharmacy, in the ICO office, with her/his instructor and his/her Turkish friend will be probed respectively. Finally a concluding part will sum up the multilingual behavior of the participant as a whole both from CS use and language choice strategy.

4.5.1.1. Indo-European Language Group: English

Table 4.3 indicates language background information about the US participant. It is worth noting that the US participant comes from a monolingual family with both parents speaking only English. As is indicated below she has mentioned only two languages available in her linguistic repertoire. In the Language Background Questionnaire the participant mentioned French as the language learnt at school from the age of 12. In her talk with her Turkish friend she also mentions that she had had a stay in France to learn French.

Table 4.3 US participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	English	Excellent
L2	French	Good

The participant did not have any visits to Turkey before so did not have any contact with Turkish priorly. However, she had taken a Turkish course at university since the beginning of the semester. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4 Information about the oral data for the US participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	03:35	01:45	02:37	03:04	10:08
Interval	30 days	30 days	30 days	45 days	45 days

Below are the data analyzed for the US participant in five constellations.

4.5.1.1.1. US Participant: Post office

Like all other participants she had been asked to attend the post office and ask questions about how their parents can send the money, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. Not only all these questions were asked and the answers received by the participant and reported to the researcher, hence communication act accomplishment achieved, but also some postcards were also mailed to the USA by the participant in the following which are also included in the data.

In her attending the post office, the US participant got into communication with both of the clerks working in the only post office of the campus. Both were native speakers of Turkish with the male clerk being in the beginner level of English. The other female clerk could use her English at an understandable level both receptively and productively although being not very fluent in speaking.

The US participant first started her interaction with the male clerk. To set the language, her conversation started with 'language choice strategy' in Turkish. Her choosing Turkish indicates her effort to be on the safe side without taking any risks on communication effectiveness by saying "ee ingilizce biliyormusunuz?" (do you know English?) as she does not have any evaluation of her addressee's language background. After getting "vallahi çok az ya" (very little) as an answer from her addressee for language choice she uses 'other repetition' as a strategy to confirm her understanding about what was mentioned by her addressee. Figure 4.3 indicates how

‘language choice marker’ and ‘other repetition’ worked for the participant. In the following she uses the same strategies for her second addressee as well.

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:03.1]	2 [00:04.6]	3 [00:05.3]	4 [00:06.8]	5 [00:08.1]
P [v]	Ee İngilizce biliyormusunuz?		Çok az.		Eee	
P [nv]					<i>laughing</i>	
P [v]	Do you know English?		Very little.			
A1 [v]			Vallahi çok az ya.	İstersen	sen çeviri yap	
A1 [v]			Very little.	If you want	you translate.	

Figure 4.3 US participant ‘language choice marker’ strategy

After hearing a nearly no answer for English, and not having sufficient command of active Turkish to continue her speech, the participant continued her speech resorting to foreigner talk English with ‘slow speech rate’, ‘shorter utterance length’, ‘separate phrase articulation’, ‘more careful pronunciation’, ‘use of high-frequency items’ (using ‘give’ instead of ‘send’ as a more common word) and pauses to gear her speech to her addressee’s comprehension level. Figure 4.4 below indicates the foreigner talk strategies used. As is clear from the figure, before explaining her problem in foreigner talk, the participant uses ‘umming and erring’ and a two-second pause to gain time to redesign her speech plan for the current situation. Gaining time is also provided by the participant with ‘lengthened sound’ strategy for ‘and’ in segment 7 of the figure above.

	6 [00:16.57]	7 [00:17.1]
P [v]	TL eem ((2s)) My mom • is in the States.	AAAnd she wants to give me
A1 [v]		Hm̃
	8 [00:20.6]	9 [00:23.0] 10 [00:23.7] 11 [00:24.4]
P [v]	money • here.	OK. Ee how do I need /
A1 [v]	Ee sana yurtdışından para gelecek.	Hă
A1 [v]	Money will come for you from abroad.	

Figure 4.4 US participant foreigner talk strategies

The male clerk after falling short of keeping up with the participant resorts to his colleague for assistance. As mentioned before the same ‘language choice marker’ is also used by the participant to make sure her addressee can follow in English. The interaction continues smoothly with the female addressee until the participant asks a question about how long it takes for her to receive the money which is not understood completely by the addressee and leads to participant’s using ‘self-repetition’ and ‘self-rephrase’ strategies as her response followed by another ‘self-rephrase’ as indicated in Figure 4.5.

	..	29 [01:19.530 [01:20.431 [01:20.9]	32 [01:22.9]	33 [01:24.0]
P [v]		OK.	And how long does it take?	How long does it take
A2 [v]	money.	OK?		How long?
	..	34 [01:26.8]		
P [v]	or when will I receive?			
A2 [v]	İşte bunu anlamıyormusun. Ne zamana kadar sürer gibi bir			
A2 [v]	I did not understand this. You said something like how long it take. The			
	..	35 [01:33.636 [01:34.237 [01:35.0]		38 [01:36.1]
P [v]		Hm̃	It comes immediately?	
A2 [v]	şey söylüyor. İşlem mi? Money?	Eee	Haaa eee	Which
A2 [v]	procedure? Money?			

Figure 4.5 US participant response self-repetition and self-rephrase

As a hearer, the participant had an active role as well. In Figure 4.4 participant’s role as a hearer is shown in segment 9. After bringing up her problem in English, her addressee tries to check her understanding in Turkish. The participant’s “OK” as a response provides a response to assure his addressee. Her command of receptive Turkish is of help for her in this case. Furthermore, various instances of verbal and nonverbal back-channeling used by the participant help the addressee carry on speech more comfortably as they assure the speaker for being understood (or at least feigning to be so) by the hearer (see Figure 4.6 below).

	24 [01:12.9]	25 [01:14.8]	26 [01:15.6]	27 [01:16.828]	[01:17.2]
P [v]	Do I need to fill paper here?	Hm̃´		Hm̃´	
A2 [v]	Ee I give you a	a form. You write form.		OK? And I pay you	
	29 [01:19.930]	[01:20.431]	[01:20.9]	32 [01:22.9]	33 [01:24.0]
P [v]	OK.	And how long does it take?		How long does it take	
A2 [v]	money.	OK?		How long?	

Figure 4.6 US participant back-channeling

A specific type of back-channeling was identified in this study, which gives a confirmation aspect to it. If back-channels were to be put in sentences they would be like ‘I am (pretending to be) giving sufficient attention to your speech and you as the speaker can make sure I have understood what you have mentioned so far and can continue your speech’ from the hearer’s side. However, if back-channeling is used for confirmation of the speaker’s current utterance it would come to mean ‘I confirm what you just mentioned and I agree with what you just said.’ Like back-channeling this is done both verbally and nonverbally without taking a turn. This second type of back-channeling is called ‘back-channeling: confirmation’ hence forth. An instance of this strategy is illustrated in Figure 4.7 below used by the US participant.

	44 [01:44.7]	45 [01:48.5]
P [v]	OK. ••• And do I need my passport or anything to ... ?	
A2 [v]		Evet you have passport.
A2 [v]		Yes you have passport.
	46 [01:50.347]	[01:50.8]
P [v]	Hm̃´	Hm̃´
A2 [v]	And e you have • a Turkish number.	Nine nine bip bip
A2 [v]		OK. devamı eder. goes on that way
	48 [01:54.249]	[01:54.7]
	50 [01:56.6]	

Figure 4.7 Back-channeling: confirmation

A summary of both speaker-based and hearer-based CS used by the US participant in the post office with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5 CS used by the US participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Language choice marker	2
	2	Umiming and erring	6
	3	Pause	4
	4	Slow speech rate	1
	5	Shorter utterance length	1
	6	More careful pronunciation	2
	7	Separate word/phrase articulation	1
	8	Use of high-frequency items	1
	9	Lengthened sound	2
	10	Form self-repair	1
	11	Expressing non-understanding	1
	12	Response: self-repetition	1
	13	Response: rephrase	1
	14	Self-rephrase	1
	15	Other-repetition	2
	16	Response: confirmation	1
Hearer-based	17	Back-channeling	11
	18	Back-channeling: confirmation	1

At the end some notes need to be given about languages choice strategy used by the US participant in the post office. There are three instances of using Turkish in this discourse. In fact the participant has used Turkish twice with two of her addressees to signalize the language choice. At the beginning of her communication she has also tried to make use of Turkish more but has been forced to switch to English. At the end of her conversation for the last time has changed to Turkish with ‘teşekkür ederim’ (thank you) and ‘kolay gelsin’ (may it be easy) to close up the conversation. So three instances of CSW between Turkish and English can be noted in this discourse. (see Figure 4.8)

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:03.1]	2 [00:04.6]	3 [00:05.3]	4 [00:06.8]5 [00:08.2]
P [v]	Ee	İngilizce biliyormusunuz?	Çok az.		Eeee
P [nv]					<i>laughing</i>
P [v]		Do you know English?	Very little.		
A1 [v]		Vallahi çok az ya.	İstersen sen çeviri yap		
A1 [v]		Very little.	If you want you translate.		
				6 [00:16.57 [00:17.1]	
P [v]	TL	eeem ((2s)) My mom • is in the States.	AA	And she wants to give me	
A1 [v]			Hm		

	17 [00:58.0]	18 [00:59.0]	19 [01:01.1]	20 [01:01.9]
P [v]		Ee	İngilizcede?	OK. Emm my mom wants to send me money.
P [v]		In English?		
A1 [v]		Anladım.		
A1 [v]		I understood.		
A2 [v]		Evet.	Fifty fifty.	
A2 [v]		Yes.		

	75 [03:26.1]	76 [03:30.2]	77 [03:33.2]
P [v]		Teşekkür ederim.	Kolay
P [v]		Thank you.	May it be easy.
A1 [v]		Tamam. Ben Teşekkür ederim sağolasın.	
A1 [nv]		<i>Getting the coins and giving back the change</i>	
A1 [v]		OK. I thank you. Thanks.	
		78 [03:34.3]	79 [03:36.2]
P [v]		gelsin.	
P [v]			
A1 [v]		İyi günler efendim.	
A1 [v]		Have a nice day madam	

Figure 4.8 US participant in the post office: instances of CSW

The reason she has used her yet beginner Turkish is probably a matter of politeness. In her stimulated recall she mentioned that when she is in a foreign country and she tries to use the language of that country as much as possible and that it is rude to go up to someone and start speaking English. She also mentioned that it was her best with Turkish and if she could, she would have continued in Turkish.

4.5.1.1.2. US Participant: Pharmacy

The communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. The US participant could successfully explain the situation and get answers for the questions and report it to the researcher in the post interview.

Again there are two addressees: the pharmacist and her assistant. Both are native Turkish speakers and both have a beginner level in English both receptively and productively. The CS and language choice strategies observed by the US participant in this communication act are much like the post office. So the most outstanding CS used are that of foreigner talk and other explanatory strategies.

As can be seen from Figure 4.9 the conversation starts with the key Turkish word 'boğaz', followed by 'miming' strategy of making the sound of coughing. Then 'Hm' 'Evet' as a 'response: confirmation' strategy tries to confirm the addressee's guess about her problem. In her following question in segment 7 apart from 'slow speech rate', 'shorter utterance length', 'separate word / phrase articulation', 'more careful pronunciation', 'ummings and errings' and 'pauses' three other strategies stand out. First, instead of using a specific word, there is 'something' as a general word to fulfill the 'use of all-purpose word' strategy'. A similar strategy is used elsewhere when 'a more difficult item is replaced with a more frequent one', i.e. 'take' is replaced by 'eat' for pills (see Figure 4.10 below). Second, at the end of the question there is some more explanation about what is intended by the participant as 'circumlocution.' Third, instead of using a wh- question there is the 'use of yes/no questions.' A similar foreigner talk communication strategy used with questions is 'uninverted question' an instance of which is used by the US participant as indicated in Figure 4.10 in segment 32.

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:03.0]	2 [00:04.3]	3 [00:06.0]	4 [00:06.55 [00:07.4]	6 [00:07.97 [00:08.8]
P [v]	Ee boğaz.			Eem ...	Hm' Evet.	Eemm • do you have
P [nv]	<i>Artificial coughing</i>					
P [v]	Throat.				Hm' Yes.	
A1 [v]		Ariyor.		Cau.	Yes? Hm'	
A1 [v]		Aching.				
	..				8 [00:17.0]	9 [00:19.1]
P [v]	something to ••• eemm make it not sore like mint nane? Or ...					
A1 [v]	Yes. Yes yes OK.					
A1 [nv]	<i>Taking the</i>					

Figure 4.9 US participant foreigner talk strategies in the pharmacy

	21 [01:15.7]	22 [01:21.623 [01:22.224 [01:22.8]	25 [01:24.9]	26 [01:26.327 [01:26.8]
P [v]		Yes.	OK. Two times?	Do I
A1 [v]	This.	Ee sabah • akşam.	Yes.	
A1 [nv]	<i>Showing the medicine.</i>			
A1 [v]		Ee morning evening.		
A2 [v]				Morning is
	.. 28 [01:27.8]	29 [01:29.3]	30 [01:30.831 [01:31.3]	32 [01:33.1] 33 [01:34.2]
P [v]	need to eat before?	Hm'	After eating?	
A1 [v]		One tablet.	Sabah one tablet.	
A1 [v]			Morning one tablet	
A2 [v]	...		After to eating morning one ea / eee	

Figure 4.10 ‘A more difficult item replaced with a more frequent one’ by the US participant

Furthermore, explanatory CS are also evident throughout the discourse as mechanisms to save the communication from breakdown. As is indicated in Figure 4.11, segment 15 there is ‘self-repetition’ in an effort to get the message over by repeating the question in a little modified way and in segment 17, ‘self-rephrasing’ what had been mentioned before to put the message in other words to make her question understood.

	13 [00:49.2]	14 [00:51.1]	15 [00:56.3]
P [v]		Tamam. Eemm and if it still hurts? Like	after a couple
P [v]		OK.	
A1 [v]		Eight • liras.	Cua ...
A2 [v]	var ya. sekiz lira.		
A2 [nv]			
A2 [v]			
	16 [01:01.417 [01:02.3]		
P [v]	of days? After a couple of days if it still hurts?	In three days or four	days
A1 [v]		Yes?	
	18 [01:06.5]		19 [01:14.020 [01:14.5]
P [v]	should I come back?		Yeah.
A1 [v]		Hà' Yes. Eee ((1.5 s)) antibiotics? Antibiotics.	Yes.

Figure 4.11 ‘self-repetition’ and ‘self-rephrase’ by the US participant

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies used by the US participant in the pharmacy are given in Table 4.6.

The US participant stated that she believes that when you are in a foreign country you should use the language of that country especially in public places. So, Turkish is tried to be used as much as possible when the required vocabulary available in the participant’s Turkish repertoire to provide as much understanding as possible. Despite her little Turkish command, the US participant starts the conversation in Turkish and makes occasional switches between Turkish and English. (see Figures 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11 above for examples) Also, the participant’s receptive understanding of Turkish is also evident from the discourse as in segment 25 in Figure 4.10 where in response to the pharmacist instruction to take the medicine twice a day in the morning and evening in Turkish the US participant asks for confirmation by asking ‘two times?’ to make sure for her understanding in Turkish. So CSW between Turkish and English is the language choice strategy used by the US participant in the pharmacy as frequent as three times.

Table 4.6 CS used by the US participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Miming	1
	2	Umiming and erring	6
	3	Pause	2
	4	Slow speech rate	2
	5	Shorter utterance length	2
	6	Separate word/phrase articulation	2
	7	More careful pronunciation	2
	8	Use of high-frequency items	1
	9	Use of all-purpose word	1
	10	Circumlocution	1
	11	More yes/no questions	3
	12	self-repetition	1
	13	Uninverted question	1
	14	Self-rephrase	1
	15	Asking for confirmation	1
Hearer-based	16	Back-channeling	6

4.5.1.1.3. US Participant: ICO office

Exchange students have frequent visits to the ICO office for their various issues one of commonest one is to resolve their residence issue. So the communication act problem defined for the ICO office was about this issue and the questions raised were how and where to get the residence permit, what the process is, the documents needed and how long it takes to get the permit. The US participant was able to provide answers for all the questions and report it to the researcher after the data recording in the post interview.

The US participant had the ICO clerk as her addressee. The clerk was a native Turkish speaker with two foreign languages: English and French. Her English was

excellent and French good according to her self-evaluation. As a result there is not much of strategies used. There is only ‘response: content repair’ when the participant mistakens ‘residence permit’ with ‘student visa’ and corrects herself upon her addressee’s warning (Figure 4.12) and ‘back-channeling’ as a hearer. It must be noted that the major role the participant had accepted was as a hearer as after bringing up each question there was much information needed to be given by the ICO clerk, hence the participant using verbal and nonverbal back-channeling signals to lead the discourse ahead.

..		2 [00:11.5]	
P [v]	with me. Do you have any information?		
A [v]		You have to get your student visa? I mean you	
..		3 [00:15.4]	4 [00:16.8]
P [v]	my resident permit. Yeah.		
A [v]	had to get ...	Am OK. You had to get student visa from your	

Figure 4.12 US participant content repair as a response

The two CS used with their functions and frequencies used by the US participant in the ICO office are given in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 CS used by the US participant in the ICO office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Response: content repair	1
Hearer-based	2	Back-channeling	23

English was the only language used by both the interactants all through the conversation. Even though according to their self-evaluation, both interlocutors had a sufficient command of French as the common language to use for communication, this never occurred. That is, English as the default lingua franca on METU campus is used even when there is a secondary optional code for communication.

4.5.1.1.4. US Participant: Instructor

Instructors as advisors could be consulted with for the courses taken. So the participants were asked to talk to their instructors to make sure whether the courses taken are sufficient or not and whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. The US participant was successful to manage this communication act and not only gain the needed information and report in the post-interview, but also open up other topics and continue the communication.

US participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with four other languages in her linguistic repertoire: English and German as the languages she was fluent in and Farsi and Spanish in the beginner level. All through the discourse English was the only language used. Since both parties were fluent in English, the discourse unfolded smoothly with few CS used. Apart from 'ummings and errings', a 'pause' and a 'self-repair', and 'back-channeling' and 'back-channeling: confirmation' as a hearer, 'other-repetition: question' was the strategy used as a reaction to participant's claim three courses taken by the participant are more than enough. (see Figure 4.13 below)

	6 [00:19.7]	7 [00:22.1]
P [v]	of the Modern Middle East. But I'm taking only three. So ...	
P [v]	Hm̃	Hm̃ I think three is more than
	8 [00:24.7]	9 [00:26.410 [00:26.9]
P [v]	More than enough? OK.	Oh
P [v]	enough for a semester. Yes.	You could / you could have even taken two.
		11 [00:29.5]

Figure 4.13 US participant 'other-repetition: question' strategy

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the US participant in her talk with her instructor are given in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 CS used by the US participant with her instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	3
	2	Pause	1
	3	Form self-repair	1
	4	Other-repetition: question	1
Hearer-based	5	Back-channeling	7
	6	Back-channeling: confirmation	2

Unlike the post office and pharmacy, like the ICO office, the only language used was English.

4.5.1.1.5. US Participant: Turkish Friend

The last of communication act problems is defined for participant's Turkish friends. They needed to go to their friends and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. The US participant covered all these issues and in the following had time to discuss about her topic of thesis and her language learning experience in Turkey and other countries.

The US participant's addressee was a Turkish native speaker with English as his second language. English was the only language used throughout the conversation and since fluent English is used by both parties not much of CS can be observed. So as a hearer 'back-channeling' and 'back-channeling: confirmation' and as a speaker

‘ummings and errings’, ‘pause’, ‘self-rephrase’, ‘form self-repair’ were among the CS. The outstanding strategies used were ‘expanding’, and ‘self-repair: British English/American English.’

‘Expanding’ is when the interlocutor put the issue in hand in a larger context to give more details about it. An instance of this strategy occurred when the US participant was explaining her topic of thesis and to shed light on the issue she gave a more general example from the real life. Figure 4.14 illustrates US participant’s using this strategy.

	..	55 [02:43.8]	56 [02:44.5*]
P [v]		They did because there was no essential authority leading the	
A [v]	you think there is?	Oh`	
	..	57 [02:48.4]	58 [02:52.3]
P [v]	revolution. And the people that organized	I mean you see in • soccer clubs how	
A [v]	Hm`	they À`	
	..	59 [02:56.4]	60 [02:58.3]
P [v]	can have riots and also how they organize the cheer for the team	I mean they were the	
A [v]	yeah yeah.	yeah.	
	..	61 [03:01.2]	
P [v]	ones who are living the organization and they were the /	I mean are having the	
A [v]		À`	

Figure 4.14 US participant ‘expanding’ strategy

Another exceptional strategy identified in this discourse was being sensitive for different British and American vocabulary for the same concept. In American English ‘soccer’ is used for the sport which is ‘football’ in British English which is also accepted in ELF for that sport as well. Unlike the version of English she uses, the US participant corrects herself with replacing ‘soccer’ with ‘football.’ (see Figure 4.15 below)

	46 [02:14.4]	47 [02:16.8]
P [v]	on the role of soccer • clubs / football clubs in in the revolutions. And in Turkey as	
A [v]	Oh interesting!	À
A [nv]	<i>surpised</i>	<i>Surprised</i>

Figure 4.15 US participant BrE/AmE form self-repair

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the US participant in her talk with her Turkish friend are given in table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9 CS used by the US participant with her Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	6
	2	Pause	10
	3	Form self-repair	3
	4	Form self-repair: BrE/AmE	1
	5	Expanding	1
	6	Self-rephrase	2
Hearer-based	7	Back-channeling	20
	8	Back-channeling: confirmation	2

Like the ICO office and her instructor, in this communication act the only language used was English. Fewer occurrence of CS is an indication of a smooth and nonproblematic communication.

4.5.1.1.6. US Participant: Conclusion

All in all the US participant was able to finish all the five communication act problems successfully and provide answers for all the questions for each constellation. Table 4.10 below summarizes all the CS used by the US participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

Table 4.10 Summary of all CS used by the US participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	6	6	-	3	6	21
	2	Pause	4	2	-	1	10	17
	3	Form self-repair	1	-	-	1	3	5
	4	Self-rephrase	1	1	-	-	2	4
	5	Slow speech rate	1	2	-	-	-	3
	6	Shorter utterance length	1	2	-	-	-	3
	7	Separate word/phrase articulation	1	2	-	-	-	3
	8	More yes/no questions	-	3	-	-	-	3
	9	More careful pronunciation	1	2	-	-	-	3
	10	Use of high-frequency items	1	1	-	-	-	2
	11	Other-repetition	2	-	-	-	-	2
	12	Lengthened sound	2	-	-	-	-	2
	13	Language choice marker	2	-	-	-	-	2
	14	Miming	-	1	-	-	-	1
	15	Use of all-purpose word	-	1	-	-	-	1
	16	Expanding	-	-	-	-	1	1
	17	Form self-repair: BrE/AmE	-	-	-	-	1	1
	18	Expressing non-understanding	1	-	-	-	-	1
	19	Other-repetition: question	-	-	-	1	-	1
	20	Response: content repair	-	-	1	-	-	1
	21	Response: self-repetition	1	-	-	-	-	1

Table 4.10 Continued

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	22	Response: rephrase	1	-	-	-	-	1
	23	self-repetition	-	1	-	-	-	1
	24	Uninverted question	-	1	-	-	-	1
	25	Asking for confirmation	-	1	-	-	-	1
	26	Circumlocution	-	1	-	-	-	1
	27	Response: confirmation	1	-	-	-	-	1
Hearer-based	28	Back-channeling	11	6	23	7	20	67
	29	Back-channeling: confirmation	1	-	-	2	2	5

As is clear from the table above post office and pharmacy were the constellations that required the most number of CS. The reason was because the addressees the participant had faced in these places. The addressees in these two places had a very low-level command of English which was almost the sole code for communication and the US participant had to well use this chance to get the message over, hence resorting to different CS. These two constellations each had two addressees which might be another reason for the addressee's being low-level and needing another partner to accept the responsibility of carrying on the communication. The other three had a normal range of CS which might occur in any even L1 discourse as well.

According to Table 4.10 ummings and errings and pauses are the most frequent strategies used by the participant. Ummings and errings are filled and pauses are unfilled gaps in the flow of communication. These strategies are used in all but one constellation. In the ICO office the participant was more of a hearer since she was asking questions that needed extensive answers from the ICO office clerk. Another

point is that use of these strategies are not limited to impeded discourses like the post office or pharmacy where much mental effort is required to restructure the form to fit the addressee's level of understanding. Ummings and errings and pauses are common in all types of conversations even in L1.

As an active hearer, the US participant has played her role well by providing enough of back-channeling signals in all the five constellations to help her addressees carry on the discourse more confident of his/her interlocutor's understanding.

The language choice strategy followed by the US participant is clear both from the recorded data and from her stimulated recall. Although she had a limited range of vocabulary and a beginner level of Turkish command, she has tried to use her Turkish both productively and receptively in the post office and the pharmacy. Starting the conversation in Turkish as a matter of courtesy and making CSW between Turkish and English is evident in the two places. In the stimulated recall she stated that not using the language of that country in public places would be rude and that in those two public places she would have continued her talk in Turkish if she could. About the other three constellations she explained that in academic places where she is sure that individuals are fluent in English she would directly use English. In short, CSW between Turkish and English in public places, and ELF (in its general definition) in the academic environment were her language choice preferences for the five communication acts.

4.5.1.2. Indo-European Language Background: Dutch

Another participant with Indo-European language background comes from the Netherlands. As Table 4.11 indicates this participant has a multilingual language background. According to his language background questionnaire, he has started learning foreign languages with English at the age of nine from school complemented with TV, internet and getting in touch with the speakers of the language. French and German are the other foreign languages that follow English having been started learning at school at the ages of 12 and 13 respectively. Interestingly this participant's parents are also multilingual both having command in

Spanish and English other than L1 Dutch, although only Dutch is used at home. In fact, in the questionnaire for the last two L2s no context of use has been indicated by the participant. English is the language that is used by the participant with friends, teachers and official institutions in Turkey.

Table 4.11 Dutch participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	Dutch	Excellent
L2	English	Very Good
L2	French	Poor
L2	German	Average

The Dutch participant did not have any visits to Turkey before and it was his first visit. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Information about the oral data for the Dutch participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	04:15	02:07	03:31	07:13	02:47
Interval	50 days	50 days	50 days	50 days	50 days

Below are the data analyzed for the US participant in five constellations. Like the previous case, in this case also post office and pharmacy communication acts are more challenging and more CS are used in.

4.5.1.2.1. Dutch Participant: Post Office

The mission of the Dutch participant in this communication act, like all other participants, was to attend the post office and ask questions about how their parents can send money, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. All these questions were asked and the answers were received by the participant and reported to the researcher, hence communication act accomplishment achieved.

When the Dutch participant attends the post office a female clerk helps her with the issue. This clerk was a native speaker of Turkish with her English at an understandable level although not fluent. Whole the interaction goes on in English except for a probable case of receptive Turkish understanding on the side of the participant.

The communication starts with a mistake on the part of the participant so a self-repair occurs. However, this time the self-repair is not for the form but for the content. Language users in their language production try to produce utterances that have correct grammatical forms and true content. So ‘self-repair’ can occur both for the form and content of the message to be conveyed. ‘Content self-repair’, as can be seen in Figure 4.16, is used by the Dutch participant.

	0 [00:00.0]1 [00:01.4]	2 [00:05.0]
P [v]	Hello. Emm I want to send some / my parents need to send me some money.	
A [v]	Hello.	Money O

Figure 4.16 Content self-repair by the Dutch participant

Another point during the conversation that lead to some transaction was when the clerk was explaining the needed documents to get the money. The clerk asked about the Turkish Republic number which lead the participant's 'other-repetition: question' to ask for clarification followed by another 'asking for clarification: meaning' (Figure 4.17). In general in the literature the communication strategy of 'asking for clarification' is used when the hearer is not able to digest the meaning of the utterance due to his/her insufficiency in the structure used by the speaker, hence 'asking for clarification' because of a form. However, in this case the problem is not because the participant is not equipped with the utilized form but because his knowledge of the topic being discussed is lacking, thus 'asking for clarification: meaning.' This strategy is used once more by the participant when he feels the need for more information about how his parents can send the money and is repeated a little while later (see Figure 4.18).

.. 15 [01:06.1]			
P [v]	Yeah.		
A [v]	OK? And ee you have a eeeee eee şey ••• number eee / Turkish Republic number. ••		
.. 16 [01:16.4] 17 [01:17.2] 18 [01:17.9] 19 [01:19.0]			
P [v]	Turkish Republic number?	What is / what is it?	
A [v]	OK?	Number evet.	Eee this is eeemm ikamet <i>saying ikamet tezkersei slowly</i>
A [nv]			
A [v]		Number yes.	This is residence permit. The blue

Figure 4.17 Dutch participant 'other-repetition: question' and 'asking for clarification: meaning' CS

Another communication strategy that can be detected from Figure 4.18 is 'mentioning the antecedent of the proform.' The participant asks the question using the pronoun 'they' referring to his parents. However, right after the question, to help his addressee identify the antecedent of the proform, he adds 'my parents.'

			28 [01:39.8]
P [v]	how do they send it? They go / how can they send me the money?		
A [v]			Nereden gön /
		31 [01:56.0] 32 [01:56.9] 33 [01:59.1]	
P [v]	Sorry the		Where do they where do
A [v]	ee hour later you can give money.	Hm? ((1s)) So ask.	
		34 [02:02.6]	35 [02:04.4]
P [v]	they need to go? My parents. They / how can they send me the money? They.		
A [v]			((1s))
A [v]	Where?		I did not

Figure 4.18 Dutch participant ‘asking for clarification: meaning’ and ‘mentioning the antecedent of proform’ CS

Except for usual ‘ummings and errings’, ‘form self-repairs’, ‘other-repetitions: question’, ‘rephrases’ and ‘circumlocutions’ as a speaker and ‘backchanneling’ as a hearer, two cases of ‘uninverted questions’ (see Figure 4.19) and a case of ‘asking for confirmation’ (see Figure 4.20) were outstanding.

		38 [02:14.7]	39 [02:16.8]
P [v]	Western Union OK.		It's also in Europe?
A [v]	can give money Western Union. Only. Hă' Only Western Union.		
			40 [02:21.4]
P [v]	Western Union. It's / or they send it to here? They send it to here?		OK.
A [v]			Tabi yes yes. Aha
A [nv]			<i>Of course</i>
		42 [02:25.3]	43 [02:26.944 [02:27.445 [02:28.0]
P [v]	Yeah. Then so I bring my passport?	Yes.	Amm
A [v]	OK.	Evet. You have passport?	Hm'
A [v]		Yes. You have passport?	

Figure 4.19 Dutch participant's cases of using ‘uninverted questions’

As mentioned before ‘uninverted questions’ are strategies used in foreigner talk. It is making yes/no questions without subject-verb inversion using only the rising intonation. This way without discomposing the unmarked SVO structure, understanding is facilitated for the less proficient addressees.

	66 [03:41.5]	67 [03:43.3]	68 [03:45.9]
P [v]	they send I receive.		
A [v]	••• Hazır ne?		Onlar verecek. They
A [nv]		<i>asking from a customer for assistance</i>	
A [v]	Ready what?		They will give.
	69 [03:48.7*]	70 [03:52.0]	71 [03:52.5]
P [v]		Oh wow OK well I know what it	
A [v]	give money. Ama onu I don't know ee Holanda ee ...		OK? Hã´
A [v]	But I don't know that ee Holland		
	72 [03:54.373 [03:55.0]		74 [03:57.675 [03:58.0]
P [v]	is. They should ask it.	OK. So they go to the Western Union?	Yeah.
A [v]	Hm´		Yes. Western

Figure 4.20 Dutch participant’s ‘asking for confirmation’

As can be understood from the above data excerpt ‘asking for confirmation’ is a strategy used when the speaker is requesting verification for accuracy of what s/he has just heard or understood.

A summary of all the CS used by the Dutch participant in the post office are given in Table 4.13 below.

As for language choice strategy, the whole discourse was in English except for the case when the post office clerk asks about the ‘mavi kart’ (the blue card). As is clear from Figure 4.21, the clerk asks about a card that is the residence permit for international students and the participant states that he does not possess such a card.

Table 4.13 CS used by the Dutch participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Ummering and erring	2
	2	Other-repetition: question	1
	3	Other-repetition	2
	4	Content self-repair	1
	5	Form self-repair	4
	6	Asking for clarification: meaning	2
	7	Asking for confirmation	1
	8	Self-rephrase	1
	9	Circumlocution	1
	10	Response: rephrase	1
	11	Uninverted question	2
	12	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	1
Hearer-based	13	Back-channeling	11

		20 [01:28.3]	21 [01:29.2*]
P [v]		Mavi kart no no.	
P [v]		Blue card no	
A [v]	tezkeresi. Ikam / eee mavi kart. •• You have a mavi kart.		Amm you don'
A [nv]			
A [v]	card. You have a blue card.		
	22 [01:30.5]	23 [01:31.0]	24 [01:34.425 [01:34.726 [01:35.4] 27 [01:36.5]
P [v]	No mavi no.	Yes.	So then this /
A [v]	t have? Ä` OK passport. You have passport?	Hă`	Ha`

Figure 4.21 Dutch participant's probable receptive Turkish understanding

Two possibilities could be thought of here. The first possibility is the participant's understanding the meaning of 'mavi' and 'kart' and since he did not

have a card which was blue, he could have come to the conclusion of not possessing a card with a blue color. The second possibility is that the participant could have taken the ‘mavi kart’ as a proper noun without having any ideas about the characteristics of that ‘thing’ and since not having received such a property, he could have come to the conclusion of not possessing it. In his stimulated recall he shed light on the issue. He stated that

I didn’t know exactly what a ‘mavi kart’ was. ‘Kart’ sounds like ‘card’ so I assumed it was some kind of card on which the Turkish citizen number could be found. Since I didn’t have any card with such number I told the guy I didn’t have the ‘mavi kart.’

All in all the post office communication act for the Dutch participant was a monolingual interaction, thus ELF.

4.5.1.2.2. Dutch Participant: Pharmacy

Like for all other participants, the communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and a sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. The Dutch participant was able to successfully explain the situation and get answers for the questions and report it to the researcher in the post interview.

The participant’s addressee in the pharmacy is a female pharmacist who is a native speaker of Turkish with an intermediate command of English as her only foreign language. The conversation starts with the Dutch participant’s explaining his health problem and the pharmacist’s suggestion for the participant to visit a doctor first (which is an indication of the being a natural real-life discourse) and followed by the participant’s surprise which is reflected in his ‘asking for confirmation’ strategy to make sure he has heard and understood his addressee correctly, as is shown in Figure 4.22.

	3 [00:26.1]	4 [00:27.9]
P [v]	I should go to the doctor first?	
A [v]	you because ee I said you came to the doctor.	Because

Figure 4.22 Dutch participant's 'asking for confirmation' in the pharmacy

Another point that was outstanding with this discourse was the participant's effort for explaining the intervals to get the medicine and the side effects of it. After the pharmacist expresses non-understanding for how long to take the medicine, the participant uses 'response: rephrase' strategy to clarify the issue followed by an 'or-choice question.' This latter strategy is originally a foreigner talk strategy. As providing answers for open-ended questions are challenging and difficult for less proficient language users, or-choice questions are used to provide options for the interlocutor to choose between/among and reduce the linguistic load. The two strategies are indicated in Figure 4.23 below.

	17 [01:03.8]
P [v]	Emm emm the interval em
A [v]	Pardon üzür dilerim anlayamadım. I didn't understand sorry.
A [v]	Pardom me. Sorry I could not understand.
	18 [01:08.819 [01:09.5]
	20 [01:11.1]
P [v]	medi / if I get at Medico I should take it a week or amm?
A [v]	Hm̃' Maybe a week ee

Figure 4.23 Dutch participant's 'response: rephrase' and 'or-choice question' strategies in the pharmacy

Moreover, to ask about the side effects of the medicine, the Dutch participant resorted to 'circumlocution' as a strategy to describe the target meaning in other words, as is indicated in Figure 4.24.

	22 [01:21.8]	23 [01:24.9]	
P [v]	Emm when I take medici / when I take the		
A [v]	Haam yan etkileri var mı diye soruyor. No.		
A [v]	He asks whether there is side effect for it.		
	24 [01:29.0]	25 [01:39.0]	
P [v]	antibiotics eemm will I eemm feel weak or eemm feel bad or it's no sided it's.		
A [v]	Hm̃		Yani ee
A [v]			I mean

Figure 4.24 Dutch participant use of ‘circumlocution’ in the pharmacy

One point about this discourse and the Dutch participant’s performance here is that all in all the Dutch participant uses very little of ‘ummings and errings’. However, in this communication act the most number of cases were observed. Bearing in mind that these fillers are used to gain time to (re)design speech plan or linguistic structure while keeping the channel open and holding the floor, it is clear that this discourse was an impeded one for the Dutch fluent-English-user participant as he used this strategy frequently to gain time to adapt the form to his less proficient addressee. All the CS used by the Dutch participant with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.14 below.

Table 4.14 CS used by the Dutch participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	12
	2	Form self-repair	1
	3	Content self-repair	1
	4	Other-repetition	1
	5	Asking for confirmation	1
	6	Response: rephrase	1
	7	Use of or-choice questions	1
	8	Circumlocution	1
Hearer-based	9	Back-channeling	1

Like all other communication acts for the Dutch participant, the pharmacy discourse was a monolingual English one, hence ELF.

4.5.1.2.3. Dutch Participant: ICO Office

The communication act problem defined for the ICO office was about residence permit and the questions that were supposed to be raised by the participant were how and where to get the residence permit, what the process is, the documents needed and how long it takes to get the permit. The Dutch participant was able to provide answers for all the questions and report it to the researcher after the data recording in the post interview.

The Dutch participant had an ICO office clerk as her addressee. The clerk was a native Turkish speaker with English as her foreign language. According to her self-evaluation, her English was excellent. As a result there is not much of strategies used. As a hearer ‘back-channeling’ and as a speaker three cases of ‘ummings and errings’ with one case of ‘form self-repair’ and another three cases of ‘other-repetitions’ were the CS used in this discourse by the Dutch participant. ‘Other-repetitions’ are used by the participant as an indication of understanding the interlocutor’s previous utterance. One instance of ‘other-repetition’ is given in Figure 4.25 below.

	34 [02:11.4]	35 [02:12.2]	36 [03:03.3]	37 [03:06.5]
P [v]	Three photos			
A [v]	I can check it.		Yeah. EEmm three photographs yes.	
A [nv]		<i>checking the computer</i>		

Figure 4.25 Dutch participant’s ‘other-repetition’ in ICO office

It must be noted that like the US participant, the major role the Dutch participant had accepted was as a hearer as after bringing up each question, there was much information needed to be given by the ICO clerk, hence the participant using verbal and nonverbal back-channeling signals to lead the discourse ahead. The four CS used with their functions and frequencies used by the Dutch participant in the ICO office are given in Table 4.15 below.

Table 4.15 CS used by the Dutch participant in the ICO office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	3
	2	Form self-repair	1
	3	Other-repetition	3
Hearer-based	2	Back-channeling	18

The only language used whole the discourse is English. So it can be called an unmarked ELF communication.

4.5.1.2.4. Dutch Participant: Instructor

Another communication act the Dutch participant had to take part in was with his instructor. The participant was asked to talk to his instructor to make sure whether the courses taken were sufficient or not and whether some courses needed to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. The Dutch participant was successful to manage this communication act and not only gain the needed information and report in the post-interview, but also carry the

communication forward by asking about the courses to be taken to best fit his major in his home university.

The Dutch participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with three other foreign languages in his repertoire: English, German and French, the best of which was English that he was excellent in, according to his self-evaluation. All through the discourse English was the only language used. Since both parties were fluent in English, the discourse unfolded smoothly with few CS used.

'Ummings and errings', 'pauses', a case of 'other-repetition', with another case of 'content self-repair' and 'back-channelings' are among the CS used. There are also two cases of 'self-rephrase' which are in the question form. As is indicated in Figure 4.26 below in one of the cases of 'self-rephrase' the Dutch participant asks a question about the number of courses followed by another question rephrasing what had been asked before. And in the other case the question is repeated in other words about the level of the courses.

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:07.2]	
P [v]	AAmm I'm taking five courses. And I was wondering if it's like enough for I'm doing		
A [v]	Hm̃´		
	..	2 [00:15.2]	
P [v]	my third year and they're like good enough for the third year student? The courses are		
A [v]	Hm̃´		
	..	3 [00:17.9]	
P [v]	sufficient?		
A [v]	Well eee ((1.5s)) most of our Turkish students / like it depends on your		
	..	14 [01:09.7]	15 [01:14.3]
P [v]	But it's still like how do they / how can I define the level of the course well emm?		
A [v]	so. Hm̃´ Hm̃´		
	16 [01:15.2]	17 [01:17.4]	18 [01:19.7] 19 [01:21.3]
P [v]	It's how can I show to my home university it's like this level or that level?		
A [v]	((1s)) Hm̃´ Hm̃´ Hm̃´		

Figure 4.26 Dutch participant's 'self-rephrase' of questions

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the Dutch participant in his talk with his instructor are given in Table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16 CS used by the Dutch participant with his instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	6
	2	Pause	1
	3	Content self-repair	1
	4	Other-repetition	1
	5	Self-rephrase	2
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	15

Like the US participant, the whole discourse is monolingually in English. That is, the preferred language choice strategy is ELF.

4.5.1.2.5. Dutch Participant: Turkish Friend

The last of the communication acts is with participants' Turkish friends. In this part they needed to go to their friends and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. In line with the topics assigned, the Dutch participant and his Turkish friend started with the course they were both attending, the instructor, course requirements, quality of the course, class atmosphere, and finally the participant's Turkish friend asked about the participant's Turkish classmates and its comparison with the participant's friends in his home country, hence all topics covered.

The Dutch participant's addressee was a Turkish native speaker with English as his second language. English was the only language used throughout the conversation and since fluent English is used by both parties not much of CS can be observed. So as a hearer 'back-channeling' and as a speaker a 'pause', a 'form self-repair' and a 'use of all-purpose word' (Figure 4.27) were the CS used.

	3 [00:05.34 [00:06.1]	5 [00:08.0]	6 [00:09.5*7 [00:10.0]
P [v]	one hour.	You read stuff for today or?	Sooo.
P [nv]			<i>laughing</i>
A [v]	Yeah.	Eemm I didn't read.	I I don't like
A [nv]	<i>laughing</i>		<i>laughing</i>

Figure 4.27 'Use of all-purpose word' by Dutch participant with his Turkish friend

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the Dutch participant in his talk with his Turkish friend are given in Table 4.17 below.

Table 4.17 CS used by the Dutch participant with his Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Use of all-purpose word	1
	2	Pause	1
	3	Form self-repair	1
Hearer-based	7	Back-channeling	5

Like the all the other communicative acts, in this communication act the only language used was English; that is ELF is the mode of communication.

4.5.1.2.6. Dutch Participant: Conclusion

All in all the Dutch participant was able to finish all the five communication act problems successfully and provide answers for all the questions for each constellation. Table 4.18 below summarizes all the CS used by the Dutch participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

Table 4.18 Summary of all CS used by the Dutch participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	2	12	3	6	-	23
	2	Form self-repair	4	1	1	-	1	7
	3	Other-repetition	2	1	3	1	-	7
	4	Content self-repair	1	1	-	1	-	3
	5	Self-rephrase	1	-	-	2	-	3
	6	Pause	-	-	-	1	1	2
	7	Circumlocution	1	1	-	-	-	2
	8	Asking for confirmation	1	1	-	-	-	2
	9	Response: rephrase	1	1	-	-	-	2
	10	Uninverted question	2	-	-	-	-	2
	11	Asking for clarification: meaning	2	-	-	-	-	2
	12	Other-repetition: question	1	-	-	-	-	1
	13	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	1	-	-	-	-	1
	14	Use of or-choice questions	-	1	-	-	-	1
	15	Use of all-purpose word	-	-	-	-	1	1
Hearer-based	16	Back-channeling	11	1	18	15	5	50

As is clear from the table above post office and pharmacy were the constellations that required the most number of CS. The reason was because the addressees the participant had faced in these places. The addressees in these two places had a very low-level command of English which was almost the sole code for communication and the US participant had to well use this chance to convey the message, hence resorting to different CS. These two constellations each had two addressees which might be another reason for the addressee's being low-level and needing another partner to accept the responsibility of carrying on the communication. The other three had a normal range of CS which might occur in any even L1 discourse as well.

According to the table above 'ummings and errings' are the most frequent strategy used by the participant, the most frequent of which is in the pharmacy. This strategy is used in all but one constellation. In the ICO office the participant was more of a hearer since he was asking questions that needed extensive answers from the ICO office clerk. So the ICO office has no 'ummings and errings' but has the most number of back-channeling used by the Dutch participant.

As an active hearer, the Dutch participant has played his role well by providing enough of back-channeling signals in all the five constellations to help his addressees carry on the discourse more confident of his/her interlocutor's understanding.

There is no variety for the language choice strategy opted by the Dutch participant. In all the five constellations English is the only language used both by the Dutch participant and his addressees. His addressees had different levels of proficiency in English, though. So it can be concluded that ELF was the sole mode of communication for the Dutch participant.

4.5.1.3. Indo-European Language Background: Polish

The third participant from the Indo-European language group is from Poland. This participant also has a multilingual background with five languages in her linguistic repertoire. Table 4.19 below provides information about her language background and her self-evaluation of the languages she knows. According to her language background questionnaire, the first L2 she has learnt was English from

kindergarten then from school, TV, internet, language courses and with contact with the speakers of the language. Russian, German and Italian are the languages that follow English in order of age of learning and from school, in contact with speakers of the language, and language courses respectively. Like the Dutch participant, her parents also are trilingual both having commands of Polish, German and Russian.

Although there are five languages in the participant's repertoire, only two languages has been ticked as having any use in the participant's life: Polish and English. English is the language used with friends, teachers, internet and in contact with official institutions in Turkey.

Table 4.19 Polish participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	Polish	Excellent
L2	English	Very Good
L2	German	Poor
L2	Italian	Poor
L2	Russian	Poor

The Polish participant had a prior visit to Turkey as a tourist a year before and had a three-week stay in Turkey. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.20 below.

Table 4.20 Information about the oral data for the Polish participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	03:52	01:38	08:00	07:42	02:59
Interval	55 days	62 days	55 days	55 days	65 days

Below are the data analyzed for the US participant in five constellations.

4.5.1.3.1. Polish Participant: Post office

The participants' mission at the post office was to ask about how their parents can send the the money, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. The Polish participant was successful in this mission by providing responses for all these questions and reporting to the researcher. Also, there was one more question asked by the participant that was not planned. The Polish participant asked whether she can get the money in her dormitory! Although all money and currency transactions are done in the banks or similar institutions, the Polish participant's question about whether she can get her money at the dormitory was surprising.

Like the Dutch participant, when the Polish participant attends the post office a female clerk helps her with the issue. This clerk was a native speaker of Turkish with her English at an understandable level although not fluent.

The flow of communication is quite smooth with frequent cases of 'ummings and errings', four cases of 'form self-repair', a case of 'asking for confirmation' and several cases of 'back-channeling' as a hearer. The characteristic feature of this Polish participant is her overuse of 'ummings and errings'. So not only in this post office constellation but also in the other four ones use of this strategy is more frequent than all the other participants. The participant in her stimulated recall provided explanations for this. She stated that "I am a person who is generally shy in some situations, that's my nature and I do it sometimes in Poland, too."

A summary of all the CS used by the Polish participant in the post office with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.21 below.

Table 4.21 CS used by the Polish participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umning and erring	17
	2	Form self-repair	4
	3	Asking for confirmation	1
Hearer-based	4	Back-channeling	17

As for language choice strategy, interestingly the conversation is initiated by the Polish participant with a ‘merhaba’ (hello) with the clerk giving the same response. (see Figure 4.28) About starting her talk with a Turkish hello in her stimulated recall she stated that “I said ‘merhaba’ because I didn't really know what to say more in Turkish. The aim was to be friendly to local people. It sometimes makes them smile when I say first 'merbaha' at the beginning of my talk with them.”

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:01.4]	2 [00:02.3]	3 [00:05.84 [00:06.4*]
P [v]	Ee merhaba.		Eee ee I'm from Poland.	Eeee my parents ee want t /
P [v]	Hello			
A [v]		Merhaba.		Evet. Yes.
A [v]		Hello.		

Figure 4.28 Polish participant saying hello in Turkish

Another point in this discourse about the Polish participant’s knowledge of Turkish was revealed when the clerk was looking for the English equivalent of the Turkish number ‘on beş’ (fifteen). As is clear from Figure 4.29, as the Polish participant hears the word in Turkish provides the English equivalent both as an indication of understanding and as an assistance for her addressee. This means that the Polish participant has formed a receptive knowledge of Turkish at least for the Turkish numbers.

P [v]		Fifteen.
A [v]	((1.5s)) twenty five ay twenty yok. Ee on beş ne idi ya? ((1.5s)) Şimdi şöyle.	
A [v]	ee ((1.5S)) twenty five oh not twenty. Ee what was fifteen? ((1.5s)) Now, it is this way.	

Figure 4.29 An instance of Polish participant's receptive understanding of Turkish

In general it can be concluded that Turkish greeting, receptive understanding of Turkish and ELF were the language choice strategies observed for the Polish participant in the post office.

4.5.1.3.2. Polish Participant: Pharmacy

The communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. The Polish participant could successfully explain the situation and get answers for the questions and report it to the researcher in the post interview.

Her addressee in the post office, like the Dutch participant, is a female pharmacist who is a native speaker of Turkish with an intermediate command of English as her only foreign language. The conversation starts with a short greeting, the Polish participant's explaining the issue and asking for a recommendation for her health problem. As is indicated in Figure 4.30, she uses the word 'recommend' which overlaps with the pharmacist saying 'suggest' and finally the Polish participant's 'response: confirmation' which is a nonverbal one.

	3 [00:07.2]	4 [00:12.3]	5 [00:14.3]
P [v]	headache ee. Which kind of medicine ee could you eee recommend? Hm̃´		
A [v]	Hm̃´	suggest. Hm̃´ OK.	

Figure 4.30 Polish participant's 'response: confirmation'

.. 13 [01:02.0]			
P [v]	headache? After this time?		
A [v]	Hà` Yes. Eee when ee if still ee your / you have aaa headache after one.		
.. 14 [01:13.1] 15 [01:19.6] 16 [01:20.5] 17 [01:22.0]			
P [v]	Hm̃`	Alright.	Emm
P [nv]		<i>smiling</i>	
A [v]	One week? One week. Eee I suggest ee you can go to a doctor.		Yani.
A [nv]	<i>smiling</i>		
A [v]	I mean it.		

Figure 4.30 Polish participant's 'response: confirmation'

The same type of nonverbal 'response: confirmation' is repeated once more later on in the discourse (see Figure 4.31) when the pharmacist repeats the Polish participant's question in a statement about what to do if he did not feel well after a week which is followed by the participant's 'response: confirmation' and then the pharmacist's suggestion for the participant to see a doctor then.

Except for 'ummings and errings', and 'back-channelings' one more strategy that was used by the Polish participant in the pharmacy was 'self-rephrasing' of questions about intervals of taking the medicine and about what to do if not feeling well after a week. In both of these cases the participant takes a proactive measure of bringing more explanation to the issue in hand before getting into an understanding problem in the flow of communication. That is, based on her evaluation of her addressee's proficiency level in English, she predicts a probable blockage in the flow of communication and takes some measures beforehand to prevent the understanding problem occur by rephrasing the meaning she wants to convey. (see Figure 4.31 for the cases of the strategy)

P [v]	In which intervals should I take this? Eee You know which periods of time during the
A [v]	Hă`
	11 [00:45.5] 12 [00:49.1]
P [v]	day should I take it? Alright. Amm
A [v]	Ee during the day ee two or e three times enough. Hă`
P [v]	aa what if will not ee help. What should I do? Eee after one week if I will have still
A [v]	
	13 [01:02.0]
P [v]	headache? After this time?
A [v]	Hà` Yes. Eee when ee if still ee your / you have aaa headache after one.

Figure 4.31 Polish participant's 'self-rephrase' of questions in the pharmacy

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.22 below.

Table 4.22 CS used by the Polish participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	8
	2	Self-rephrase	2
	3	Response: confirmation	2
Hearer-based	4	Back-channeling	3

It is ELF that is applied in the pharmacy as a language choice strategy.

4.5.1.3.3. Polish Participant: ICO Office

The communication act problem defined for the ICO office was about the issue of residence permit and the questions to be asked were how and where to get the residence permit, what the process is, the documents needed and how long it takes to get the permit. The Polish participant was able to provide answers for all the questions and report it to the researcher after the data recording in the post interview. Also after asking the assigned questions the Polish participant carries on the communication to ask about her own bureaucratic office work she had with the ICO office.

The Polish participant had an ICO clerk as her addressee. The clerk was a native Turkish speaker with two foreign languages: English which according to her self-evaluation she was excellent in and a beginner-level-proficiency Russian. All through the discourse the only language used was English. Like the previous participants, since both parties have a high level of proficiency in English and the participant plays more of a hearer role, the conversation was flowing with very few CS. Except for several ‘ummings and errings’ which are more a characteristic feature of the Polish participant’s speech and ‘back-channelings’ which are natural for a mostly hearer-oriented role that the participant plays in the ICO office, there is one case of ‘form self-repair’ (Figure 4.32) and another case of ‘circumlocution’ (Figure 4.33) for the Polish participant in the ICO office.

..		34 [03:40.3]
P [v]	would like to ask for this paper. Should / can I get it?	
A [v]		Aa yes ee if you / have you

Figure 4.32 Polish participant’s ‘form self-repair’ in the ICO office

..		24 [02:34.7]	25 [02:36.2]
P [v]	information.	Aamm this is ee the crucial ee most important ee	
A [v]	You're welcome Anna.		

Figure 4.33 Polish participant’s ‘circumlocution’ in the ICO office

The four CS used with their functions and frequencies used by the Polish participant in the ICO office are given in Table 4.23 below.

Table 4.23 CS used by the Polish participant in the ICO office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	20
	2	Form self-repair	1
	3	Circumlocution	1
Hearer-based	4	Back-channeling	17

The whole conversation is pursued totally in the monolingual English, hence ELF as the preferred language choice strategy

4.5.1.3.4. Polish Participant: Instructor

In this communication act the participants were asked to talk to their instructors to make sure whether the courses taken are sufficient or not and whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. The Polish participant was successful to manage this communication act and not only gain the needed information and report in the post-interview, but also get good advice from her instructor about her future education and career.

The Polish participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with five other languages in her linguistic repertoire: English, Finnish, French, German, and Italian with English at the top of her self-evaluation of proficiency level of the second languages.

The dialogue between the Polish participant and her instructor starts with the participant taking the floor by explaining why she has referred to her and finishes

with the instructor's mentioning the advantages of visiting Turkey as a foreign country and taking courses in METU and how this will benefit experientially in the future. Through the conversation frequent 'ummings and errings' and 'back-channelings' with some 'self-repairs' both for the form and content and a case of 'pause', and another case of 'circumlocution' were evident. However, what were eye-catching were a case of 'lengthened sound' and two cases of 'back-channeling: confirmation.' While the first strategy was used to gain time, although very little, to plan the rest of her utterance, the latter is used in both cases for signaling that the participant as a hearer agrees with what is said by the speaker and confirms the speaker. These cases are shown in the Figures 4.34 and 4.35 below.

..

P [v]	differentiation ee in topics. It's much different from theee Western and North parts of
-------	--

Figure 4.34 Polish participant's using 'lengthened sound' with her instructor

	7 [01:41.3]	8 [01:44.8]	9 [01:48.2]
P [v]	Eee probably only for one semester.		Yes. right.
A [v]		Oh you might leave in February or ee January	

..

	10 [03:05.5]
P [v]	Yeah.
A [v]	amount of ancient landscapes. The relationships of ancient landscapes with ee

Figure 4.35 Instances of Polish participant's 'back-channeling: confirmation'

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.24 below.

Table 4.24 CS used by the Polish participant with her instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	32
	2	Pause	1
	3	Lengthened sound	1
	4	Form self-repair	4
	5	Content self-repair	1
	6	Circumlocution	1
Hearer-based	7	Back-channeling	12
	8	Back-channeling: confirmation	2

The only language used in the current discourse was English so the preferred strategy of language choice is ELF.

4.5.1.3.5. Polish Participant: Turkish Friend

The last of the communication acts is with a Turkish friend of the participants. They needed to go to a Turkish friend of theirs and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. The Polish participant completed this communication act by getting into a dialog with a Turkish friend of hers and talk about the courses in general their instructors and the common course they had taken, the instructor of the course, the classmates, and specifically the course requirements that were in the form of projects and presentations. The Polish participant was able to cover all the topics assigned and successfully to manage this communication act.

The participant's Turkish friend was a Turkish-English bilingual with Turkish as his native language and English as a second language. The whole dialog was in English. Since the interaction was a friendly talk, the topic was familiar, and both parties were fluent in English, as few as four CS were applied by the including 'ummings and errings', 'pauses', 'back-channelings', and a case of 'content self-repair.' A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.25 below.

Table 4.25 CS used by the Polish participant with her Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	16
	2	Pause	3
	3	Content self-repair	1
Hearer-based	4	Back-channeling	4

The only language used in the current discourse was English so the preferred strategy of language choice is ELF.

4.5.1.3.6. Polish Participant: Conclusion

There are five communication acts for each participant and the Polish participant was able to finish all the five by attaining answers for the determined questions for each constellation. Table 4.26 below summarizes all the CS used by the Polish participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

According to the table, all in all, the number and variety of the CS used by the Polish participant is not extensive. However, as is clear from the above table and

mentioned before the Polish participant has a widespread use of ‘umming and errings’ which beside the requirements of the discourses seems to be an idiolectal issue. Also as a hearer, the Polish participant has done enough of ‘back-channeling’ to assure her addressees of understanding to have been taking place and thus carry on the discourse. Use of this strategy is more prevalent in the post office and the ICO office as the participants in these two constellations ask for the procedure of sending and receiving money and getting a residence permit respectively and play the role of a hearer more.

Table 4.26 summary of all CS used by the Polish participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umning and erring	17	8	20	32	16	93
	2	Form self-repair	4	-	1	4	-	9
	4	Pause	-	-	-	1	3	4
	6	Circumlocution	-	-	1	1	-	2
	7	Content self-repair	-	-	-	1	1	2
	8	Response: confirmation	-	2	-	-	-	2
	9	Self-rephrase	-	2	-	-	-	2
	10	Asking for confirmation	1	-	-	-	-	1
	11	Lengthened sound	-	-	-	1	-	1
Hearer-based	12	Back-channeling	17	3	17	12	4	67
	13	Back-channeling: confirmation	-	-	-	2	-	2

As a newcomer to Turkey with no linguistically genetical proximate background to Turkish, the Polish participant had only English as the vehicle to fulfill her

communicative needs. As a result, in all the five constellations the dominant mode of multilingual communication was ELF. However, a stay of approximately two months in Turkey and being exposed to the dominant language of Turkish, gave the blooms of saying hello in Turkish: ‘merhaba’ and receptive understanding of Turkish for numbers: ‘on beş’ (fifteen) in the post office.

4.5.1.4. Indo-European Language Background: German

The German participant is another participant from the Indo-European group. She is a native speaker of German with English and French learnt at the ages of 11 and 14, respectively. English was learnt at school, through TV, in contact with the speakers of the language and, according to her language background questionnaire, while she was an exchange student. French was learnt only at school. The languages and the participant’s self-evaluation of the languages are indicated in Table 4.27 below. Between the two languages, as can be predicted from the participant’s self-evaluation, English is the language that is used. It is used with friends, teachers, and internet and in contact with official institutions in Turkey. Her parents both are native speakers of German with her father having command of French as an L2.

Table 4.27 German participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	German	Excellent
L2	English	Very Good
L2	French	Poor

The German had no prior visit to Turkey. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.28 below.

Table 4.28 Information about the oral data for the German participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	02:15	03:56	02:55	05:25	03:06
Interval	49 days	49 days	49 days	50 days	49 days

Below are the data analyzed for the US participant in five constellations.

4.5.1.4.1. German Participant: Post Office

Like all the other participants, the mission for the German participant at the post office was to ask questions about how their parents can send the money, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. The participant was strict in gaining answers for all the questions and to finish her mission at the post office successfully.

When attending the post office a clerk who was a native speaker of Turkish and had an intermediate level of English as her second language helped the participant. The conversation followed its usual line of development with ‘ummings and errings’, ‘back-channelings’, plus two cases of ‘back-channeling: confirmation’, a case of ‘other-repetition’ and another case of ‘circumlocution.’ What was observed for the first as a communication strategy from the German participant was ‘guessing.’ As is clear from Figure 4.36, in her effort to help her addressee complete her utterance, the German participant tries to guess the meaning of the word her addressee states in Turkish and get the information about how long it takes to get the money from the post office after it is transferred from the home country. The German participant’s guesses do not come true, though and the clerk receives help from a third person and completes her transaction that way.

	42 [01:44.2]	43 [01:45.1]	44 [01:45.8]		
P [v]	long does it take?	Germany.			
A [v]	Which country?	Germany? •• Eee ••• one or two ee saat			
A [v]		What is hour?			
	45 [01:55.1]	46 [01:55.9]	47 [01:56.7]	48 [01:57.9]	49 [01:58.9]
P [v]	Weeks?	No. Month.	Oh`	Hours.	
P [nv]				<i>laughing</i>	
A [v]	neidi? Eeee	No no no no. Time time.		Hour hour.	
A [nv]			<i>Someone telling the word</i>	<i>laughing</i>	
A [v]					

Figure 4.36 German participant ‘guessing’ in the post office

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.29 below.

Table 4.29 CS used by the German participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	3
	2	Other-repetition	1
	3	Circumlocution	1
	4	Guessing	2
Hearer-based	5	Back-channeling	21
	6	Back-channeling: confirmation	2

The only language used by the German participant all through the discourse was English. So the ELF was the strategy used for language choice for the post office.

4.5.1.4.2. German Participant: Pharmacy

The communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were

asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. The German participant could successfully explain the situation and get answers for the questions and report it to the researcher in the post interview.

Two people help the German participant in the pharmacy: the pharmacist and an assistant. During the conversation with the pharmacist she is called for help with another customer so one of the assistants carries on the interaction but states that with the German participant's problem the pharmacist herself can be more helpful so he leaves the floor for the pharmacist as she comes back. The female pharmacist is a native speaker of Turkish with an intermediate command of English as her only foreign language. The assistant is also a native speaker of Turkish but his command of English is at the beginner level.

					14 [01:13.9]
P [v]	and I was still sweaty. And I need / I ...				
A2 [v]	Yani bu kadar iyi değil. Anlayamıyorum				
A2 [v]	It is not this much good. I cannot understand.				
	15 [01:19.0]	16 [01:20.0]	17 [01:21.1]	18 [01:21.19]	01:22.3]
P [v]	My head hurts.		Yeah.	And I need something to make it	
A2 [v]	yani.	Ee baş ağrısı.		Ah`	
A2 [v]		Headache			
				20 [01:26.7]	
P [v]	better. Like medication.				
A2 [v]	Medicatio / eee ağrı kesici ve grip ilacı yanlış anlamadıysam				
A2 [v]	If I have not understood incorrectly she wants pain killers and flu medicine.				
				21 [01:33.5]	22 [01:35.8]
P [v]	OK. Amm ...				
A2 [v]	meğer istiyor galiba. de me?			Ah` Yani eee ona Gülseren hanım daha	
A2 [v]	Right?			For this Gülseren hanım can be more helpful.	

Figure 4.37 German participant's using 'shorter utterances' and 'response: confirmation' CS

There are two points during the course of the interaction that has made the German participant resort to CS to overcome understanding problems on the side of her addressees. First, when the assistant takes the floor, as the German participant starts explaining her problem to her, the assistant expresses non-understanding. This lead to the German participant's changing her style of speaking and use CS to compensate for her addressee's poor command of English.

As is indicated in Figure 4.37 above, after the pharmacist assistant's expressing non-understanding, the German participant repeats herself with 'shorter utterance length.' Also, as the assistant tries to check her understanding in Turkish, the German participant with 'response: confirmation' assures him of correct understanding.

The second point of using CS was when the German participant asks about what to do if she does not feel better after a while. In the first phase of applying CS, the German participant takes a proactive measure to make understanding easier for the pharmacist. She uses 'umming and erring' and a 'pause' to make the new speech plan. Then she replaces 'week' is replaced with 'tomorrow' as a 'more frequent item' that is also 'circumlocution' of her speech. Moreover, she 'uses the all-purpose word' 'something.' (see Figure 4. 38 below)

As is clear from the figure below, the second phase of applying CS is reactive since the pharmacist states that she had missed the first part of the participant's utterance so she repeats herself applying CS. She uses 'response: rephrase', to express herself in other words, with 'uninverted question', 'shorter utterance length', 'circumlocution' and 'use of more frequent items' to facilitate her addressee's understanding.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.30 below.

The only language used by the German participant through the whole communication was English. However, as was indicated in Figure 4.37 above, the participant had two cases of 'response: confirmation' through which the participant verified her addressee's understanding as true and correct. This was done by listening to the addressee's statements which were in Turkish and then confirming them. So it can be concluded there is passive receptive knowledge of Turkish gained by the

participant. Of course, ‘feigning to understand’ can also be the case whereby the participant has let it pass to prevent the communication breakdown. In her stimulated she stated that

I did not understand what she said in words, but I still knew what she meant because of her gestures. For example, when she said: "ee baş ağrısı" she was holding her head indicating that she means headache. So with the context and everything I knew what she meant, but if you just give me the plain words and I cannot see her saying it, I don't know what she said.

With the German participant's explanation it can be concluded that the only language choice strategy used was ELF for the pharmacy.

	..	38 [02:53.639 [02:54.3]	40 [02:56.3]
P [v]		OK.	OK. So amm if I don't feel better
A1 [v]	Hangi birisini istiyor? Areles.	Eeee et cetra.	
A1 [v]	one does she want?		
	..		
P [v]	after a while what should I do? Like after a week tom / aaa ((1.5s)) tomorrow or		
A [v]			
	..	41 [03:12.9]	
P [v]	something if I don't feel better what should I do?		
A1 [v]		Kendini daha da kötü hiss ederse	
A1 [v]		She said if she feels worse but I could not	
	..		
A1 [v]	??? dedi de başımı anlamadım. Orda konuşmaya girdi / ne konuda. I don't understand		
A1 [v]	understand the fist part of it. She started talking in that part / what was the subject?		
	..	42 [03:22.7]	43 [03:26.6] 44 [03:28.2] 45 [03:29.1]
P [v]	Emm eee I take it today. When I should feel better?	But mm	
A1 [v]	sorry.	Hä`	OK aldım Evet.
A1 [v]			OK got it.
	..		46 [03:35.8]
P [v]	tomorrow •• if it's not better. • What do I do then? ••• Like ...		
A1 [v]			Daha kötü oo
A1 [v]			If I feel worse / does she say

Figure 4.38 German participant overcoming her addressee's understanding problem with CS

Table 4.30 CS used by the German participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	5
	2	Pause	4
	3	Shorter utterance length	2
	4	Use of high-frequency items	2
	5	Form self-repair	1
	6	Response: rephrase	1
	7	Circumlocution	2
	8	Use of all-purpose word	2
	9	Uninverted question	1
	10	Response: confirmation	2
Hearer-based	11	Back-channeling	9

4.5.1.4.3. German Participant: ICO Office

Exchange students visit ICO office for different reasons one of which is for their resident issue. So the communication act problem defined for the ICO office was about this issue and the questions raised were how and where to get the residence permit, what the process is, the documents needed and how long it takes to get the permit. The German participant was able to provide answers for all the questions and report it to the researcher after the data recording in the post interview.

The German participant's addressee in the ICO office was a native speaker clerk English and French as her second languages. Her self-evaluation of her proficiency level for the second languages was excellent and good respectively. Except for three cases of 'umming and erring' and a case of 'pause' there is no other CS used by the German participant in the ICO office. Due to playing more of a hearer role, like the other participants in the ICO office, 'back-channeling' are frequent, though.

The three CS used with their functions and frequencies used by the German participant in the ICO office are given in Table 4.31 below.

Table 4.31 CS used by the German participant in the ICO office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	3
	2	Pause	1
Hearer-based	3	Back-channeling	23

The only language used in the current constellation by both parties was English, hence ELF as the language choice strategy preferred.

4.5.1.4.4. German Participant: Instructor

The participants in their visit with their instructors were asked to talk to their instructors to make sure whether the courses taken are sufficient or not and whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. The German participant was able to talk about the courses she had taken and also continue to talk to her instructor about how she can improve her Turkish during her stay in Turkey and METU.

The German participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with an excellent English as her second language. The general pattern of the conversation was the participant asking questions and her instructor providing explanations and giving advice. So as a hearer the participant has played an active enough role by providing 'back-channeling' signals. As a speaker 'ummings and errings', a case of 'pause', two cases of 'use of all-purpose word' and a case of 'mentioning the antecedent of proform' were all the CS used.

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the German participant in her talk with her instructor are given in Table 4.32 below.

Table 4.32 CS used by the German participant with her instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	2
	2	Pause	1
	3	Use of all-purpose word	2
	4	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	1
Hearer-based	5	Back-channeling	36

The German participant and her instructor communicated all in English. So the preferred language choice strategy would be ELF for the current constellation.

4.5.1.4.5. German Participant: Turkish Friend

The fifth communication act defined for the participants was with a Turkish friend of theirs. They needed to go to a Turkish friend and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. These topics were discussed but the German participant and her Turkish friend and ended up with the participant's complaint about one of her instructors.

The German participant's Turkish friend was a native speaker of Turkish with only English as her second language. She self-evaluated her English as good. Both parties' fluent English with a familiar topic left little space for extensive use of CS. 'Back-channelings', a case of 'back-channeling: confirmation', 'ummings and errings', a case of 'pause', another case 'use of all-purpose word', with one more case of 'content self-repair' were all the CS used. The last CS was used when the German participant was complaining about an instructor of hers. She intends to claim that the instructor had not given any lectures since the beginning of the semester but

reminds of a lecture having been given and repairs herself meanwhile. The German participant's 'content self-repair' is indicated in the figure below.

		32 [02:26.033 [02:26.5]
P [v]	rude. He didn't / he had one lecture since the semester started.	And he just
A [v]		Hà`

Figure 4.39 German participant's 'content self-repair' in her talk with her Turkish friend

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the German participant in her talk with her Turkish friend are given in Table 4.33 below.

Table 4.33 CS used by the German participant in her talk with her Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	3
	2	Pause	1
	3	Content self-repair	1
	4	Use of all-purpose word	1
Hearer-based	5	Back-channeling	11
	6	Back-channeling: confirmation	1

Like the ICO office and her instructor, in this communication act the only language used was English, so ELF as the language choice strategy was preferred.

4.5.1.4.6. German Participant: Conclusion

All in all the German participant was able to finish all the five communication act problems successfully and provide answers for all the questions for each constellation. Table 4.34 below summarizes all the CS used by the German participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

Table 4.34 Summary of all CS used by the German participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	3	5	3	2	3	16
	2	Pause	-	4	1	1	1	7
	3	Use of all-purpose word	-	2	-	2	1	5
	4	Circumlocution	1	2	-	-	-	3
	5	Guessing	1	-	-	-	-	1
	6	Shorter utterance length	-	2	-	-	-	2
	7	Use of high-frequency items	-	2	-	-	-	2
	8	Response: confirmation	-	2	-	-	-	2
	9	Response: rephrase	-	1	-	-	-	1
	10	Form self-repair	-	1	-	-	-	1
	11	Content self-repair	-	-	-	-	1	1
	12	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	-	-	-	1	-	1
	13	Uninverted question	-	1	-	-	-	1
	14	Other-repetition	1	-	-	-	-	1
Hearer-based	15	Back-channeling	21	9	23	36	11	100
	16	Back-channeling: confirmation	2	-	-	-	1	3

Like the participants, ‘umming and erring’ is the most frequent communication strategy for the German participant. As a hearer, her active role is also prevalent from the ‘back-channeling’ signals she has applied in all the five communication acts. Like the other participants, use of these signals is more numerous in the post office, the ICO office and specifically with her instructor. This is because of the nature of these constellations as they are more of a hearer listening to the procedures and advice. One specific strategy used by the German participant was ‘guessing.’ She used it to help her addressee in the post office who had forgotten the meaning of a word in English. For the German participant, English played the major key role for communication in all five constellations.

4.5.1.5. Indo-European Language Background: French

The fifth and last of the Indo-European participants is French. She comes from a monolingual family with both her parents having only French as the only language in their linguistic repertoire. However, she has four languages in the repertoire. As is indicated in Table 4.35 below, other than her native language, she has command of three other languages. According to her language background questionnaire, English and Spanish are the languages learnt at school while Nepali is the language she had learnt in contact with the speakers of the language her three-month stay in Nepal before coming to Turkey, hence not proficient in it and no use for it. Between English and Spanish, it is English that is used with friends, teachers, for internet and in contact with official institutions in Turkey.

Table 4.35 French participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	French	Excellent
L2	English	Good
L2	Spanish	Average
L2	Nepali	Very Poor

The French participant had no visit to Turkey before and it was her first visit. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.36 below.

Table 4.36 Information about the oral data for the French participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	01:52	02:10	01:19	07:13	03:54
Interval	65 days	65 days	65 days	65 days	65 days

Below are the data analyzed for the French participant in five constellations.

4.5.1.5.1. French Participant: Post Office

Like all other participants the French participant had been asked to attend the post office and ask questions about how their parents can send the money, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. She was able to finish her job successfully by providing responses for all the questions and report it to the researcher.

When attending the post office a clerk who was a native speaker of Turkish and had an intermediate level of English as her second language helped the participant. There are two points in the discourse where the French participant resorts to CS to manage the communication. First, after getting the instruction on how her parents can send money from her home country, to sum up the process and to check her understanding of the process she uses 'interpretive summary'. This is followed by the post office clerk's 'yes', confirming her understanding. Figure 4.40 indicates this process.

	12 [00:53.6]	13 [00:57.014 [00:57.415 [00:58.0]
P [v]	OK.	OK. So the / they put the money
A [v]	You write. And you give me your passport.	OK?
		16 [01:05.6]
P [v]	in France in Western Union and I fill up the paper and I can receive the money.	
A [v]		Yes.

Figure 4.40 French participant's 'interpretive summary' in the post office

The second point is when the French participant asks about how fast she can receive the money after being transferred. Her questions being not well understood by her addressee leads her to 'response: self-repetition' and 'response: rephrase.' The first strategy is used as a reaction to her addressee's probable not hearing the trigger and the second strategy is applied as a reaction to the second probability of her addressee's not understanding her question. The two strategies are highlighted in the figure below.

	17 [01:06.0*]	18 [01:07.3]	19 [01:10.20 [01:11.4]
P [v]	OK.	And how fast is money e transferred?	How fast? When could I
A [v]	Hă' Hă' OK.		Half?
		21 [01:14.7]	
P [v]	receive it as soon as possible?		
A [v]	Eee ee • • two ee two times later. Eee yarı har (hour) har. Onu mu		

Figure 4.41 French participant's 'repetition' and 'rephrase' as a response

A summary of all the CS used, including the ones explained above, with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.37 below.

Table 4.37 CS used by the French participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Form self-repair	2
	2	Response: self-repetition	1
	3	Response: rephrase	1
	4	Use of all-purpose word	1
	5	Other-repetition	1
	6	Interpretive summary	1
Hearer-based	7	Back-channeling	6

The French participant had only one linguistic preference in the post office and that was using English, hence ELF as the language choice strategy.

4.5.1.5.2. French Participant: Pharmacy

The communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. With these questions in mind, the French participant attended the pharmacy asked the questions all and provided the needed responses. Her addressee in the pharmacy was a pharmacist assistant who was a native speaker of Turkish with an intermediate level of English as her only second language. The discourse was smooth as both parties had enough of proficiency to manage an unproblematic communication. ‘Asking for clarification’ is the only communication strategy that can be highlighted here among others. It was used when the pharmacist assistant suggested the French participant wash her mouth and throat with salty water to prevent infection. This suggestion made the French participant to ask for clarification by asking ‘with what?’ as is indicated in Figure 4.42 below.

	16 [01:17.317 [01:18.0]	18 [01:19.9]	19 [01:20.8]	20 [01:22.121 [01:22.9]	22 [01:24.0]
P [v]	Hm̃	With what?	OK.	Ah̃	
A [v]	mouth	with salt water.	Salt water.	Tuzlu su. Salt water.	And

Figure 4.42 French participant's 'asking for clarification'

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies used by the French participant in the pharmacy are given in the table 4.38 below.

Table 4.38 CS used by the French participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	3
	2	Other-repetition	1
	3	Asking for clarification: meaning	1
Hearer-based	4	Back-channeling	9

Whole through the discourse there is one language, i.e. English, spoken except for the French participant's saying hello in Turkish. (see Figure 4.43 below)

	0 [00:00.0]
P [v]	Merhaba. Ee I come because I have a sore throat so I do not know what can I try. I
P [v]	Hello.

Figure 4.43 French participant saying hello in Turkish

4.5.1.5.3. French Participant: ICO Office

The communication act problem defined for the ICO office was about this issue and the questions raised were how and where to get the residence permit, what the process is, the documents needed and how long it takes to get the permit. The French participant was able to provide answers for all the questions and report it to the researcher after the data recording in the post interview.

The clerk at the ICO office who dealt with the French participant's residence issue was a native speaker of Turkish with two other languages in her linguistic repertoire: English and Italian. She self-evaluated these languages being very good and very poor respectively. Like the other participants, in this constellation the participant was more of a hearer. Due to this reason and also because of both interlocutors' almost fluent English the number of CS applied by the French participant does not exceed four. The four CS with their functions and frequencies used by the French participant in the ICO office are given in Table 4.39 below.

Table 4.39 CS used by the French participant in the ICO office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	2
	2	Asking for confirmation	1
	3	Lengthened sound	1
Hearer-based	4	Back-channeling	5

The conversation between the French participant and the ICO office clerk was totally in English so the preferred language choice strategy was ELF.

4.5.1.5.4. French Participant: Instructor

Participants were asked to talk to their instructors to make sure whether the courses taken are sufficient or not and whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. The conversation of the French participant with her instructor started with the instructor's warm up about life on the campus and in Ankara. Then they moved on to the main topic of the courses taken and the plans for other courses to be taken in the following semester. The French participant could have a successful management of the communication and fulfill what she was asked for.

The French participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with a very good command of English. There was no difficulty in the flow of communication. The only outstanding point, from the viewpoint of using CS, was when the French participant was describing METU in the warm up phase of the conversation. At that time she started a message but left it unfinished and implemented an alternative speech plan, that is 'content restructuring.' This use of this unique strategy by the French participant is shown in Figure 4.44 below.

		4 [00:47.8]			
P [v]	the campus and here. It's really / my first impression was it was very Americanized				
A [v]	Yeah.				
		5 [00:56.2]	6 [00:57.2]	7 [00:57.7]	8 [00:59.4]
P [v]	style of life where the ...		Yeah here's campus here.		
P [nv]			<i>laughing</i>	<i>continue laughung</i>	
A [v]	Here in campus?		Hm`	How about	
A [nv]			<i>laughing</i>	<i>continue laughing</i>	

Figure 4.44 French participant's 'content restructuring'

It is worth mentioning that this strategy is called 'content restructuring' since in the literature of CS 'restructuring' is applied by the language user because of

language difficulties, i.e. linguistic proficiency insufficiencies to form an understandable message. However, here this is not the case; the French participant rearrange message because she changes the content of the message.

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the French participant in her talk with her instructor are given in Table 4.40 below.

Table 4.40 CS used by the French participant with her instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	6
	2	Pause	2
	3	Form self-repair	3
	4	Content restructuring	1
Hearer-based	5	Back-channeling	6
	6	Back-channeling: confirmation	4

It was only English that was used whole through the conversation. So it is ELF as the language choice strategy applied.

4.5.1.5.5. French Participant: Turkish Friend

The last of communication act problems is defined for participant's Turkish friends. They needed to go to their friends and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. The French participant was able to finish this communication act successfully as well.

Turkish friend of the French participant was a native speaker of Turkish with a very good command of English as her only second language. The conversation

between the two parties had no difficult points so the flow of the communication did not lead to any CS other than ‘umblings and errings’, ‘back-channelings’, ‘form self-repairs’, a case of ‘other-repetition’, a case of ‘response: self-repetition’ and a case of ‘pause.’

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the French participant in her talk with her Turkish friend are given in Table 4.41 below.

Table 4.41 CS used by the French participant with her Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umbling and erring	10
	2	Pause	1
	3	Form self-repair	2
	4	Other-repetition	1
	5	Response: self-repetition	1
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	6

Like the ICO office and her instructor, in this communication act the only language used was English. So ELF was the applied mode of multilingual communication.

4.5.1.5.6. French Participant: Conclusion

All in all the French participant was able to finish all the five communication act problems successfully and provide answers for all the questions for each constellation. Table 4.42 below summarizes all the CS used by the French participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

Table 4.42 Summary of all CS used by the French participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	-	3	2	6	10	21
	2	Form self-repair	2	-	-	3	2	7
	3	Other-repetition	1	1	-	-	1	3
	4	Pause	-	-	-	2	1	3
	5	Response: self-repetition	1	-	-	-	1	2
	6	Response: rephrase	1	-	-	-	-	1
	7	Asking for confirmation	-	-	1	-	-	1
	8	Interpretive summary	1	-	-	-	-	1
	9	Asking for clarification: meaning	-	1	-	-	-	1
	10	Use of all-purpose word	1	-	-	-	-	1
	11	Content restructuring	-	-	-	1	-	1
	12	Lengthened sound	-	-	1	-	-	1
Hearer-based	13	Back-channeling	6	9	5	4	6	30

As the table above indicates, the French participant after the typical ‘ummings and errings’ had ‘form self-repair’ as the most frequently used CS with only three cases of ‘pause’ which was more frequent for the participants in this group. Her ‘interpretive summary’ and ‘content restructuring’ were the strategies used for the first time among the Indo-European participants. As a hearer, like the other participants, she has played a well active role by signaling understanding through ‘back-channeling.’

The language choice strategy used by for all the communication acts was English. There was only one case of using hello in Turkish that was in the post

office. In her stimulated recall she explained this issue by stating that “if I used Merhaba at first, I used it each time I met a Turkish person, it was a way to say, I honor your country, I honor you. If I had been able to, I would have pursued in Turkish the interview.”

4.5.2. Turkic Language Background

After the analysis of the data from the Indo-European language background, this section deals with the data analysis of the four participants who were coming from the Turkic language background. These four participants come from different Turkic language backgrounds. Two come from Kazakh and Kyrgyz language backgrounds and the other two from Azeri language background. The difference between the two Azeri participants is their degree exposition to Azeri in their places of living. That is Azeri 1 participant has grown up in a Azeri-speaking city while Azeri 2 participant has grown up in a Farsi-speaking city. Moreover, linguistic repertoire of each and every individual participant differs variously.

In the following, first their individual language background will be explored and then the linguistic performance of every participant in the five constellations of the post office, the pharmacy, in the ICO office, with her/his instructor and his/her Turkish friend will be probed respectively. Finally a concluding part will sum up the multilingual behavior of the participant as a whole both from CS use and language choice strategy.

4.5.2.1. Turkic Language Background: Kazakh

The first of the Turkic participants is a Kazakh. She comes from a bilingual society where both Kazakh and Russian are spoken as native languages, she and her parents being no exception. She has started English as an L2 from the age of 5 and it was learnt at school, through internet and TV, according to her language background questionnaire. Her parents each have a different L2: her mother having command in French and her father in German. Although this participant has three languages in her repertoire it is Kazakh that has the most use in everyday use. Russian is used with her

siblings and for the internet. Like the other non-English-L1 Indo-European participants English is used with friends, teachers, internet and in contact with official institutions in Turkey. Table 4.43 below indicates the language repertoire of the Kazakh participant with her self-evaluation of the languages.

Table 4.43 Kazakh participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	Kazakh	Excellent
L1	Russian	Excellent
L2	English	Excellent

The Kazakh participant had a 3-, 4-day visit to Turkey in 2008. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.44 below.

Table 4.44 Information about the oral data for the Kazakh participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	06:20	03:04	04:42	06:11	06:18
Interval	50 days	65 days	50 days	50 days	54 days

Below are the data analyzed for the Kazakh participant in five constellations.

4.5.2.1.1. Kazakh Participant: Post Office

Like all other participants, the Kazakh participant was asked to attend the post office and ask questions about how their parents can send money to her, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. The Kazakh participant was able to ask all these questions and provide answers for all of them. One interesting question that the Kazakh participant added to the assigned questions was whether her parents could send money from ‘Kazpochta’, the national postal service of Kazakhstan.

In her attending the post office, the Kazakh participant, like other participants, got into communication with both of the clerks working in the only post office of the campus. Both were native speakers of Turkish with the male clerk being in the beginner level of English. The other female clerk could use her English at an understandable level both receptively and productively although being not very fluent in speaking.

The Kazakh participant first started her interaction with the male clerk. The first instances of using CS were when the male clerk had difficulty understanding the country was going to come from. After the Kazakh participant’s ‘response: self-repetition’ was not effective, she resorted to ‘more careful pronunciation’ and ‘separate syllable articulation’ to help her addressee with the country’s name. And finally with a ‘response: confirmation’ assured the male post office clerk of his correct hearing and understanding the name of the country. Figure 4.45 below indicates the incident.

	0 [00:00.0]				1 [00:07.52 [00:08.5]
P [v]	I wanted toooo aa / my parents send me money from Kazakhstan here. So ...				
A1 [v]					Evet. Which
	..	3 [00:09.2]	4 [00:11.4]	5 [00:12.5]	6 [00:13.6]
P [v]	Kazakhstan. ((1.5s)) Ka za khistan.			Yeah. So I	
A1 [v]	country?	Hà' Kazakistan. Kazak istan OK.			

Figure 4.45 Kazakh participant’s using CS to make the country understood to the male clerk

Later on when the participant was asking about how long it takes to receive the money, the male clerk replied with ‘aninda hemen’ but the Kazakh participant had to ‘ask for clarification’ and then ‘other repetition’ to make sure. (Figure 4.46)

	14 [00:55.515 [00:56.1]	16 [01:00.6]	17 [01:02.5]	
P [v]	Hm̃	And how long does it take?		
A1 [v]			How long? Aninda hemen.	
A1 [nv]	<i>Talking to another person</i>			
A1 [v]			How long? Instantly, right away	
	18 [01:04.6]	19 [01:07.0]	20 [01:11.2]	21 [01:20.1]
P [v]	OK.	In two days? • Or at the same day?	Fast.	
A1 [v]	Anın / aninda gelir.		Eee ((2s)) ee fast. Fast	
A1 [v]	It comes instantly.			

Figure 4.46 Kazakh participant’s ‘asking for clarification’ and ‘other repetition’

The female clerk took the place of the male clerk when the Kazakh participant asked about ‘Kazpochta’. The same strategies of ‘more careful pronunciation’ and ‘separate syllable articulation’ was repeated once more with this addressee when the topic was about the documents needed to get the money. Also an ‘interpretive summary’ was used by the participant to sum up the fee for transferring money. The participant summed up the topic in a sentence to make sure about the fees. This strategy is indicated in Figure 4.47 below.

	..	50 [03:07.51 [03:08.3]	
P [v]	pay.	Aha	So for sending five hundred they have to pay also two
A2 [v]	hundred fee this is. OK?		
	..	52 [03:12.5]	53 [03:14.4]
P [v]	hundred additional. OK. OK. ((6s)) What else I have to ask? Oh yeah. What		
A2 [v]	Yes.		

Figure 4.47 Kazakh participant’s ‘interpretive summary’

From a multilingual point of view probably the most outstanding incident in the current discourse was when the Kazakh participant asked about the days and time the post office is open. This is indicated in the figure below.

	.100 [05:55.5*]	101 [05:57.8]	102 [05:59.2]103 [05:59.8]
P [v]		Aha`	OK. From which time?
A2 [v]	Cumastrsi Pazar not working.	Other days we work.	OK.
A2 [v]	Saturday and Sunday not working		
	105 [06:02.1]106 [06:03.2]	107 [06:13.0]	108 [06:15.0]
P [v]	Saat.		On on yedi?
P [v]	Time.		seventeen?
A2 [v]	Which time?	Saat ee eight ((4s)) on yedi. OK?	Begin finish. On yedi.
A2 [nv]			<i>Writing the number</i>
A2 [v]		Time ee eight ((4s)) seventeen. OK?	seventeen

Figure 4.48 Kazakh participant's 'Response: rephrase in interlocutor's L1'

As is clear from the highlighted parts of the figure above, when the female clerk repeats the participant's utterance as a sign of non-understanding, the Kazakh participant rephrases her utterance in her addressee's L1, i.e. Turkish, to provide the most facilitated clue for her understanding. This is both a communication and a language choice strategy. A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.45 below.

From the language choice point of view, the Kazakh participant has tried to manage the discourse in English since, according to the stimulated recall, although she felt the similarity between the languages, she did not feel ready to start producing in Turkish. However, her receptive and productive use of Turkish, because of her language background, was evident. Three instances of Turkish can be identified from the oral data. First, when the male clerk asked whether the participant is going to send or receive money in Turkish, there was a one-word Turkish reply from the Kazakh participant as well, that is active use of Turkish as CSW. (Figure 4.49)

Table 4.45 CS used by the Kazakh participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umning and erring	7
	2	Circumlocution	1
	3	Interpretive summary	1
	4	More careful pronunciation	2
	5	Separate syllable articulation	2
	6	Asking for confirmation	1
	7	Asking for clarification: meaning	2
	8	Other-repetition	2
	9	Lengthened sound	2
	10	Form self-repair	2
	11	Content self-repair	2
	12	Response: self-repetition	2
	13	Response: rephrase in interlocutor's L1	1
	14	Response: confirmation	1
Hearer-based	15	Back-channeling	16

.. 8 [00:22.4*]	
A1 [v]	((4s)) Ya ŧimdi bunu ŧeye Őzge ablana yaptırŧak ya. Para gŧnderecekmisin gelecek
A1 [v]	Now can we ask Ozge the big sister to do this. Are you going to send money or receive it?
.. 9 [00:32.0] 10 [00:32.6]	
P [v]	Gelecek.
P [v]	Receiving.
A1 [v]	mi para? Hå` Gelecek. Eee Kazakistan'dan ee Western Union. Biliyormusun
A1 [v]	OK receiving. From Kazakhstan. Do you know Wester Union?

Figure 4.49 Kazakh participant CSW to Turkish

Second, when the female clerk and the Kazakh participant discuss about the money transfer fee, and the clerk tells the fee in Turkish, the participant could understand it. The participant's correct understanding can be recognized not only from her verbal back-channeling but also from her following calculation. (see Figure 4.50)

	84 [05:16.8]	85 [05:19.3]	86 [05:20.1]	87 [05:25.7*]	88 [05:30.1]
P [v]		One hundred.			Hà' OK. I
A2 [v]	How many? How many?		One hundred. ((7s)) elli iki dolar.		
A2 [nv]			<i>Searching the list</i>		
A2 [v]				fifty two dollars	
	89 [05:31.3]	90 [05:32.891 [05:33.4]	92 [05:36.0]	93 [05:37.0]	
P [v]	see. Almost the half yeah?	Almost the half.		Yeah. And you work	
A2 [v]	Fifty two.	Hà?		Yani. Yes.	

Figure 4.50 Kazakh participant's receptive Turkish understanding

Third, as was indicated in Figure 4.48 and discussed above the Kazakh participant's 'response: rephrase in interlocutor's L1' was another evidence for her having some command of Turkish.

In sum, it can be concluded that the Kazakh participant applied ELF and Turkish RM and CSW as her language choice strategies.

4.5.2.1.2. Kazakh Participant: Pharmacy

The communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. The Kazakh participant could successfully explain the situation and get answers for the questions and report it to the researcher in the post

interview. Also, after the medicine prescribed, besides asking about side effects, she asked about the allergic reaction of the medications.

The Kazakh participant's addressee in the pharmacy was a pharmacist assistant who was a native speaker of Turkish with an intermediate level of English as her only second language. The discourse was smooth as both parties had enough of proficiency to manage an unproblematic communication. The only outstanding strategy used by Kazakh participant was her 'asking for repetition.' As is clear from the figure below, the pharmacist gives advice in Turkish and because of not hearing or not understanding, the participant asks the pharmacist to repeat herself.

	31 [02:26.5]	32 [02:27.3]	33 [02:30.034 [02:30.7]
P [v]		What again?	OK. So
A [v]	dinlenmen gerekiyor.	Daha çok dinleneceksin. Rest.	Hm̃
A [v]	You must rest.	You have to rest a lot.	

Figure 4.51 Kazakh participant's 'asking for repetition'

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies used by the Kazakh participant in the pharmacy are given in Table 4.46 below.

With regard to the oral data, except for some occasional utterances, the pharmacist was all speaking in Turkish. As for the Kazakh participant, except for some occasional use of Turkish, she has used her English. That is, receptive multilingualism was the multilingual mode of communication preferred by both interlocutors. So it can be concluded the discourse was mostly a Turkish-English receptive multilingual conversation.

Table 4.46 CS used by the Kazakh participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	1
	2	Asking for repetition	1
	3	Lengthened sound	2
	4	Circumlocution	1
	5	Response: confirmation	3
	6	Other-repetition	1
Hearer-based	7	Back-channeling	7

The Kazakh participant's receptive understanding of Turkish can be determined in two ways. First as receptive use of both English and Turkish was constantly used in the communication any failing to understand by any of the interlocutors could result in communication breakdown somewhere through the discourse. This means that mutual understanding throughout the communication has led to unproblematic unfolding of discourse. Second, instances of the Kazakh participant's responses to her addressee can guarantee her accurate receptive understanding of Turkish. Two examples are provided below.

As is highlighted in Figure 4.52, when the pharmacist asks about whether the Kazakh participant has other problems, the participant makes to CSW stating that she just has problems in her head and throat. Also when the pharmacist tries to translate her advice of gargling with salty water, the participant assures her that she has understood and then does 'other repetition' to confirm it.

In sum, ELF, a case of CSW and receptive Turkish understanding are the language choice strategies used by the Kazakh participant in the pharmacy.

8 [00:53.8]		
P [v]	Yes.	
A [v]	spordan sonra anladığım kadarıyla. Tamam. Ee başka neren ağrıyor? Sadece boğaz mı	
A [v]	as far as I have understood. OK. Where else do you feel pain? Only a sore throat and a	
9 [01:01.7] 10 [01:05.3]		
P [v]	Eee that's all baş and boğaz.	
P [v]	That's all head and throat.	
A [v]	başın mı ağrıyor? Başka?	Boğaz ağrıyor. Gargara da
A [v]	headache? What else?	A sore throat. You can gargle. Salty
11 [01:10.5] 12 [01:11.1] 13 [01:12.4] 14 [01:14.8]		
P [v]	Hm	Yes I understand. Tuzlu su.
P [nv]		<i>laughing</i>
P [v]		Yes I understand. Salty water.
A [v]	yapabilirsin. Tuzlu su.	Salt with ee warm ... warm water.
A [nv]		<i>laughing</i>
A [v]	water.	

Figure 4.52 Instances of Kazakh participant's accurate receptive understanding of Turkish

4.5.2.1.3. Kazakh Participant: Registrar's Office

Participants who were a regular student of METU had to refer to the Registrar's office. Students have frequent visits to the Registrar's office for their various issues one of commonest one is graduation. The communication act problem defined for the Registrar's office was that as an international they have to go back to their right after graduation. So the questions to be asked were what the process to take for graduation, how soon they can get their diploma, and how they can get a temporary graduation diploma to inform their country's embassy. The Kazakh participant was able to ask these questions at the Registrar's office and provide answers for them all.

The Kazakh participant had a clerk as her addressee in the Registrar's office. The clerk was a native speaker of Turkish with a beginner-level proficiency in English, as her only second language. The conversation started with an utterance from the Kazakh participant regarding her near future graduation followed by the clerk's 'I don't speak English.' This sentence led to adaptations in the Kazakh

participant's manner of speech, applying CS to manage the communication. As is indicated in Figure 4.53, the participant with 'pauses', 'slow speech rate', 'shorter utterance length' and 'separate word/phrase articulation' tries to make herself understood in English.

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:03.2]	2 [00:10.1]
P [v]	Hi. I am graduating • soon enough.		So let me try to
A [v]	((2.5s)) I don't speak English.		
	..		3 [00:20.7]
P [v]	explain. I am • fourth year • • student • • • and I'm graduating • • • from this university.		
A [v]	Yes.		

Figure 4.53 Kazakh participant's applying various CS in the Registrar's office

Another strategy applied by the Kazakh participant to manage the communication was 'response: self-repetition in interlocutor's L1.' After expressing her message in English, the participant repeats herself in Turkish to facilitate her addressee's understanding. (Figure 4.54)

	..	37 [02:21.6]	
P [v]	diploma and I can go home. Right?		
A [v]	((1s)) Diplomasını aldıktan sonra • • • götüreceğim		
A [v]	Is she asking about after getting the diploma?		
	..	38 [02:27.1]	39 [02:28.0]
P [v]	Kazakistan'a g/gid/gideceğim.	Yeah.	
P [v]	I will go to	Kazakhstan.	
A [v]	mi diyor?	Kazakistana götüreceksin.	Tamam. Eee aslını
A [v]		You will take it to Kazakhstan.	OK. We give you the original

Figure 4.54 Kazakh participant's 'response: self-repetition in interlocutor's L1'

This use of Turkish in CS is also seen when the Kazakh participant repeats herself in the same utterance in Turkish, that is ‘self-repetition in interlocutor’s L1.’ (see Figure 4.55)

	50 [03:08.1*]	51 [03:09.152 [03:09.8]	53 [03:12.3]
P [v]	even after first semester	birinci semester.	Aaa bir ... ((1s))
P [v]		first semester	one
A [v]		Hm̃	Şu an senin
A [v]			Let’s take a look at your

Figure 4.55 Kazakh participant’s ‘self-repetition in interlocutor’s L1’

Another communication strategy that was unique for the Kazakh participant was her ‘asking for slower speech rate’ from her interlocutor. (see Figure 5.56) When the clerk was explaining the process of graduation in Turkish, to manage keeping up with her speech and understand her addressee, the Kazakh participant asks the clerk to slow down her rate of speech. This is done in Turkish.

	42 [02:34.743 [02:35.2]
P [v]	Hm̃
A [v]	veriyoruz zaten sana diplomanın. Ee aslı gibi bir şekilde onaylanmasını mı
A [v]	diploma to you, in fact. Do you want to be approved like the original one?
	44 [02:38.2]
P [v]	Yavaş yavaş.
P [v]	Slower slower.
A [v]	istiyorsun? Diploma... hm̃ hm̃ Eee diplomayı • biz hazırlıyoruz kayıt sildirme
A [v]	Diploma ... We prepare the diploma after you do disenrollmen we will give it to you.

Figure 4.56 Kazakh participant’s ‘asking for slower speech rate’

The CS used with their functions and frequencies used by the Kazakh participant in the Registrar’s office are given in Table 4.47 below.

Table 4.47 CS used by the Kazakh participant in the Registrar’s office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Asking for slower speech rate	1
	2	Umiming and erring	1
	3	Pause	5
	4	Slow speech rate	2
	5	Shorter utterance length	2
	6	Separate word/phrase articulation	2
	7	Circumlocution	2
	8	Use of high-frequency items	1
	9	Response: confirmation	2
	10	Form self-repair	1
	11	Self-repetition in interlocutor’s L1	2
	12	Response: self-repetition in interlocutor’s L1	1
	13	Asking for confirmation	1
Hearer-based	14	Back-channeling	14
	15	Back-channeling: confirmation	3

The Kazakh participant’s tendency toward the use of Turkish in her speech is evident in this discourse, too. This tendency can be observed in three ways in the discourse. First, her ‘response: confirmation’ and ‘back-channeling: confirmation’ of her addressee’s Turkish speech is available in the discourse. Second, as indicated above, the participant facilitated her addressee’s understanding through self-repetition in Turkish. Third, there are instances of the Kazakh participant’s short turns in Turkish as in her ‘asking for slower speech rate.’ Some other examples are provided below.

		28 [01:49.329 [01:49.9]	
P [v]		Yok.	
P [v]		No.	
A [v]	öğrencilerden biz kayıt sildirme işlemini bekliyoruz.	Yapmadın. Ee kayıt	
A [v]		You didn't do it. To disenroll / let	
		45 [02:47.246 [02:47.8]	
P [v]		Hm̃	
P [v]			
A [v]	işlemi yaptıktan sonra size vereceğiz.	Ee sonrasını anlamadım bir daha anlat.	
A [v]	We will give you after you do the procedure.	I could not understand the rest. Repeat once more.	
	47 [02:50.8]	48 [02:52.6]	
P [v]	Hm̃ Ee ne zaman?		
P [v]	When?		
A [v]	Hm̃ Ne zaman? Ee mezuniyet işlemlerin ne zaman gerçekleşirse		
A [v]	When? Whenever you finish graduation procedures I mean whenever your disenrollment		

Figure 4.57 Kazakh participant's instances of productive Turkish use

So, it can be concluded that beside ELF, the Kazakh participant had a tendency to use Turkish both receptively and productively in the communication.

4.5.2.1.4. Kazakh Participant: Instructor

Instructors as advisors could be consulted with for the courses taken. So the participants were asked to talk to their instructors to make sure whether the courses taken are sufficient or not and whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. The Kazakh participant was successful to manage this communication act and gain the needed information and report in the post-interview.

The Kazakh participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with two other languages in his linguistic repertoire: English and German; his English being excellent and his German beginner level. The whole conversation was in English and from the CS use point of view, there was nothing but 'back-channelings', 'back-

channeling: confirmations’ and ‘ummings and errings.’ The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the Kazakh participant in her talk with her instructor are given in Table 4.48 below.

Table 4.48 CS used by the Kazakh participant with her instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	3
Hearer-based	2	Back-channeling	17
	3	Back-channeling: confirmation	2

The only mode of multilingual communication in this discourse was ELF.

4.5.2.1.5. Kazakh Participant: Turkish Friend

The last of communication act problems is defined for participant’s Turkish friends. They needed to go to their friends and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. The Kazakh participant covered all these issues successfully.

There were two friends of the Kazakh participant taking part in the communication. Both were native speakers of Turkish with a very good English as the only second language. The only outstanding point about the communication act was the way the Kazakh participant ‘expressed non-understanding.’ See Figure 4.58 below.

	5 [00:32.6]	6 [00:35.8]
P [v]	Poor I can't understand anything.	
A1 [v]	Sınavlar da yaklaştığı için gerili yorum.	OK. Eee sınavlar
A1 [v]	Since the exams are approaching I feel stressed.	OK. Because the exams

Figure 4.58 Kazakh participant's 'expressing non-understanding'

The CS with their functions and frequencies used by the Kazakh participant in her talk with her Turkish friends are given in Table 4.49 below.

Table 4.49 CS used by the Kazakh participant with her Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	2
	2	Expressing non-understanding	1
	3	Content self-repair	2
	4	Response: confirmation	1
	5	Other-repetition	1
	6	Asking for confirmation	1
Hearer-based	7	Back-channeling	5

On the side of the Kazakh participant there were two prevalent modes of multilingual communication: ELF and Turkish RM.

4.5.2.1.6. Kazakh Participant: Conclusion

All in all the Kazakh participant was able to finish all the five communication act problems successfully and provide answers for all the questions for each constellation. Table 4.50 below summarizes all the CS used by the Kazakh participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

Table 4.50 summary of all CS used by the Kazakh participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	7	1	1	3	2	14
	2	Response: confirmation	1	3	2	-	1	7
	3	Pause	-	-	5	-	-	5
	4	Circumlocution	1	1	2	-	-	4
	5	Other-repetition	2	1	-	-	1	4
	6	Lengthened sound	2	2	-	-	-	4
	7	Content self-repair	2	-	-	-	2	4
	8	Asking for confirmation	1	-	1	-	1	3
	9	Form self-repair	2	-	1	-	-	3
	10	Separate word/phrase articulation	-	-	2	-	-	2
	11	Separate syllable articulation	2	-	-	-	-	2
	12	Shorter utterance length	-	-	2	-	-	2
	13	Asking for clarification: meaning	2	-	-	-	-	2
	14	More careful pronunciation	2	-	-	-	-	2
	15	Response: self-repetition	2	-	-	-	-	2
	16	Slow speech rate	-	-	2	-	-	2
	17	Asking for repetition	-	1	-	-	-	1
	18	Interpretive summary	1	-	-	-	-	1
	19	Expressing non-understanding	-	-	-	-	1	1
	20	Self-repetition in interlocutor's L1	-	-	1	-	-	1
	21	Response: self-repetition in interlocutor's L1	-	-	1	-	-	1
	22	Response: rephrase in interlocutor's L1	1	-	-	-	-	1
	23	Use of high-frequency items	-	-	1	-	-	1
	24	Asking for slower speech rate	-	-	1	-	-	1
Hearer-based	25	Back-channeling	16	7	14	17	5	59
	26	Back-channeling: confirmation	-	-	3	2	-	5

Among the five constellations the Kazakh participant found herself in, only one, with her instructor, did not include any type of Turkish use and there was only ELF mode of multilingual communication. The other four had ELF used but accompanied by CSW between Turkish and English, productive use of Turkish as short turns and receptive understanding of Turkish.

4.5.2.2. Turkic Language Background: Azeri 1

The first of the two Azeri participants comes from a multilingual background. He has two native languages: Azeri and Farsi. (as indicated in Table 4.51 below) Azeri is the mother tongue and Farsi is the national language. Azeri and Farsi are both used when speaking to his father, his siblings, neighbors and relatives, friends, and in contact with official institutions in his home country. Azeri is the only language when speaking with his grandparents and his mother. This use of both languages is because the participant was born in a Farsi-speaking region but is from an Azeri family and lives in an Azeri-speaking region. English as the third language was started being learnt at the age of 12 at school and like the other previous participants is used with friends, teachers, for the internet and beside his native language, Azeri, is used in contact with official institutions in Turkey. This is the first and the only case a participant has opted for his/her native tongue as the language used in Turkey. For Arabic, learnt at school, and German, the language learnt through TV and internet, no uses have been mentioned in the questionnaire. Like their child, his parents have commands in Azeri, Farsi and English plus his father's German command. The table below shows the language available in the participant's linguistic repertoire with his self-evaluation of the languages.

Table 4.51 Azeri 1 participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	Azeri	Excellent
L1	Farsi	Excellent
L2	English	Very Good
L2	German	Very Poor
L2	Arabic	Poor

The Azeri 1 participant had a one-week visit to Turkey a year before. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.52 below.

Table 4.52 Information about the oral data for the Azeri 1 participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	01:48	01:57	02:05	02:42	03:32
Interval	53 days	52 days	52 days	52 days	52 days

Below are the data analyzed for the Azeri 1 participant in five constellations.

4.5.2.2.1. Azeri 1 Participant: Post Office

Like all other participant, Azeri 1 participant had been asked to attend the post office and ask questions about how their parents can send the money, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is

the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. The Azeri 1 participant was able to complete the task successfully by providing responses for all the questions.

Azeri 1 had the male clerk of the post office as her addressee. The clerk was a native speaker of Turkish with a beginner-level command of English as her only second language. However, there was no need to English, as the communication between the two was in Turkish and Azeri. So the flow of communication was quite smooth with no need for extra CS. A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.53 below.

Table 4.53 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Asking for clarification: meaning	1
	2	Other-repetition	1
	3	content self-repair	1
Hearer-based	4	Back-channeling	9

As mentioned above the languages used in the communication was Azeri and Turkish. As a speaker, Azeri 1 participant used Azeri, and more occasionally a mix of Azeri and Turkish to express himself. Some examples may helpful. Figure 4.59 below indicates Azeri 1 participant using Azeri to ask about how much time is needed to transfer money through Western Union and to say thank you.

		22 [01:39.8]	23 [01:41.0]
P [v]		Evet.	Evet. Nə
P [v]		Yes.	Yes. How
A [v]	dolar olursa bunun alacak parası sana otuz beş dolar civarında bir para eder.		
A [v]	the money they get from you is about thirty five dollars.		
	24 [01:42.2] 25 [01:43.1] 26 [01:43.6] 27 [01:44.6]	28 [01:46.5]	
P [v]	qədər zəməən istər? Anında.	Təşəkkür elirəm.	
P [v]	much time is needed? Instantly.	Thank you.	
A [v]	Anında.	Anında.	Rica ederim efendim. İyi
A [v]	Instantly.	Instantly.	You're welcome. have a nice day.

Figure 4.59 Azeri 1 participant's using Azeri in communication

And the figure below indicates Azeri 1 participant using a mix of Azeri and Turkish. In the first case CSW is used to explain the issue to the clerk and in the second one to ask about the charge of transferring money.

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:00.9]	2 [00:01.8]
P [v]	Merhaba.		Eee mən eea Azərbaycanə para göndərəcəəim.
P [v]	Hello.		I will send money to Azerbaijan.
A [v]	Hoş geldiniz. Merhaba. Hoş geldin abi.		
A [v]	Welcome. Hello welcome.		
	3 [00:05.3]		
P [v]	İstirdim görəm nasıl olar / nasıl mənə göndərəbililər? Mən nasıl onlara göndərəbilləm?		
P [v]	I want to find out how they can send me money. How can I send them money?		
A [v]	Tamam Gönderelim.		
A [v]	OK. Let's send.		
		19 [01:15.2]	20 [01:16.9]
P [v]		Transfer ücretləri nə qədər olur?	
P [v]		How much is the transfer charge?	
A [v]	Western Union işlem yapan her yerden alabilir sin.		Transfer
A [v]	from all the places that do the Western Union operation.		How much is the

Figure 4.60 Azeri 1 participant's CSW between Azeri and Turkish

There is a close genetical proximity between Azeri and Turkish. This leads to plenty of common words between the languages. However, there can be differences in vocabulary as well. The Azeri 1 participant is careful of these uncommon vocabularies. In the first case above the participant inserts ‘nasıl’ (how), as the only uncommon vocabulary, from Turkish to his Azeri utterance, which includes all common vocabulary. The Southern Azeri equivalence of the word ‘nasıl’ is ‘nəcür’ which if used might have caused misunderstanding. The same is true for the second case. The participant uses ‘ücret’ from Turkish instead of the Southern Azeri word ‘karmozd’ which is originally a Farsi word. In his stimulated recall he stated that before coming to Turkey as a student he had no prior contact with Turkish and did not know the closeness between the languages. However, during her shorter than two months stay in Turkey, he had become alert about the similarities and differences between the two languages at least at vocabulary level. So his replacing words was based on his short but efficient exposition to Turkish. One last point about his statements is his indecision about whether his choice of words was conscious or subconscious.

As a hearer, Azeri 1 participant uses back-channeling signals from both Azeri and Turkish. This is evident from the example below.

..		8 [00:35.7]	9 [00:39.010 [00:39.7]
P [v]	numarası?		Aha'
P [v]			
A [v]	Eee şimdi Western Union diye bir para sistemi var ya.		Şimdi senin
A [v]	Now there is a system call WEstern Union		Now there will be
..		11 [00:43.3]	12 [00:44.813 [00:45.3]
P [v]		Evet.	Evet.
P [v]			Yes.
A [v]	adına para gelecek. Name surname adına para gelecek.		Eee her kişinin adına da
A [v]	money for your name There will be money for your name surname		Specific for each person's name
..		14 [00:49.1]	
P [v]			Aha'
A [v]	özel şöyle bir tane numara olur. Mesela der ki dört bin sekiz yüz altmış yediye üç. Bu		
A [v]	there is a number.		For example four thousand eight hundred sixty seven slash three. If you

Figure 4.61 Azeri 1 participant’s Azeri and Turkish back-channeling signals

From the four cases of using back-channeling signals above, while the first and last ones are nonverbal back-channeling signals used in Azeri, the second and third ones are verbal back-channeling signals from Turkish.

In sum, it can be concluded that Azeri 1 participant has used Azeri and Azeri-Turkish CSW in the discourse with no reference to English.

4.5.2.2.2. Azeri 1 Participant: Pharmacy

The communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. The Azeri 1 participant was successful in explaining her problem, getting the medicine and asking questions about it.

The pharmacist who helped Azeri 1 participant in the pharmacy was a native speaker of Turkish with an intermediate-level command in English. Like the Kazakh participant genetically coming from the Turkic language background leads to make use of this advantage in CS. The outstanding CS used by the Azeri 1 participant was his use of Azeri in CS to facilitate his addressee's understanding. There are two cases: 'self-repetition in speaker's L1' and 'self-rephrase in speaker's L1.' See the figures below.

	11 [00:35.6]	12 [00:37.6]	13 [00:41.1*]
P [v]	Aaamm antihistamik? OK. In what intervals should I take those?		Eee ne
P [v]			What time ...
A [v]	öneririm. Antihistamik yes.		
A [v]			
	14 [00:43.4]	15 [00:45.0]	
P [v]	zamanlarda • oları ...		evet.
P [v]			Yes.
A [v]	Almamı önerirsin diyorsun. Ee Yaklaşık beş gün olarak günde		
A [v]	You want to say do you suggest. I suggest about five days each day two three		

Figure 4.62 Azeri 1 participant's 'self-repetition in speaker's L1'

In the case above the participant repeats himself in case his addressee has not been able to understand the meaning ‘intervals.’ However, the participant uses Azeri translation of his English utterance to further facilitate understanding. This is done intelligently by using the common word to remove any probability of hindering understanding of his addressee by uncommon vocabulary use.

		27 [01:34.3]	
P [v]	have any side effects or not? Eee side effects means ee ...		
A [v]		Side effects dışarıdan alabilir /	
A [v]		Apart from side effects / does he say he can	
		28 [01:38.6]	
P [v]		Eemm Antihistaminin başka bir emm mənə	
P [v]		Does Antihistam have any harms to me	
A [v]	şəysiz alabilirmiyim reçetesiz mi diyor?		
A [v]	get it without a prescription?		
		29 [01:45.2] 30 [01:46.2]	31 [01:49.332] [01:50.2]
P [v]	zərəri var ya yok? Hə	Aha	
P [v]	or not?		
A [v]	Yok. Antihistamin yok ama antibiotiğin olabilir.	Yani bilinçsiz	
A [v]	No. Not the Antihistamin but the antibiotics can have,	It means that senseless	

Figure 4.63 Azeri 1 participant’s ‘self-rephrase in speaker’s L1’

As the second case of using Azeri in his CS, the Azeri 1 participant, after his interlocutor’s non-understanding the meaning of ‘side effects’, puts his message in other words and other codes to make her understood. The other code in Azeri used. Like the first case above it is used cautiously not to contain any uncommon vocabulary.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.54 below.

Table 4.54 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	4
	2	Self-repetition	2
	3	Response: confirmation	1
	4	Asking for confirmation	1
	5	Other-repetition	2
	6	Response: self-repetition	1
	7	Self-rephrase in interlocutor's L1	1
	8	Self-repetition in interlocutor's L1	1
Hearer-based	9	Back-channeling	4

As for modes of multilingual communication, the Azeri 1 participant used English as a speaker all through the conversation with two cases of using Azeri in CS, as discussed above. And the pharmacist used Turkish throughout the conversation with two cases of switching to English. So the discourse was a Turkish-English receptive multilingual. That is, the Azeri participant used English actively and Turkish passively and the pharmacist vice versa; the pharmacist used Turkish actively and English passively. Like the post office, the back-channeling signals used were in some cases Azeri-specific as well.

All in all ELF, occasional Azeri and receptive Turkish were the language choice strategy preferred in the communication act by the Azeri 1 participant.

4.5.2.2.3. Azeri 1 Participant: Registrar's Office

Participants who were a regular student of METU had to refer to the Registrar's office. The communication act problem defined for the Registrar's office was that as an international they have to go back to their right after graduation. So the questions to be asked were what the process to take for graduation, how soon they can get their

diploma, and how they can get a temporary graduation diploma to inform their country's embassy. The Azeri1 participant could manage to ask all the question from the Registrar's office clerk and provide answers for the questions.

A clerk in the Registrar's office dealt with Azeri 1 participant's issue. She was a native speaker of Turkish with only English in her repertoire as the second which was at beginner level of proficiency according to her self-evaluation. After Azeri started up the conversation in English, the clerk's 'no speak English' made the participant switch into Azeri-Turkish mix. The main role of the participant was as a hearer as the Registrar's office clerk was using Turkish to explain the procedure of graduation. This mode of multilingual communication was used to the end of the communication. However, no difficulties were faced with in understanding by neither of the parties.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.55 below.

Table 4.55 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant in the Registrar's office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	4
	2	Pause	2
	3	Response: confirmation	1
	4	Other-repetition	1
	5	Form self-repair	1
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	11
	7	Back-channeling: confirmation	1

As a speaker, Azeri 1 participant's used Azeri-Turkish CSW all through his talk with the Registrar's office clerk. As a hearer, he was exposed to Turkish. See Figure 4.64 below as an example.

		14 [01:15.415 [01:15.9]	
P [v]		Hṁ	Ama ee mezun
P [v]			But after the graduation how
A [v]	ortalaması iki olacak. İkinin altında öğrenci mezun olmaz.		
A [v]	need to be two. The students with GPA under two can not graduate.		
		16 [01:22.5]	
P [v]	olandan sora nə / nə qədər zaman çəkər ta diploma hazır olsun?		
P [v]	much time is needed for the diploma to be prepared?		
A [v]			Diploma zaten törende
A [v]			In fact we give the roiginal
		17 [01:27.4]	18 [01:29.2]
P [v]		Hṁ	Hṁ
A [v]	orijinal diplomayı veriyoruz. Yani size orijinal diplomanız elinize veriliyor.		
A [v]	diploma in the ceremony. It means we give you the	original diploma.	

Figure 4.64 Azeri 1 participant's Azeri-Turkish CSW and receptive Turkish understanding

So Azeri-Turkish CSW and receptive Turkish were language choice strategies used in this communication act by the Azeri 1 participant.

4.5.2.2.4. Azeri 1 Participant: Instructor

As the fourth communication act, to collect the oral data from the participant, they were to talk to their instructors to make sure whether the courses taken are sufficient or not and whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. Azeri 1 participant could successfully consult his instructor for the above-mentioned issues and provide answers for all the required questions.

Azeri 1 participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with English, German and Russian as her second languages. Her self-evaluation for the second languages was very good, intermediate and beginner respectively. The discourse was monolingually English and with both party's advanced English not many CS were needed for the Azeri 1 participant. Furthermore, his role was much of a hearer.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.56 below.

Table 4.56 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant with his instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umning and erring	12
	2	Other-repetition	3
	3	Form self-repair	3
	4	Asking for confirmation	1
	5	Interpretive summary	1
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	17
	7	Back-channeling: confirmation	1

Azeri 1 participant had only ELF as the mode of multilingual communication with his instructor.

4.5.2.2.5. Azeri 1 Participant: Turkish Friend

The last of communication act problems is defined for participant's Turkish friends. They needed to go to their friends and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. The Azeri 1 participant covered all these issues and in the following had time to discuss about other students who were coming from his region to METU.

Azeri 1 participant's friend was a native speaker of Turkish with three other languages in her linguistic repertoire: English, French and German. She was very good t English, intermediate in French and beginner in German. The language was the discourse was in sole English and was smooth and flowing with no need to plenty of CS.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.57 below.

Table 4.57 CS used by the Azeri 1 participant with his Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	15
	2	Pause	1
	3	Response: confirmation	1
	4	Other-repetition	2
	5	Form self-repair	4
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	11
	7	Back-channeling: confirmation	2

Like his instructor, this communication was also solely in English, hence ELF as the language choice strategy.

4.5.2.2.6. Azeri 1 Participant: Conclusion

All in all the Azeri 1 participant was able to finish all the five communication act problems successfully and provide answers for all the questions for each constellation. Table 4.58 below summarizes all the CS used by Azeri 1 participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

Like the other participants, ‘umming and erring’ is at the top of the CS used by Azeri 1 participant. He also had frequent instances of ‘other-repetition’ which are used to check self-understanding of the interlocutor by repeating his/her utterance. ‘Form self-repair’ is also used frequently in his talk with his instructor and his Turkish friend which were in English. Azeri 1 participant has played his hearer role effectively as well. There are numerous cases of ‘back-channeling’ and ‘back-channeling: confirmation’ which are used as signals to indicate understanding and assure the speaker to carry on speech.

Azeri 1 participant used all three modes of multilingual communication in his communication acts. There were also three languages involved in the communication

acts. Apart from ELF that was used in Azeri 1 participant's communication with his instructor and his Turkish friend, receptive multilingualism and CSW were the modes frequently used in the post office, pharmacy and Registrar's office.

Table 4.58 Summary of all CS used by the Azeri 1 participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	-	4	4	12	15	14
	2	Other-repetition	1	2	1	3	2	9
	3	Form self-repair	-	-	1	3	4	8
	4	Pause	-	-	2	-	1	3
	5	Response: confirmation	1	1	-	-	1	3
	6	Asking for confirmation	-	1	-	1	-	2
	6	Self-repetition	-	2	-	-	-	2
	7	Self-repetition in interlocutor's L1	-	1	-	-	-	1
	8	Self-rephrase in interlocutor's L1	-	1	-	-	-	1
	9	Response: self-repetition	-	1	-	-	-	1
	10	Interpretive summary	-	-	-	1	-	1
	11	content self-repair	1	-	-	-	-	1
12	Asking for clarification: meaning	1	-	-	-	-	1	
Hearer-based	13	Back-channeling	9	4	11	17	11	53
	14	Back-channeling: confirmation	-	-	1	1	2	4

4.5.2.3. Turkic Language Background: Kyrgyz

The third participant with Turkic language group comes from a Kyrgyz background. As can be seen from Table 4.59, like both the previous participants, this Kyrgyz participant also has two native languages. And like the Kazakh participant one of the native languages is Russian. For the case of this participant Russian is more of use in everyday communication than Kyrgyz. According to her language background questionnaire, while both Kyrgyz and Russian are used when speaking to her parents and siblings, only Russian is used with neighbors and relatives, friends, teachers, internet and in contact in official institutions in her home country. The third language that the Kyrgyz participant has added to her linguistic repertoire is Kazakh. This is because of her grandparents who are originally Kazakh. So with her grandparents all three Kyrgyz, Russian, and Kazakh are used. However, she is using Kazakh only receptively and does not have an active command in the language. The fourth language available for her is English. It is the language learnt from the age of 12 through school, university and internet and is used with friends and teachers, internet, and in contact with the official institutions in Turkey. As the fifth language, German was started learning at the age of 17 was mentioned no use for it.

As for her parents it must be noted that both are Kyrgyz and Russian bilinguals with no additional languages.

Table 4.59 Kyrgyz participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	Kyrgyz	Excellent
L1	Russian	Excellent
L2	Kazakh	Average
L2	English	Excellent
L2	German	Poor

This participant had no prior visit to Turkey and it was her first stay in Turkey. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.60 below.

Table 4.60 Information about the oral data for the Kyrgyz participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	02:11	03:00	05:41	02:16	01:31
Interval	67 days	67 days	67 days	67 days	67 days

Below are the data analyzed for the Kyrgyz participant in five constellations.

4.5.2.3.1. Kyrgyz Participant: Post Office

The communication act problem was to attend the post office and ask questions about how their parents can send the money, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. The Kyrgyz participant was able to ask all the questions and provide answers for them all.

The post office clerk who helped the Kyrgyz participant was a native speaker of Turkish with a beginner level of proficiency in English as her only second language. Although she did not have a fluent command of Turkish, the participant initiated the communication in Turkish. Nevertheless, with frequent ‘ummings and erring’ and ‘pauses’ and other CS, the Kyrgyz participant was able to manage the communication.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.61 below.

The Kyrgyz participant preferred to use Turkish in the post office. This preference for sole Turkish was contrary to her not very good fluency in Turkish. Nevertheless, her receptive Turkish was good enough to play her hearer role unproblematically well enough in Turkish.

Table 4.61 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	9
	2	Pause	3
	3	Interpretive summary	1
	4	Other-repetition	1
	5	Asking for clarification: meaning	1
	6	Content self-repair	1
	7	Form self-repair	1
Hearer-based	8	Back-channeling	6
	9	Back-channeling: confirmation	1

4.5.2.3.2. Kyrgyz Participant: Pharmacy

The communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. Although, as was the case before, the pharmacist advised the Kyrgyz participant see a doctor, she was able to get suggestions from the pharmacist for what to take and ask her questions about the medicine offered by the pharmacist.

The pharmacist who dealt with the Kyrgyz participant's problems in the pharmacy was a native speaker of Turkish with an intermediate-level English as her

only second language. Like the post office, the participant initiated and carried on the conversation in Turkish. The communication went on smoothly in Turkish with a few CS needed. There is only a case of miming discussed below.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.62 below.

Table 4.62 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	12
	2	Pause	13
	3	Other-repetition	2
	4	Form self-repair	1
	5	Miming	1
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	2
	7	Back-channeling: confirmation	2

As mentioned above, the Kyrgyz participant preferred Turkish whole through the conversation with the pharmacist. However, there are two cases of using other languages. In the first case, when the participant was trying to explain her sore throat problem, she resorted to her native language of Kyrgyz for the word throat. She used ‘damağım’ and self-repaired herself for ‘damagım’ to mean throat in Turkish. As she was showing her throat with her hand, i.e. miming, the pharmacist corrected her to ‘boğaz’, the appropriate word for throat is Turkish. See Figure 4.65 below.

	4 [00:10.6]	5 [00:11.9]	6 [00:17.37 [00:18.5]	8 [00:21.8]
P [v]		Aaa benim ••• aa benim	damağım / damagım.	
P [v]		My ••• my.	Throat / throat.	
A [v]	Tabii ki buyurun.		Hm̃´	Hà´ elinizle
A [v]	Of course go on.			You show it with
		9 [00:24.2]	10 [00:27.0]	11 [00:28.9] 12 [00:32.9]
P [v]		Evet evet. Eee		••• Evet evet.
P [v]		Yes yes.		Yes yes.
A [v]	gösteriyorsunuz boğazınız.		Boğazınız mı ağrıyor?	Hm̃´
A [v]	your hand your throat.		Do you have a sore throat.	

Figure 4.65 Kyrgyz participant's resort to her native language

The second case was when the participant was trying to ask about the side effects of the medicine as she used the word 'side effects' to complete her explanation. (Figure 4.66 below)

	36 [02:23.1]	37 [02:25.0]	38 [02:33.739 [02:34.5]
P [v]		OK. Aaa bunun ((3s)) bunun aamm	((5s)) ne kötü side
P [v]		OK. This this	which bad side effects.
A [v]	In the morning and night.		Evet.
A [v]			Yes.
		40 [02:45.3]	41 [02:46.5]
P [v]	effects.	İhtiyaç yok.	
P [v]		No need.	
A [v]	Bir şey ihtiyaç yok yani.	Bunları için ee iyi olursunuz. Ama doktora gidin.	
A [v]	There is need for nothing.	Take these and you feel fine. But visit a doctor. Is it OK?	

Figure 4.66 Kyrgyz participant's use of English in the pharmacy

4.5.2.3.3. Kyrgyz Participant: ICO Office

Exchange students have frequent visits to the ICO office for their various issues one of commonest one is to resolve their residence issue. So the communication act problem defined for the ICO office was about this issue and the questions raised

were how and where to get the residence permit, what the process is, the documents needed and how long it takes to get the permit. The Kyrgyz participant was able to provide answers for all the questions and report it to the researcher after the data recording in the post interview. Also, she continued her talk with the ICO office clerk about how she can continue as an exchange student for one more semester and what she should do with the library card.

A clerk helped the Kyrgyz participant in the ICO office who was a native speaker of Turkish with a very-good English in her linguistic repertoire. Two CS are used more frequently in this communication act: ‘ummings and errings’ and ‘back-channeling.’ The first one is used more because, like the other communication acts, the Kyrgyz participant insisted on using Turkish and since her command of Turkish is not fluent enough, she needs fillers to gain time to compose her speech plan in the desired language. The latter communication strategy is used more because, like the other participants, the participant’s role is more of a hearer in the ICO office. So she uses back-channeling to signal understanding.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.63 below.

Table 4.63 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in the ICO office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	21
	2	Pause	5
	3	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	1
	4	Content self-repair	1
	5	Form self-repair	1
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	22

Kyrgyz participant's insistence on using Turkish is evident in this discourse as well. She initiates the dialog in Turkish and switches between Turkish and English occasionally. On the other hand, her addressee all used English.

4.5.2.3.4. Kyrgyz Participant: Instructor

The fourth communication act defined for the participant was with their instructors. The participants were to talk to their instructors to make sure whether the courses taken are sufficient or not and whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. To fulfill this task, the Kyrgyz participant got in touch with her instructor discussed the issues. The participant could successfully provide answers for the questions all.

The Kyrgyz participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with an excellent English as her second language. The participant initiates the communication in English with 'language choice marker.' She asks her instructor whether she can talk in Turkish (Figure 4.67). After getting approval, she restarts with a Turkish 'hello'.

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:01.8]	2 [00:03.4]	3 [00:04.9]	4 [00:05.8]
P [v]	Can I talk in Turkish?		Aa Merhaba Hocam.	Aamm •	
P [v]			Hello instructor.	I from the	
A [v]	Yeah you can. Sure.		Merhaba.		
A [nv]			<i>laughing</i>		
A [v]			Hello.		

Figure 4.67 Kyrgyz participant's 'language choice marker' in her talk with instructor

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.64 below.

Table 4.64 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant with her instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umning and erring	10
	2	Pause	4
	3	Other-repetition	1
	4	Content self-repair	1
	5	Language choice marker	1
	6	Response: confirmation	1
	7	Response: self-repetition	1
	8	Content restructuring	1
Hearer-based	9	Back-channeling	4

As mentioned above, upon the Kyrgyz participant's preference the communication was done in Turkish. However, toward the end, the participant switched into English for a question that was followed by the instructor's response in English and continued in English to the end. Figure 4.68 indicates the participant's switch to English.

	..	29 [01:46.7]	30 [01:48.4]	31 [01:49.832 [01:52.3]
P [v]		konuşma.	Hm̄ Tamam.	Aaa final exam and midterm
P [v]		speaking.	OK.	
A [v]		Konuşma olacak evet.		
A [nv]			<i>laughing</i>	
A [v]		There is going to be speaking yes.		
	..	33 [01:58.7]		
P [v]		exam you checked. Right?		
A [v]		I haven't checked them yet. Some people took the make up		

Figure 4.68 Kyrgyz participant's switch from Turkish to English

4.5.2.3.5. Kyrgyz Participant: Turkish Friend

The last of communication act problems is defined for participant's Turkish friends. They needed to go to their friends and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. The Kyrgyz participant covered all these issues successfully.

Kyrgyz participant's friend was a native speaker of Turkish with English as her second language. Like all the other communication acts, the participant initiates the conversation in Turkish as carries on in monolingual Turkish. Since the topic is familiar and the power status of both parties are almost equal, the communication unfolds smoothly with few needs for CS. Short utterances of the participant, not because of her addressee but because of her trying to compensate for her average command of Turkish might be another reason for little need for CS.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.65 below.

Table 4.65 CS used by the Kyrgyz participant with her Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	2
	2	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	1
Hearer-based	3	Back-channeling	11

The Kyrgyz participant's conversation with her Turkish friend was solely in Turkish.

4.5.2.3.6. Kyrgyz Participant: Conclusion

All in all the Kyrgyz participant was able to finish all the five communication act problems successfully and provide answers for all the questions for each constellation. Table 4.66 below summarizes all the CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

The Kyrgyz participant has used ‘umming and erring’ and ‘pause’ strategies very frequently since, as a speaker, her preferred language of communication was Turkish. These fillers were used to gain some time for the participant to manage her speech in Turkish. As a hearer, her back-channeling signals were used recurrently to assure her addressee of her understanding.

Table 4.66 Summary of all CS used by the Kyrgyz participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umning and erring	9	12	21	10	2	54
	2	Pause	3	13	5	4	-	25
	3	Other-repetition	1	2	-	1	-	4
	4	Form self-repair	1	1	1	-	-	3
	5	Content self-repair	1	-	1	1	-	3
	6	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	-	-	1	-	1	2
	7	Response: confirmation	-	-	-	1	-	1
	8	Response: self-repetition	-	-	-	1	-	1
	9	Asking for clarification: meaning	1	-	-	-	-	1
	10	Content restructuring	-	-	-	1	-	1
	11	Language choice marker	-	-	-	1	-	1
	12	Interpretive summary	1	-	-	-	-	1
	13	Miming	-	1	-	-	-	1
Hearer-based	14	Back-channeling	6	2	22	4	11	45
	15	Back-channeling: confirmation	1	2	-	-	-	3

From language choice point of view, the Kyrgyz participant had a tendency to use Turkish, even in the constellations English could be counted as unmarked. Switches to English were done when indispensable. In her own words, from the stimulated recall, the reason was because she had a semester to stay in Turkey and since she had found Turkish a language to be learnt she was trying to benefit any possible opportunity to practice

4.5.2.4. Turkic Language Background: Azeri 2

The fourth and the last of the Turkic background participants is an Azeri. Both her parents are Azeri and Farsi bilinguals and she is, too. However, she was born in an Azeri family but in a Farsi-speaking region. As a result this Azeri participant mainly uses Farsi and Azeri is only used with her grandparents. The third language available in her linguistic repertoire is English which was started being learnt at school and according to her language background questionnaire, is used with friends, teachers, internet and in contact with official institutions in Turkey. French is the fourth language learnt recently with no use mentioned in the questionnaire. The languages and self-evaluation of the languages for the second Azeri participant are listed in the table below.

Table 4.67 Azeri 2 participant language background information

	Languages	Participant self-evaluation of the language
L1	Farsi	Excellent
L1	Azeri	Poor
L2	English	Very Good
L2	French	Poor

This Azeri participant did not have any previous visit to Turkey. The information about the oral data collected in five constellations and the interval between her entering Turkey and oral data collected is indicated in Table 4.68 below.

Table 4.68 Information about the oral data for the Azeri 2 participant

Constellation	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO/Registrar's office	Instructor	Friend
Duration	02:51	01:59	02:28	03:06	02:00
Interval	63 days	63 days	63 days	63 days	63 days

Below are the data analyzed for the Azeri 2 participant in five constellations.

4.5.2.4.1. Azeri 2 Participant: Post Office

Azeri 2 participant, like all the other participants had been asked to attend the post office and ask questions about how their parents can send the money, where they should send the money from, how the participant can receive the money, how fast is the money transferred, how much the transfer fee is and what documents are needed to get the money. This participant was also able to finish the task successfully by providing answers for all of the questions.

In her referring to the post office there was the male clerk on the other side of the counter. As Azeri 2 participant tries to start up the conversation, the male clerk states that it is the female clerk who does all the money transfer affairs and calls the female clerk. The female post office clerk who helped the Azeri 2 participant was a native speaker of Turkish with a beginner level of proficiency in English as her only second language. After the Azeri 2 participant starts explain the issue in English, the female clerk asks the male clerk to do translation for her. As Azeri 2 participant hears this and suggests the female participant speaking in Turkish as she can

understand it. This is the ‘language choice marker’ as she determines the receptive language she can comprehend. This strategy is indicated in Figure 4.69 below.

	..	6 [00:41.0]	
P [v]	parents wanna send me some money.		
P [v]			
A1 [v]		Ama ben Türkçe söyliyim sen ingilizceye	
A1 [nv]			
A1 [v]		But I say it in Turkish and you translate it into English.	
	..	7 [00:51.7]	
P [v]	It's OK. You can answer me in Eng / in Turkish. I'll understand. But I can		
P [v]			
A1 [v]	çevir.		
	..	8 [01:00.8*]	9 [01:02.3]
P [v]	speak ee English or Turkish together somehow.	Eee anam ee para ee göndere / gö /	
P [v]		My mother money	send.
A1 [v]			Gönderecek.
A1 [v]			will send.

Figure 4.69 Azeri 2 participant’s ‘language choice marker’ strategy in the post office

Nevertheless, she changes her language to Turkish with occasional Azeri tendencies. This is done with frequent ‘ummings are errings’ and ‘pauses.’ A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.69 below.

As mentioned above, after the female clerk’s indirect expressing of non-understanding English, Azeri 2 participant switched in to Turkish. This is while her command of Turkish is not fluent productively and she does not rely on her Azeri very much as she did not have an extensive use of the language since she grew up in a Farsi-speaking city. However, she was able to manage the communication. Beside Turkish, her tendency to Azeri was also evident. Examples below can shed light on this issue.

Table 4.69 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant in the post office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umning and erring	13
	2	Pause	3
	3	Other-repetition	3
	4	Language choice marker	1
	5	Response: confirmation	1
	6	Asking for clarification: meaning	1
Hearer-based	7	Back-channeling	5
	8	Back-channeling: confirmation	1

	26 [01:54.627 [01:55.3]	28 [02:00.4]	29 [02:02.0]	30 [02:04.0]
P [v]	istiyoruz.	Aha' Ee mmm	Hançı ...	Eee hançı banka? Posta.
P [v]			Which	Which bank?
A1 [v]	Evet. PTT.		miktarına göre deęiřiyor.	
A1 [v]	Yes.		It changes according to amount	It can be
			31 [02:06.8]	
P [v]				Bütün bankalar. Aha' Eee
P [v]				All banks.
A1 [v]	Herhangi ordaki anlaşmalı olan bütün bankalardan ala biliyor.			
A1 [v]	any of the aal contracted banks there.			

Figure 4.70 Azeri 2 participant's instances of using Azeri in her speech

In the first highlighted point in the figure above, the participant uses 'hançı' as the question word which is an Azeri word for Turkish 'hangi' meaning 'which.' In the latter highlighted point the participant used 'aha' as the Azeri-specific back-channeling signal.

So all in all an English initiation, followed by Turkish with occasional switches to Azeri is the multilingual mode Azeri 2 participant applied for communication in the post office

4.5.2.4.2. Azeri 2 Participant: Pharmacy

The communication act problem that was defined for the pharmacy was about a headache and sore throat after walking home from the gym. The participants were asked to ask for the medicine needed, intervals to take the medicine, the length in days to take them, whether they have any side effects and what if they did not feel better at the pharmacy. Azeri 2 participant could finish the task of the pharmacy by asking all the required questions and get the answers and report them to the researcher.

Azeri 2 participant's addressee in the pharmacy was a native speaker of Turkish with an intermediate English as her only second language. The conversation started and carried on in Turkish so, like the Kyrgyz participant and Azeri 2 participant's other cases of using Turkish, 'ummings and errings' were frequent. However, the participant was using shorter utterances and could manage to have a unproblematic communication with the pharmacist.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.70 below.

Table 4.70 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant in the pharmacy

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	13
	2	Pause	1
	3	Other-repetition	1
	4	Form self-repair	1
	5	Content self-repair	1
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	4
	7	Back-channeling: confirmation	1

As mentioned above, Turkish was the language used throughout the communication. Yet, the participant resorted to some switches to English to compensate for her vocabulary insufficiency in Turkish. An example may be helpful.

	9 [00:30.5]	10 [00:31.7]	11 [00:32.8]
P [v]	Eemm sabah eee gitmişdim eee	Eee bugün sabah evet gitmişdim. Eee	
P [v]	morning I had gone to	This morning	yes I had gone to the gym.
A [v]		Bugün sabah mı?	Hm̃
A [v]		Is it this morning?	
	12 [00:38.113 [00:38.314 [00:49.1]		15 [00:52.0*]
P [v]	• gym	to ee	Eee evet eee ama.
P [v]			Yes but.
A [v]	Hm̃	Ne kullandınız? Hap falan kullandınız mı?	
A [v]		What did you take? Did you take pills or something?	

Figure 4.71 Azeri 2 participant's CSW to English

As the figure above indicates, the participant uses English 'gym' in her Turkish utterance. So Turkish with occasional switches to English is the language choice strategies applied by Azeri 2 participant in the pharmacy.

4.5.2.4.3. Azeri 2 Participant: Registrar's Office

The communication act problem defined for the Registrar's office was that as an international they have to go back to their right after graduation. So the questions to be asked were what the process to take for graduation, how soon they can get their diploma, and how they can get a temporary graduation diploma to inform their country's embassy. As a regular student the Azeri 2 participant could discuss her problem with a clerk and successfully provide answers for all the questions.

The clerk who dealt with Azeri 2 participant's problem in the Registrar's office was a native speaker of Turkish with a little knowledge of English. So as the

participant starts the communication in English, The clerk tries to ask whether the participant can ask her question in Turkish. This leads the participant to restart in Turkish. As the participant's role was mainly as a hearer and as a speaker she had some questions to ask, with frequent uses of 'ummings and errings' helps her manage the communication. She also uses a 'comprehension check' to see whether her unfluent Turkish is understandable for her addressee. (See Figure 4.72)

	7 [00:33.2]	8 [00:33.9]
P [v]	istirim ee bir ee document ee İran'da ee eemm verəm. Hà?	E transcript aha.
P [v]	to give it in Iran. Hà?	Transcript. How ...
A [v]		Transkript.
A [v]		Trascription.

Figure 4.72 Azeri 2 participant's 'comprehension check' in the Registrar's office

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.71 below.

Table 4.71 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant in the Registrar's office

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	24
	2	Pause	1
	3	Other-repetition	2
	4	Comprehension check	1
	5	Response: confirmation	1
	6	Asking for repetition	1
Hearer-based	7	Back-channeling	5
	8	Back-channeling: confirmation	1

As for language choice strategy applied by the Azeri 2 participant in the Registrar's office, after her initial utterances in English, which were after a Turkish hello, the remaining of the communication was in Turkish. Like the participant's other Turkish uses, trends of Azeri are found in her speech. This is evident in the figure given above.

4.5.2.4.4. Azeri 2 Participant: Instructor

In this communication act, the participants were to talk to their instructors to make sure whether the courses taken are sufficient or not and whether some courses need to be added or removed to have an optimum manageable number of courses. The Azeri 2 participant was able to visit her instructor in her office and bring up the issue, successfully get answers and report them to the researcher.

Azeri 2 participant's instructor was a native speaker of Turkish with a very-good English as her only second language. The instructor initiates the conversation with 'Merhaba. Hoş geldin' (Hello. Welcome.) which is followed by the participant's Turkish 'Merhaba' (Hello) followed by expressing her problem about the course in English. English is used in the remaining of the conversation by both parties. Since the topic is familiar and the language used in English, there were few CS used. Interestingly, the most frequent of the strategies used is again 'umming and erring' which indicates that this is a idiolectical issue. A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.72 below.

Table 4.72 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant with her instructor

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	19
	2	Pause	2
	3	Form self-repair	1
	4	Content self-repair	1
Hearer-based	5	Back-channeling	13

The main mode of multilingual communication preferred by Azeri 2 participant with her instructor was English, hence ELF

4.5.2.4.5. Azeri 2 Participant: Turkish Friend

The last of communication act problems is defined for participant's Turkish friends. They needed to go to their friends and talk about selecting courses, to mention the course(s) they had taken, class days and hours, the lecturer, the classmates, the atmosphere and the course requirements. The Azeri 2 participant covered all these issues and in the following asked for a favor from her friend to help her with one of the courses.

Azeri 2 participant's friend was a native speaker of Turkish with English as her only second language. The conversation starts with a Turkish greeting and is carried on in English and finishes again in Turkish. The dialog is carried on smoothly with few needs for CS.

A summary of all the CS used with their functions and frequencies are given in Table 4.73 below.

Table 4.73 CS used by the Azeri 2 participant with her Turkish friend

	No.	Communication strategies	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	5
	2	Expressing non-understanding	1
	3	Other-repetition	1
	4	Form self-repair	1
	5	Content self-repair	1
Hearer-based	6	Back-channeling	2

The mode of multilingual communication Azeri 2 participant applies for the communication act with her Turkish friend is Turkish start up and close up. It is worth mentioning that the Azeri accent of the participant was evident in her although little use of Turkish.

4.5.2.4.6. Azeri 2 Participant: Conclusion

All in all the Azeri 2 participant was able to finish all the five communication act problems successfully and provide answers for all the questions for each constellation. Table 4.74 below summarizes all the CS used by the US participant in all five constellations in order of frequency of occurrence.

Table 4.74 Summary of all CS used by the Azeri 2 participant in the five communication acts

	No.	Communication strategies	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Turkish friend	F.
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	13	13	24	19	5	74
	2	Pause	3	1	1	2	-	7
	3	Form self-repair	-	1	-	1	1	3
	4	Content self-repair	-	1	-	1	1	3
	5	Response: confirmation	1	-	1	-	-	2
	6	Asking for clarification: meaning	1	-	-	-	-	1
	7	Language choice marker	1	-	-	-	-	1
	8	Asking for repetition	-	-	1	-	-	1
	9	Comprehension check	-	-	1	-	-	1
	10	Expressing non-understanding	-	-	-	-	1	1
Hearer-based	11	Back-channeling	5	4	5	13	2	29
	12	Back-channeling: confirmation	1	1	1	-	-	3

According to the table above, the most frequent communication strategy used by Azeri 2 participant are ‘umming and erring’ and pause.’ This is because of the difficulties of language production in Turkish that may require more time for mental speech planning and because of idiolectal issues. As a speaker using back-channeling and back-channeling: confirmation signals shows the participant’s active role as a hearer to provide assurance for her addressees.

From language choice viewpoint, it was clear from the data that Azeri 2 participant preferred to use English as the language she could express herself well in. However, due to the requirements of her addressees, she had to switch into Turkish, a language she was newly learning. Her Azeri linguistic background provides an advantage in this since she could rely on Azeri, although a language not as active, to manage her communication in Turkish. As a result, beside English, using Turkish, more or less, are obvious in all communication acts of Azeri 2 participant.

4.6. Group Analysis

After going through individual analysis of the participants in five constellations, in this section participants will be analyzed in their two groups: Indo-European and Turkic. This analysis will be from CS and language choice strategies point of view.

4.6.1. Indo-European Group

Table 4.75 below summarizes all the CS used by the five Indo-European participants in in order of frequency of occurrence.

Table 4.75 Summary of all CS used by the five Indo-European participants

	No.	Communication strategies	US	Dutch	Polish	German	French	Total
Speaker-based	1	Umming and erring	21	23	93	16	21	174
	2	Pause	17	2	4	7	3	33
	3	Form self-repair	5	7	9	1	7	29
	4	Other-repetition	2	7	-	1	3	13
	5	Self-rephrase	4	3	2	-	-	9
	6	Use of all-purpose word	1	1	-	5	1	8
	7	Circumlocution	1	2	2	3	-	8
	8	Content self-repair	-	3	2	1	-	6
	9	Asking for confirmation	1	2	1	-	1	5
	10	Response: rephrase	1	2	-	1	1	5
	11	Shorter utterance length	3	-	-	2	-	5
	12	Response: confirmation	1	-	2	2	-	5
	13	Use of high-frequency items	2	-	-	2	-	4
	14	Uninverted question	1	2	-	1	-	4
	15	Lengthened sound	2	-	1	-	1	4
	16	Slow speech rate	3	-	-	-	-	3
	17	Separate word/phrase articulation	3	-	-	-	-	3
	18	More yes/no questions	3	-	-	-	-	3
	19	More careful pronunciation	3	-	-	-	-	3
	20	Response: self-repetition	1	-	-	-	2	3
	21	Language choice marker	2	-	-	-	-	2
	22	Other-repetition: question	1	1	-	-	-	2
	23	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	-	1	-	1	-	2
	24	Miming	1	-	-	-	-	1
	25	Expanding	1	-	-	-	-	1
	26	Form self-repair: BrE/AmE	1	-	-	-	-	1
	27	Expressing non-understanding	1	-	-	-	-	1
	28	Response: content repair	1	-	-	-	-	1
	29	self-repetition	1	-	-	-	-	1
	30	Asking for clarification: meaning	-	2	-	-	1	1
	31	Use of or-choice questions	-	1	-	-	-	1
	32	Guessing	-	-	-	1	-	1
	33	Content restructuring	-	-	-	-	1	1
	34	Interpretive summary	-	-	-	-	1	1

Table 4.75 Continued

	No.	Communication strategies	US	Dutch	Polish	German	French	Total
Hearer-based	35	Back-channeling	67	50	67	100	30	314
	36	Back-channeling: confirmation	5	-	2	3	-	10

According to the table above Indo-European participants needed to use ‘umming and erring’ and ‘pause’ as the most frequent strategies. This is, in addition to idiolectal characteristics of participants, a matter of constellations they found themselves in. That is, getting into communication with some of the interlocutors that were not fluent in English caused participants to make changes in their speech plans and adapt to the proficiency level of their addressees. This delay was filled with nonlexicalized and silent items to gain time for the alternative plans.

After ‘ummings and errings’ and ‘pauses’ three types of CS are seen as more frequently used at the top of the table. First, there are CS that are used by the participants to express the message, in other words as in ‘self-rephrase’, ‘circumlocution’, etc. second, there are CS that are used by the participants to check their own understanding as in ‘other-repetition’ and ‘asking for confirmation.’ Third there are CS that are used by the participants to simplify the message to make understanding easier as in ‘shorter utterance length’, ‘use of all-purpose words’, ‘uninverted question’, etc.

From a language choice perspective the main mode preferred by the Indo-European participants was ELF. Table 4.76 below indicates language choice strategy of the five Indo-European participants in the five constellations they found themselves in.

Table 4.76 Language choice strategy of the five Indo-European participants

	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Friend
US participant	ELF CSW	ELF CSW TR RM	ELF	ELF	ELF
Dutch participant	ELF	ELF	ELF	ELF	ELF
Polish participant	ELF TR RM TR HELLO	ELF	ELF	ELF	ELF
German participant	ELF	ELF	ELF	ELF	ELF
French participant	ELF	ELF TR HELLO	ELF	ELF	ELF

As is clear from the table, except for two cases of CSW between English and Turkish, Two cases of receptive understanding of Turkish and two cases saying hello in Turkish, ELF has been favored by the Indo-European participants for all the communication acts in different constellations.

4.6.2. Turkic Group

Table 4.77 below summarizes all the CS used by the four Turkic participants in in order of frequency of occurrence.

Table 4.77 Summary of all CS used by the four Turkic participants

	No.	Communication strategies	Kazakh	Azeri 1	Kyrgyz	Azeri 2	Total
Speaker-based	1	Umiming and erring	14	14	54	74	156
	2	Pause	5	3	25	7	40
	3	Other-repetition	4	9	4	-	17
	4	Form self-repair	3	8	3	3	17
	5	Response: confirmation	7	3	1	2	13
	6	Content self-repair	4	1	3	3	11
	7	Asking for confirmation	3	2	-	-	5
	8	Asking for clarification: meaning	2	1	1	1	5
	9	Circumlocution	4	-	-	-	4
	10	Lengthened sound	4	-	-	-	4
	11	Response: self-repetition	2	1	1	-	4
	12	Interpretive summary	1	1	1	-	3
	13	Separate word/phrase articulation	2	-	-	-	2
	14	Separate syllable articulation	2	-	-	-	2
	15	Shorter utterance length	2	-	-	-	2
	16	More careful pronunciation	2	-	-	-	2
	17	Slow speech rate	2	-	-	-	2
	18	Asking for repetition	1	-	-	1	2
	19	Self-repetition in interlocutor's L1	1	1	-	-	2
	20	Self-repetition	-	2	-	-	2
	21	Language choice marker	-	-	1	1	2
	22	Miming	-	-	1	1	2
	23	Expressing non-understanding	1	-	-	1	2
	24	Mentioning the antecedent of proform	-	-	2	-	2
	25	Self-rephrase in interlocutor's L1	-	1	-	-	1
	26	Response: self-repetition in interlocutor's L1	1	-	-	-	1
	27	Response: rephrase in interlocutor's L1	1	-	-	-	1
	28	Use of high-frequency items	1	-	-	-	1
	29	Asking for slower speech rate	1	-	-	-	1
	30	Content restructuring	-	-	1	-	1
	31	Comprehension check	-	-	-	1	1

Table 4.77 Continued

	No.	Communication strategies	Kazakh	Azeri 1	Kyrgyz	Azeri 2	Total
Hearer-based	32	Back-channeling	59	53	45	29	186
	33	Back-channeling: confirmation	5	4	3	3	15

The table above indicates a similar tendency of Turkish participants to the Indo-European participants. At the top of the table there are ‘umming and erring’ and ‘pause’ strategies and the same three categories of CS explained for the Indo-European participants is evident for Turkic participants as well. However, for language choice strategies the preferences are totally different. Use of Turkish both productively and receptively are far more used by the Turkic participants. Table 4.78 below summarizes the modes of multilingual communication for Turkic participants.

Table 4.78 Language choice strategy of the four Turkic participants

	Post office	Pharmacy	ICO office	Instructor	Friend
Kazakh participant	ELF CSW TR RM	ELF CSW TR RM	ELF CSW TR RM	ELF	ELF TR RM
Azeri 1 participant	AZ AZ-TR CSW	ELF AZ-EN CSW TR RM	AZ-TR CSW TR RM	ELF	ELF
Kyrgyz participant	TR	TR CSW	CSW EN RM	ELF CSW	TR
Azeri 2 participant	ELF AZ-TR CSW	CSW	AZ-TR CSW	ELF TR GREET	ELF TR GREET

As is clear from the table above, Turkish is used one way or another, in almost all the constellations. There are three cases of mere use of ELF. In all the rest Turkish is used from, as little as, a greeting to, as much as, a whole discourse. Beside Turkish and English, Azeri has also played a well important role for both Azeri participants.

4.7. Group Comparison

CS are linguistic means used by the individuals to both facilitate mutual intelligibility of the interactants and to smoothen the flow of communication. These strategies are used either proactively, to take precautions for the probable impediments in the flow of communication or reactively, to compensate for a lack of mutual understanding. In any case, they are used to better the quality of communication. To fulfill this end participants in both groups have done their best by applying different CS.

One of the strategies in communication is selecting the proper language to communicate messages. This strategy is the most primary basic measure in creating a linguistic channel for sending and receiving messages. Based on various reasons, discussed in the next chapter, Indo-European participants had a great tendency to use English in all constellations as the code of communication. Their use of Turkish, as the omni-present national language and the native language of all their addressees, was limited to occasional understanding of some term, few CSW instances and initiating the conversation with a Turkish hello. However, the preferences of Turkic participants were totally different. They had Turkish as a linguistic choice as helpful as English to be used in all constellations. The range of using Turkish could vary from an initial greeting to CSW with English to sole use as the only linguistic code of communication. Besides, the role Azeri played, as the most genetically proximate language to Turkish, for the two Azeri participants need not be overlooked.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

In this final chapter, first, a summary of the study will be reviewed. Then a discussion of the results of the study will be presented. Implications and limitations of the study and suggestions for further study will come last.

5.2. Summary of the Study

As individuals with a linguistic repertoire of more than one language come together for a common purpose of communication, their language choice is a matter of strategic decision. That is, individuals need to consider all the context-specific variables to come to an agreement about what language to use in that particular constellation. Furthermore, after choosing the common language, in cases where mutual intelligibility is not guaranteed, a second set of strategies comes into play. These are communication strategies (CS) used to compensate for mutual understanding impediments and to promote the quality of communication.

The aim of this study is to investigate the language choice and communication strategies of international students in METU. Based on the purpose of the study and the fact that two languages (Turkish and English) play key roles on the METU campus, five research questions were raised which were about the language choice strategies international students opt for in different constellations and the reasons for the choices, the differences between Turkic and Indo-European language background students in their language choice strategies, the CS students choose in different constellations and the reasons for these, the differences between Turkic and Indo-

European language background students in their use of CS and finally, differences in communication act accomplishment between participants of various linguistic background.

A total of nine participants, five from the Indo-European and the remaining four from the Turkic language group were selected according to convenience sampling strategies. All the participants were new-comers to METU, Turkey and did not have any prior contact with Turkish. Four tools were used to collect data: language background questionnaire, communication act voice recording, post interview and stimulated recall. The five communication acts were: post office, pharmacy, Registrar's / ICO office, instructor and Turkish friend.

The oral data were transcribed using the EXMARaLDA program. Transcriptions of the participants were analyzed based on Functional Pragmatics. Instances of language choice and communication strategies in each and every communication act constellation was identified and categorized. Also, a general view of the participant's performance was plotted. The analyses were made richer and deeper by the data from the stimulated recall of the participants. At a macro level, performance of the participants in their respective groups was analyzed individually and then compared and contrasted in groups.

The research questions raised in this study included three main domains. They were with regard to CS, language choice strategies and task accomplishment. In this section these three domains are reviewed and discussed separately.

5.2.1. Language Choice Strategies

The issue of language choice strategy, i.e. the languages which were preferred by the participants, can be viewed from three aspects. In the first place, from a linguistic view the languages that played roles in the communication acts can be determined. This view can provide answer to the first research question which is:

1.1. What language choice strategies do international students on METU campus choose based on the verbal repertoire available to them and their assessment of the communicative constellation they find themselves in? And why?

Second, from language background viewpoint, a general categorization can be made on the similarities and differences between the participants from the Indo-European and the Turkic groups in their language choice. This can reveal the answer for the second research question which is:

1.2. How do participants with Turkic and Indo-European linguistic backgrounds differ in their language choice strategies?

Also, from constellation viewpoint, the language choice preferences of participants in different communication acts can be discussed.

5.2.1.1. Language Choice Strategies: Linguistic View

This section provides answer to the first research question. Based on the verbal repertoire available to them and their assessment of the communicative constellation they have found themselves in, instances of a sum of four languages were observed to productively be used by the nine participants. It is worth pointing out that, according to Bilingual Interaction Activation Model (BIA) (Dijkstra, 2005) mentally there can be no differentiation among the languages available in one linguistic repertoire. As discussed in literature review, all languages in different levels of activation are active in the mind of the multilingual language users. However, productive use of those languages is what can be observed and are focused in this part. These languages are discussed in their rate of use in the following.

The first mostly used language among the participants was English. English as the worldwide lingua franca was used as the unmarked default language of communication in almost all communication acts. In fact, it was only the Kyrgyz participant who did not use any English in two of her communication acts in the post office and with her Turkish friend. As specified in the data analysis, the Kyrgyz participant had personal reasons to do so: she wanted to seize the opportunity to learn more Turkish in her limited time as an exchange student in Turkey. All the participants in all communication act constellations used English in different modes. They have whether solely used English, code switched with Turkish or even Azeri, or had receptive English understanding. It is worth pointing out that more than half

of the communication acts were in English only, most of which being uttered by the Indo-European group.

The second mostly used language was Turkish. As the national language of Turkey and the native language of all the addressees of all the participants, it was used in various forms. The use of Turkish by the participants ranges from two cases of using ‘merhaba’ (hello) to open conversations in Turkish to CSW in Turkish-English and Turkish-Azeri to receptive understanding of Turkish to use Turkish as the sole language of communication. This last behavior typically belongs to the Turkic group.

Two Azeri participants from the Turkic group used their native language instead of Turkish in some occasions of need. As these participants, like all the others, did not have a fluent command of Turkish since they did not have prior contact to Turkish and were new to Turkey, they could not have a command of productive Turkish to express themselves in. However, they subconsciously were aware of the proximity between their native language of Azeri and Turkish and used this advantage quite frequently in their communication. That is, they were not consciously aware of their having knowledge of Turkish so in their language background questionnaire, they did not include Turkish as a language they had a command of, hence subconscious. Constant mental evaluation of the constellation and checking available linguistic repertoire let them use this language in times of need. Also evident in the oral data from the Azeri participants were Azeri language-specific back-channeling signals that they used occasionally in communication acts.

Like the Azeri participants, the Kyrgyz participant had also come to a subconscious awareness of the closeness between Turkish and her native language (although not as much as Azeri) when she tried to use Kyrgyz word ‘damak’ (throat) in the place of Turkish word ‘boğaz’ (throat). But her attempt did not work since the Kyrgyz word ‘damak’ (throat) and the Turkish word ‘damak’ (palate) are false cognates. Nevertheless, her effort to take the advantage of her language background was worthwhile linguistically. It is worth noting that due to the assurance that genetical proximity provides for the language users, false cognates are typical communication problems in receptive multilingual communication.

5.2.1.2. Language Choice Strategies: Language Background View

This section provides answer for the second research question. Language choice strategies of participants can be looked upon participant-specific language background view. As there were participants from two language groups in this study, the effects of language background on the differences of language use were a matter of inquiry. The oral data gives a clear answer to this inquiry.

The data from the Indo-European group indicated that only English was used as the major language of communication in all the five constellations. In a more detailed view, two participants used solely English in the five constellations. One of the participants used only Turkish greeting word ‘merhaba’ (hello) in the pharmacy. Another participant used Turkish greeting ‘merhaba’ (hello) in the post office along with a case of receptive understanding of Turkish numbers. This participant was able to understand Turkish ‘on beş’ (fifteen) in the post office. The only participant who could make some CSW between English and Turkish was the US participant. This participant was able to utter some sentences in Turkish in the post office and in the pharmacy. So all in all, the communication acts of Indo-European participants were ELF-oriented.

The picture for the Turkic group is different. They could make benefit of their language background to have an inclination to use Turkish more beside English. In fact, except for three communication acts the rest had some trends of Turkish. The Kyrgyz participant had the most use of Turkish. She either used Turkish or CSW between English and Turkish in all communication acts. The Kazakh participant was not able to use Turkish fluently but her receptive Turkish was at work in all except one constellations. She also had instances of CSW between English and Turkish. The data from the Azeri participants were different. Besides English, they used Turkish receptively. Furthermore, they used an Azeri-Turkish mix as CSW in their communication as well.

In sum, Indo-European participants used only English as the common language of communication in the five constellations. Since their language backgrounds were not genetically related to the native language background of their interactants, they were not able to take advantage of Turkish except for an instance of receptive

Turkish understanding of numbers, Turkish initiation of communication in a Turkish greeting and five instances of CSW to Turkish with the US participant. On the other hand, even though participants from the Turkic group did not have a fluent and productive command of Turkish, they could benefit from their language background. Beside English, they could understand Turkish receptively, utter greetings in Turkish, make CSW between Turkish and English or Azeri or use Turkish solely, although unfluently and rarely.

5.2.1.3. Language Choice Strategies: Constellation View

From language choice perspective, the five constellations of this study can be divided into three groups. In the first group are the post office and pharmacy. These constellations demanded Turkish-oriented communication since they were non-academic public places and the addressees tended to use Turkish as the default language. This is why, beside ELF, Indo-European participants used CSW to Turkish and Turkish greetings in these constellations. Also, the Turkic participants showed a tendency to use Turkish more than English in various modes in these constellations. There is no sole use of English among the Turkic participants and CSW between English and Azeri or Turkish was observed.

The second group is the ICO/Registrar's office. Exchange students had to go to the ICO office and regular students go to the Registrar's office. All the Indo-European participants went to the ICO office and ELF appeared to be the only mode of multilingual communication there. The Kyrgyz participant from the Turkic group was also an exchange student so she went to the ICO office. Her language of preference was Turkish, for the reasons referred to above, with occasional switches to English. Her addressee, the ICO office clerk, however, used only English. This great tendency to use English is most probably due to an ingrained habit within the ICO office. This office deals with students who are international and their duration of stay in Turkey is usually too short to gain a command of productive Turkish and the clerks in the ICO office are therefore accustomed to use ELF with the international students. On the other hand, the three Turkic participants who went to the Registrar's office were communicating with clerks who had a poor command of English.

Therefore, these participants had to change their preferences from English to Turkish, Azeri or a mix of them, or at least to use English-Turkish/Azeri CSW as the mode of communication. Besides, they all received responses to their questions in Turkish which would have acted as a prompt to enhance using Turkish in their communications. This situation demonstrated the participants' Turkish receptive understanding.

The third group of communication act constellations is a talk with an instructor and a chat with a Turkish friend. As these constellations were within an English-medium university and academic topics were being discussed, English was the language which was mainly used. All the five Indo-European participants used only English in these tasks. The two Azeri participants from the Turkic group also communicated in English. The Kazakh participant had receptive Turkish when speaking to her Turkish friends but used English productively. It was only the Kyrgyz participant who preferred Turkish- English CSW in her talk with her instructor and Turkish with her Turkish friend. In her talk with an instructor, she used a 'language choice marker' strategy to ask the instructor whether she could switch to Turkish. This indicates that the unmarked language of the instructor talk was English and that the Kyrgyz participant was aware of this since she asked her instructor for permission to switch to the marked language of Turkish for that constellation.

5.2.2. Communication Strategies

Individuals, whether monolingual or multilingual make use of CS in times of need to enrich the efficiency of communication and also to guarantee mutual understanding. CS are used to fulfill specific contextual necessities that rise in that specific moment during communication. That is, in the first place, CS are used when there is need for them to come up with a solution for the communicative problem; also, using CS is specifically context-bound. It means that using any particular communication strategy depends on the constellation: the interactants, their mental state, their power status, their world knowledge, their linguistic background, the language/s being used actively, the topic, the place, etc. As a result, CS used by any

particular individual in any particular constellation might or might not be repeated in other constellations by that individual.

Participants of this study in their communication act efforts have also resorted to CS to solve their communicative issues and to achieve accomplishment in completing their tasks by providing answers to the questions they were assigned. In general, these CS can be examined from three perspectives: the roles of participants, the functions of the CS and linguistic form used by the participants. The second perspective reveals the answer for the third research question which was:

2.1. What communication strategies do participants use to overcome interpersonal and intercultural (non)understandings?

The third perspective reveals the answer to the fourth research question which was

2.2. How do differences in participants' linguistic background affect their approach in using communicative strategies to overcome understanding problems?

5.2.2.1. Communication Strategies: Role Viewpoint

From Functional Pragmatics viewpoint, through the whole communication the interactants play an active role, whether as a speaker or as a hearer. This issue gains even more importance when the communication is established on linguistic, cultural and interpersonal uncommon ground. That is, when individuals who do not share the same linguistic, cultural and interpersonal background come together for communication, interactants' understanding cannot be taken for granted. In every point there must be an understanding assurance from the hearer side for the communication to unfold unproblematically. This was the case with the participants in this study. Since they were after information to gain and complete their communication act task, they needed to play their hearer role even more actively.

With regard to applying CS, the role of participants as a hearer is observed in the collected oral data through using back-channeling signals. These were verbal and nonverbal utterances that were indicating the hearer's understanding his/her interlocutor and that the speaker can carry on his/her speech. These strategies were

used commonly by participants from both linguistic groups. Two Azeri participants at times used their language-specific back-channeling signals, though.

One differentiation was also made between the signals made for mere indication of understanding and signals that were used by the participants to confirm what their interactants had just uttered. In the latter type the aim was more to agree with the speaker on her/his last utterance/s. These signals were labeled differently in data analysis as ‘back-channeling: confirmation.’

The role participants played as speakers is discussed from various aspects in the following sections.

5.2.2.2. Communication Strategies: Functional Viewpoint

At a macro level, CS are plans to provide solutions for problems of mutual understanding and to promote efficacy of communication. This is the general view toward CS. At a micro level, each of the CS is used for a specific purpose. That is, according to the circumstances of the communication different CS are applied to normalize the flow of communication. So each communication strategy pursues an aim when used. The functions of CS depend on the constellation they are used in. That is, the same communication strategy may be used for diverse purposes in different constellations.

The CS used by the participants of the study along with their definitions, functions and frequencies were listed in data analysis. A total of forty four CS were identified and were used by the nine participants. From the functional perspective, these CS can roughly be grouped into five categories: simplifying form, elaborating content, promoting interlocutor understanding, self-understanding and fillers. This categorization can provide answer for the third research question.

The first group of CS is those that were used to simplify the form of the message to facilitate the understanding of the interlocutor. They were particularly used by participants when they were using English. Since in some communication acts, the addressees of the participants were those who did not have a high-level command of English, these participants had to make changes in the form of their messages to

make it easier for those low-proficiency interlocutors to decode the message. These strategies were:

1. Shorter utterance length
2. Uninverted question
3. Use of high frequency items
4. Slow speech rate
5. More careful pronunciation
6. Use of or-choice questions
7. More yes/no questions
8. Use of all-purpose words
9. Separate word / phrase articulation
10. Separate syllable articulation
11. Mentioning the antecedent of proform

While the first nine strategies are those that characterize foreigner talk, the final two were first identified in this study. According to the literature of foreigner talk (Ferguson, 1971; Zuengler, 1991), native speakers may articulate their utterances in separate words or phrases to help nonnative language user's understanding, but the Kazakh participant used this strategy at a finer level to pronounce the name of her country and another word syllable by syllable to simplify decoding of the words for her addressees. Also, not to bewilder their addressees with pronouns, there were cases the participants mentioned the antecedent of the proforms right after they used the proforms as a strategy to make recognizing the deictic references straightforward.

The second group of CS used by the participants in this study was aimed at elaborating the content. These strategies had the same function of facilitating understanding of the addressee, yet by not manipulating the form but by making the content fertile for understanding. These strategies were:

1. Circumlocution
2. Expanding
3. Self-rephrase
4. Response: self-rephrase
5. Self-rephrase in interlocutor's L1

6. Response: self-rephrase in interlocutor's L1
7. Self-repetition
8. Response: self-repetition
9. Self-repletion in interlocutor's L1
10. Response: self-repetition in interlocutor's L1

These strategies expanded the content whether by putting the message in other words or by repeating the same trigger. That is, in some occasions participants preferred to change the form of the message (with the content untouched) by rephrasing, adding some description, examples, etc. to the message, or to put the content in a larger context. At other times, they preferred to repeat the same utterance partially or completely in case the problem in addressee's understanding was due to hearing. Participants from the Turkic group did the same procedures in their addressees' Turkish L1 to enhance understanding even more. Furthermore, these strategies were applied by the participants whether proactively or reactively. That is, sometimes participants recognized and predicted their addressees' problems in understanding and took precautions to resolve them in advance. In other cases, they provided the communicative remedies as a response to their addressees' understanding problems.

The third set of CS is those that were applied by the participants to promote understanding of their addressees. These strategies were additional resources to help addressees in their process of understanding. They were:

1. Response: confirmation
2. Form self-repair
3. Form self-repair: BrE/AmE
4. Content self-repair
5. Response: content repair
6. Comprehensions check
7. Miming

Making repairs to the form and content of the messages were regular CS applied by the participants to perfect the messages to promote understanding. Also, as the

most efficient resource for verifying accurate understanding, participants were frequently referred to by their addressees to confirm their understanding. This was done by the addressees' repeating the previous utterance of the participants, partially or completely, at times in their own words and in their own preferred languages, for the participants to attest their understanding. Also, in some cases it was the participants who checked the understanding of their addressees by asking comprehension-check questions. As the last strategy of this category, miming was identified in the oral data as well. There were a total of three cases that could be spotted in the data. Since to protect the naturalness of the data, the communication acts were just voice recorded, the instances of miming could be identified with clues that spoken data provided. If the data could be collected through video-recording, identifying more cases was very probable.

These three sets of strategies discussed above, were measures taken by the participants to promote understanding level of their interlocutors' through manipulating form and content of the messages. However, the participants, as the parties on the other end of the line of communication, need to take measures for their understanding as well for mutual intelligibility, as the base stone of communication, to be realized. This was achieved through the fourth set of CS: self-understanding. These strategies were:

1. Asking for confirmation
2. Other-repetition
3. Other-repetition: question
4. Interpretive summary
5. Asking for repetition
6. Asking for clarification: meaning
7. Asking for slower speech rate
8. Guessing
9. Expressing non-understanding

All in all these strategies were tools used by the participants to guarantee their own understanding. Yet, the source of the message was the other party and participants needed to refer to their interlocutors to guarantee their understanding.

Among these strategies some were used to check own-understanding. They were realized by repeating the interlocutor's utterance, partially or completely, sometimes in the interlocutors' own words, and requiring the interlocutors' approval to assure correct understanding. Some other strategies were precautionary measures used to pinpoint the speaker's utterances to the receptive understanding level of the hearer to promote the hearer's understanding.

The fifth set of strategies was those that were used to gain time. They were whether silent or nonlexicalized verbal gaps in the speech flow of the participants used to gain time to (re)design speech plan or linguistic structure while keeping the channel open and holding the floor. These strategies were:

1. Umiming and erring
2. Pause
3. Lengthened sound

These strategies were frequently used by all participants. The reason may lie in the fact that when one needs to communicate with an interlocutor who is not an advanced level language user and with whom one does not share common background linguistically, culturally and interpersonally, there is more time needed to plan the speech for this markedly different communication. Apart from a certain degree of idiolectal use of ummings and errings, these strategies were mechanisms applied by participants to project the form and the content proper to the context and especially to the addressee.

There was also 'language choice marker' used by the participants with the function of providing agreement upon the language to use in the communication. This strategy is first identified to be used in this study.

5.2.2.3. Communication Strategies: Language Choice View

As the participants who used these strategies were roughly from two language background groups, these CS can be looked upon from a linguistic view as well. This view provides answer for the fourth research question. Although almost all CS are used commonly participants from both groups, two differences catches the eye.

The first and most important difference between the Indo-European and the Turkic participants in applying CS lies in the use of languages. In the Indo-European group all the CS were in English. That is, except for few cases, as discussed before, the major language used in communication was English for all of the participants of this group; consequently, the CS utilized were also in the same language. However, the picture is totally different for the Turkic group. When interacting in both English and Turkish, the Turkic participants not only applied CS in the respective language, but also these participants in an English-medium communication had some CS which were applied through using Turkish. That is, in some communication acts that English was spoken, Turkic participants applied CS that were in Turkish. These CS were:

1. Self-repetition in interlocutor's L1
2. Self-rephrase in interlocutor's L1
3. Response: self-repetition in interlocutor's L1
4. Response: rephrase in interlocutor's L1

These strategies were all, as the titles show, in the Turkic participants' addressees' L1, i.e. Turkish. The Indo-European participants have also used self-repetition and self-rephrase to provide their addressees with clues to ease the load of understanding, but the difference lies in the language this was done in. Turkic participants by applying these CS combined two resources to maximize their facilitative role in their addressees' understanding. They have both used CS of 'expanding content' and have done it in Turkish to eliminate any chance of partial, mis- or non-understanding due to language and linguistic barriers. These strategies were special to Turkic participants since they possessed the fertile language background for the minimum productive commands of Turkish to develop.

The second difference is also about the 'expanding content' category of CS. Among the few CS that were solely used by the Indo-European group were 'self-rephrase', 'response: rephrase' and 'expanding.' These CS were not used by the Turkic group at all. The reason might lie in the language choice preferences of the Turkic participants. In the first place, the Turkic participants used Turkish more in their communication. As a result, there was left no points to be explained for their

addressees as they could have the maximum understanding in their native language. Moreover, as the Turkic participants had Turkish, as the native language of all their addressees, to be used beside English, they could expand the content of their message through direct switch to Turkish, the language their addressees could have the maximum understanding. Also, whenever they needed CS of self-repetition and self-rephrase, they could do it in Turkish, as they have done so and discussed above.

5.2.3. Task Accomplishment

As a part of the research design, it was important to find out whether all the participants from both groups could finish their missions in each and every communication act by asking all the questions given to them by the researcher and providing answers for them. So the fifth and last research question was with regard to successful accomplishment of communication acts. The questions was:

3. Do participants with different linguistic background differ in communication act accomplishments?

Task accomplishment carried importance from the communicative point of view, since if a participant could not manage the communication s/he was engaged in, there could occur communication breakdown which finally could lead to questions remaining unanswered, hence mission fail. Communication breakdown could have been the case when participants used ‘let-it-pass’ strategy as a hearer and feign to understand their interactants by signaling understanding through back-channeling. However, according to the analysis of oral data, mutual intelligibility was provided by the interactants for all the communication acts and answers for all the questions were provided by the participants indicating that they did not ‘let-it-pass’ understanding problems.

5.3. Discussion of the Results

The picture of multilingual behavior of the participants of the study was depicted above. This section deals with a discussion of the results in more depth. Based on the results of the study four lines of discussion can be made: the effects of language

background on multilingual performance, the place of ELF in the multilingual communication, linguistic proximity and an innovative view to CS.

5.3.1. Language Background in Multilingual Communication

A basic issue in the literature of multilingualism is concerned with who should be called a bilingual or multilingual person. Generally speaking, “there is no agreed-upon definition of bilingualism among researchers” (Butler & Hakuta, 2006, p. 114). Researchers have approached the issue of competence in more than one language from different perspectives. Earlier definitions generally involved acquisition of formal rules of language (ibid.) and tended to restrict bilingualism to equal mastery of two languages (Edwards, 2006). Taking varied psycholinguistic, psychomotor, sociolinguistic, individual and other differences into consideration, on the other end of the spectrum, modern treatments admit that any definition to be meaningful needs to take into account the context and the purpose (Edwards, 2006), hence allowed for much variation. With this regard, Butler and Hakuta (2006) state that in the recent definitions there is a shift of focus among researchers onto communicative skills and define bilinguals as “people who obtain communicative skills, with various degrees of proficiency, in order to interact with speakers of one or more languages in a given society” (p. 115). This communicative view towards defining multilingualism is the view taken in this study. In the same line the oral data from the study indicated that multilingual communication is the creative use of all verbal resources (i.e. languages) available to the interactants in communication.

Parallel to the communicative-based definition of multilingualism, instances of the hybrid use of multiple languages was clearly observed in this study. For example two Indo-European participants started their conversations with their Turkish addressees with a Turkish greeting. As was clear from their stimulated recall, this strategy was beyond a mere linguistic choice and included other sociolinguistic and interpersonal issues of rapport and respect. Also, the US participant explained her use of some Turkish utterances, the best she could do with her Turkish knowledge, in the post office and pharmacy as a matter of social courtesy to the native speakers of Turkish.

Furthermore, the wholistic (Grosjean 1992) view toward multilingualism was evident in this study. According to this view people who have commands of more than one language develop competencies to the extent needed by the environment (ibid.). Turkic participants used their potential Turkish competence to the extent required by the communicative circumstances they were engaged in. For example, the Kazakh participant who could not use Turkish productively take the advantage of her receptive knowledge of Turkish well by getting into Turkish-English receptive multilingual communication with the clerk in the post office, pharmacy and Registrar's office. Probably the most creative use of linguistic repertoire can be said to belong to the Azeri participants. They enjoyed the linguistic advantage of genetical proximity. That is, they could transfer linguistic forms from their native language to Turkish and form command of Turkish, both receptively and productively, in a shorter period than the other participants. They could not have gained a fluent command in Turkish, though. Also, their pronunciation was not yet tuned to Turkish and they could not draw a clear-cut border between Turkish and Azeri. (Due to far too excessive proximity this line would all remain fade.) This linguistic status gave rise to rely on English as the safest language. Yet, there was a Turkish-Azeri mix repertoire they could resort in emergencies when their addressees' first choice was not English. In such occasions, which was not rare: post office, pharmacy and Registrar's office, these Azeri participants used two CSW combinations productively and Turkish receptively. They used Turkish-Azeri most of the time to communicate with their only-Turkish participants but there were instances of Azeri-English CSW combination as well. And they used their Azeri-Turkish receptive knowledge to decode their Turkish interactants. (This point highlights the significance genetical proximity which will be discussed in brief in the following.)

These instances are evidence for full mental and cognitive involvement of participants in communication (House & Rehbein, 2004). That is, That is, multilingual language users do not have separate competencies for each and every language; on the contrary, knowledge of different languages in the mind of multilinguals constructs a whole as the language competence. Furthermore, when in communication, it is not only language knowledge that makes MLC feasible for

interactants; all mental, linguistic, cognitive, and interactional competencies come into play.

In sum it can be concluded that in this modern world where geographical borders are faded by international and worldwide business, education, politics, tourism, media, and internet, multilingualism has become as the default norm and is inevitable. Individuals based on linguistic, sociolinguistic and interpersonal issues, as in topic of the communication, addressee, addressee's linguistic repertoire(s), social norms, identity, and so on, choose one or more languages in each specific constellation (whether productively, receptively, or both). That is, any minute change in the constellation, even in the same interaction, can lead to a change in the language/s being used. And that there can sometimes be no clear-cut boundaries among the modes in the interaction. This is natural since multilinguals are so creative in exploiting all the resources available to accomplish their communicative goals. So beyond all the typifications on bilingualism, an individual who is able to use more than one language collectively and productively and/or receptively, for the purpose of fulfilling his/her authentic real-world socio-communicative needs for mutual understanding is called a multilingual. In other words, multilingualism is the regular use of two (or more) languages, and multilingual are those people who need and use two (or more) languages in their everyday life (Grosjean, 1992).

5.3.2. English as a Lingua Franca in Multilingual Communication

The status of English has changed from a language belonging to its native speakers with other nonnative speakers being counted as second-class users of the language. Beneke (1991) estimates that approximately 80 percent of verbal exchanges in which English is used as a second or foreign language do not involve any native speakers of English. This means that English has become the common language of all the individuals who do not share any other common means of communication. Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey (2011) sum up the issue of ELF by stating that “the whole point about ELF is that it is a multilingual activity involving speakers who have come together from a range of different geographical regions” (p. 285).

In line with worldwide popularity of ELF as the international common unmarked language of communication among people who do not know each other, the results of this study also indicated that the default language that nine participants from eight different geographical regions were using in the ninth geographical region of METU, Turkey as the common means of communication to fulfill their communicative needs was ELF. This great tendency to English was not far from expectations for the Indo-European group. This group of participants had no contact with Turkish and their language background of all these participants did not have any association with Turkish genetically or culturally. So, English was their inevitable means of communication in the English-medium university that they had chosen to spend a semester. The Turkic participants had an advantage over Indo-European participants. They are genetically and, in different degrees, culturally ascribed to Turkish and, as the data indicated, benefited from this advantage. However, the general view shows that ELF had the main role in Turkic group as well. The delicate point about the default language that Turkic participants had in mind for each communication act lies in the language they initiated each communication act with. The Kazakh participants initiated all her communication in English and did not switch to Turkish until necessary. While Azeri 1 participant did his communication in mainly Azeri-Turkish CSW in the Registrar's office and pharmacy, in both of these constellations he initiated his conversation in English and changed his mode of multilingual communication upon his addressees' declaring not understanding or speaking English. The same is true for Azeri 2 participant in the post office and the Registrar's office. The Kyrgyz participant's marked insistence on using Turkish in all constellations did not detain her use of ELF. Even though she did not initiate any communication in English, for the reasons discussed before, her CSW into English in three of the communication acts was evident.

The tendency to prefer English even in circumstances other modes can be availed for communication indicates that English has become "the default option" (Hülmbaur, 2011, p. 43) of communication when people are not acquainted with each other.

5.3.3. Genetical Proximity in Multilingual Communication

Genetical relatedness among languages refers to how directly two or more languages trace back to a common source (Zeevaert, 2007). The importance of genetical relatedness of languages is best manifested in receptive multilingual mode of communication (House & Rehbein, 2004). Mutual intelligibility in receptive multilingual mode is partially dependent on genetical proximity of the languages, i.e. languages coming from the same family have a higher chance of being mutually understandable. Besides linguistic closeness social and political status of the two languages and nations also play roles in determination of receptive communication (Ribbert and ten Thije (2007). These two points were the functioning factors in Turkic group participants' greater tendency to get involved in Turkish, and their use of their native languages.

Receptive multilingual mode of communication among Turkic languages was the focus of attention in some studies. In a study Sağın-Şimşek and König (2012) investigated Azerbaijani and Turkish language understanding. The results of the study, which was conducted with a group of 30 Turkish university students, suggested that the intelligibility was not high as estimated in spite of the fact that Azeri and Turkish are classified as closely-related languages of Turkic origin. Azeri-Turkish receptive multilingualism was also the focus of the thesis study conducted by Akkuş (2012). The aim of the study was to find out the contribution of interjections as indicators of understanding. The results indicated asymmetrical relationship between Azerbaijani and Turkish languages caused signals of the instances of miscommunication. Unlike the results of Sağın-Şimşek and König's (2012) and Akkuş (2012) studies, language relatedness played a facilitative role in Azeri-Turkish receptive multilingual communication in the current study. Azeri and Turkish served as languages to establish a successful communication for Azeri and Turkish interactants leading to mutual intelligibility.

In another study Sağın-Şimşek (2014) examined receptive multilingual communication of Turkmen-Turkish in academic counseling sessions. The results of this study indicated that linguistic factors such as morpho-syntactic and lexical similarities between the two languages do not guarantee but facilitate understanding

and that extralinguistic factor of using of institutional keywords in academic counseling sessions activates interlocutors' common institutional knowledge, and as a result the interlocutors' understanding is facilitated. In a paper presented at the 16th International Conference on Turkish Linguistics, Kaffash Khosh (2012) investigated the accommodation in Azeri-Turkmen and Azeri-Kyrgyz Conversations. The results of the study indicated that, with regard to linguistic distance between Azeri and Turkmen versus Azeri and Kyrgyz, in receptive multilingual mode of communication the Azeri speaker used more repair strategies of repeat and reformulation when speaking to the Kyrgyz interactant than when speaking to the Turkmen interactant. In both of these studies linguistic distance was spotted as impeding mutual understanding in RM mode of communication. A similar finding was revealed for the current study as well. Participants with Kazakh and Kyrgyz language backgrounds did not make any attempt to use their native languages productively since their mental evaluation of the distance between Turkish and their Turkic native languages did not warrant receptive understanding of their interactants.

The Turkic group of participants consisted of three language backgrounds: Kazakh, Kyrgyz and Azeri. All the four languages are members of Turkic family of languages. While Kazakh and Kyrgyz languages both belong to Kipchak branch of Turkic family of languages, Azeri and Turkish are both members of Oghuz branch. This genetical distance manifested itself in two ways. In the first place all participants of Turkic group used Turkish far more than the participants of Indo-European group. Turkic participants benefited this linguistic proximity in both language production and language reception. They used knowledge of Turkish to greet, to code-switch, to understand their Turkish interactants receptively and to manage a communication in sole Turkish.

A more detailed probe reveals another aspect of this genetical proximity: intra-group variation. Azeri participants felt linguistic distance so close that they had a successful attempt of using productive Azeri to convey their messages to their Turkish addressees. From genetical point of view, Azeri and Turkish both are members of the same branch of Turkic languages, i.e. Oghuz. This closeness is further reinforced lexically. Apart from the native Turkic vocabulary, Turkish and Azeri share Arabic and Persian components. This three-fold lexical coparcenary

tighter relates the two languages. From socio-cultural point of view sharing the common grounds in religion and other social and cultural and historical values have well affected the intimacy between speakers of these languages.

5.3.4. Communication Strategies: Innovative View

As a new area of research in SLA, CS was first mentioned in early 1970s. A variety of approaches to the concept from 1970s to 1990s has well changed the view toward and the taxonomies listed for it. Selinker (1972) in his classical article on interlanguage introduced the notion of ‘strategies of L2 communication’ for the first time (beside language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning and overgeneralization of target language linguistic material) as she discussed about “processes *central* to second-language learning” (p. 215). The first definition and taxonomy of CS was given by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976). Canale and Swain’s (1980) seminal paper with proposing a new theoretical framework for communicative competence and including strategic competence beside grammatical and sociolinguistic competence was the beginning of a turning point in the study of CS. Later, Canale (1983) published another seminal paper in which he offered the broadest extension of the concept of CS. He proposed that CS involve any attempt to “enhance the effectiveness of communication (e.g., deliberately slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect)” (p.11). Later, it was Dörnyei (1995) and Dörnyei and Scott (1997) who extended the scope of CS to include stalling devices and interactional problem-solving devices to the taxonomy of CS.

In line with increasing importance of ELF, new trends of research are conducted to reveal details of CS in ELF communication. Kaur (2011), for example, in a study investigated raising explicitness by interactional practices in ELF to resolve understanding problems. The participants in the study were twenty two graduate students from thirteen linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The results of the study indicated various ways participants made self-repairs to make their utterances explicit. These self-repair practices include: self-corrections in phonological, lexical, morphological and syntactic level, revision of content or fact, replacing a general

term with a more specific one, inserting a qualifying lexical item and replacing a pronoun with its referent.

In addition, more proficient language users can also have difficult times trying to get their intended meaning through to less proficient language users. This time the source of the problem is not in the sender but the receiver of the message. “This particular linguistic adjustment that NSs [native speakers] make interacting with L2 speakers” (Zuengler, 1991, p. 234) is called FT. Main functions of FT are to promote mutual intelligibility in communication and to teach the target language (Brulhart, 1986). If FT is primarily used to satisfy the first function of increasing the efficacy of communication, it can fulfill the criteria for being counted as a communication strategy.

The two categories we discussed above had some shortcomings to solely comprise the notion of CS we needed for this study. In the first place, for all taxonomies and extensions of CS the strategy users were L2 learners, and in few cases L2 language users who were trying to compensate for their lack of linguistic knowledge through using strategies. In other words, the participants in these studies were low-level L2 learners who are in proficient in the language they are learning and need to convey their intended meaning either to other nonnative speakers of language or to native speakers of language who are trying to come to an understanding of the meaning being tried to be conveyed. Furthermore, FT was by definition a set of strategies native speakers use to simplify, elaborate and regularize (Ellis, 1994) the language to fit for the understanding level of their nonnative interlocutors. Another shortcoming of these categories is related to the role the hearer plays in communication. In the studies, conceptualizations and taxonomies presented in the literature almost all the focus is on the speaker as the entity playing the key role in keeping the communication channel open in spite of all the problems. This viewpoint is evident even in interactional approaches toward the concept of CS. However, communication is in nature created through step by step unfolding of discourse that is a result of speaker’s efforts to convey the intended meaning to the hearer and hearer’s adoption of speaker’s plan (Rehbein & Kameyama, 2003). Therefore, moving one step ahead in the co-construction of discourse in all normal communication requires, as the final phase, hearer’s understanding, i.e.

reconstructing of the message as close as possible to the speaker's intended meaning, hence hearer's importance as the speaker in building the discourse up. In other words, "what really matters from the speaker's perspective is what the audience is required by the speakers to believe" (Kecskes, 2013, p. 1) and at this point, the hearer must play his/her active role of ensuring the speaker that the implied message is received. Bjøge (2010) highlights this point by mentioning that active listening is "a part of an interactive process, where the interlocutors make explicit that they are paying attention and contributing towards common understanding of the topics being debated. This necessity for hearer's confirmation of understanding in each stage of interaction is even more vital when interactants come from various nationalities, cultures, ethnicities, and linguistic and social backgrounds; that is, they lack any common background whether linguistically or sociolinguistically and need to establish the communication on naïve grounds not experienced before.

With bearing in mind the limitations of the scopes of CS and FT and with regard to the participants of this study who were 'language users' (as the general term to include language learners, native and nonnative language speakers regardless of the proficiency level) a new definition for the notion of CS is proposed. Communication strategies are those verbal and nonverbal devices used by language users to resolve the problems in conveying messages, to improve the quality of the apparatus used and finally to provide and enhance mutual intelligibility between the interactants. At the end it must be noted that individual differences were noticeably effective in the choices participants made in the communication acts. Participants with diverse backgrounds evaluated the context in a different ways and adopted different strategies, both in selecting and applying CS and language choice strategies. Though the people they got into contact and the tasks they need to fulfill were almost the same, they developed their own plans and made their own choices. This is a peculiarity of multilingual communication but it is, at the same time, an indication of how unique each multilingual individual is. That is one of the reasons of having a qualitative case study.

5.4. Implications of the Study

The current study was an attempt to investigate the manner in which international students approach communication in multilingual constellations and the ways they manage the complications of mutual understanding. The results of studying communication strategies and language choice strategies of the participants yield three outcomes.

Multilingual behavior of multilingual individuals with diverse language backgrounds vary significantly. That is, individuals' evaluation of the constellation varies from person to person and their taking actions also show differences based on the linguistic tools available to them. So, this study was unique in the view that it explored individual performance of each participant separately and examined the participants comparatively in two groups according to their language background.

From the viewpoint of multilingual communication, the data in this study indicated not only ELF and CSW modes of multilingual communication, but also the Turkic group made sufficient use of receptive multilingual communication as a strategy that best could serve them in their interactions. That is, receptive multilingualism as a mode of multilingual communication could best be spotted in communication acts of Turkic participants

Furthermore, the concept CS was redefined for this study from a general perspective to include all devices to resolve communication problem and to enhance mutual intelligibility. This view was regardless of the individuals' level of proficiency, language background, and their role in the interaction. Also, examining the oral data resulted in a range of CS that were not all referred to in the literature. That is, the study was a bottom up attempt to identify the range of CS used by international students in various constellations thus leading to some unique CS. So this study was a step in deepening and widening the concept of CS in the relevant literature.

In line with comprehensiveness of the notion of CS, it must be noted that this study did not overlook the contributions an interactant could provide as a hearer. The equal importance of interactants as hearers were highlighted not only through the back-channeling signals they provided but also through the assistance they provided in

their responses to various communicative intelligibility needs of their interlocutors. This aspect of interlocutor role in co-constructing the discourse was taken into account in this study to have a more comprehensive picture of interactant contribution to the communication.

In the light of the findings of the study, it seems that although METU is an English-medium university, it is not possible to use English in all contexts. As a result, offering Turkish courses for the international students can facilitate their communication on the campus and in the city. Also, English courses for the personnel who are in contact with international students can help smoothen their flow of communication with international students.

5.5. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for further research

This study was a multiple case study conducted by studying multilingual behavior of nine participants in five constellations of post office, pharmacy, ICO/Registrar's office, instructor talk and Turkish friend talk. Since this study was conducted with nine participants and the constellations oral data collected were limited to five, the results of this study cannot be generalized for all international students' multilingual behavior in all constellations. That is, to gain more comprehensive results about CS and language choice preferences of international students, the range of participants need to include more variety, both numerically and linguistically and their multilingual behavior need to be spotted in more constellations.

Moreover, the oral data were all voice recorded. This kept the researcher from having access to the clues such miming, body language, facial expressions, etc. of both the participants and their addressees. Conducting analysis of video-supported data could reveal more evidences of understanding issues.

In fact this study could be conducted from longitudinal perspective. The current study focused on the CS and language choice strategies of two groups of new-comer students in five constellations. Another study can investigate the modifications participants, from various linguistic backgrounds, make in their pattern of using CS and language choice strategies in different constellations during time. This way, the

enhanced effects of being exposed to the new language and culture can be determined vividly.

Finally it needs to be noted that the researcher was fluent in three languages of English, Turkish, and Azeri. Occurrences of any other languages in the data needed to be checked by a third person fluent in that specific language. This occurred just once in Kyrgyz participant's using a word from her mother tongue that was double checked by both referring to the participant herself and looking up the meaning of the word in a dictionary. Except for this case all the communication acts by all participants were in English, Turkish and Azeri, the languages the researcher had fluent commands of.

In the twenty first century world that the two thirds of the children, according to Crystal's (2003) estimation, grow up in a bilingual environment, studying multilingualism has gained more prominence. This study was a step to provide a brick on the tower of multilingualism. It is hoped that this study could further deepened understandings about linguistic performance of multilingual individuals in communication.

REFERENCES

- Acar, A. (n.d.). *Rektor'un Mesajı*. Retrieved from <http://www.rektor.metu.edu.tr/welcome.php>.
- Aitchison, J. (2000). *The Seeds of Speech Language Origin and Evolution*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Akkuş, M. (2013). *Signals of Understanding in Multilingual Communication: A Cross-Linguistic Functional-Pragmatic Analysis of Interjections*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Ankara: Middle East Technical University.
- Armstrong, D. F. (1999). *Original Signs: Gesture, Sign, and the Sources of Language*. Washington: Gallaudet University Press.
- Ataş, U. (2012). *Discourse Functions of Students' and Teachers' Code-Switching in EFL Classrooms: A Case Study in a Turkish University*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Ankara: Middle East Technical University.
- Auer, P. (1984). *Bilingual Conversation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Auer, P. (Ed.) (1998). *Code-Switching in Conversation: Language, Interaction and Identity*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Auer, P., & Wei, L. (Eds.). (2007). *Handbook of Multilingualism and Multilingual Communication*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co. KG.
- Backus, A., Maracz, L., & ten Thije, J. D. (2011). A Toolkit for Multilingual Communication in Europe: Dealing with Linguistic Diversity. *Copenhagen Studies in Bilingualism A Toolkit for Transnational Communication in Europe*. 64, 5-24.

- Baumgarten, N & House, J. (2007). Speaker Stances in Native and Non-native English Conversation: I + Verb Constructions. In J. D. ten Thije, & L. Zeevaert (Eds.), *Receptive Multilingualism* (pp. 195-214). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Beerkens, R. (2010). *Receptive Multilingualism as a Language Mode in the Dutch-German Border Area*. Munster, New York: Waxmann.
- Beneke, J. (1991). Englisch als lingua franca oder als Medium interkultureller Kommunikation [English as lingua franca or as medium of intercultural communication]. In R. Grebing (Ed.), *Grenzenloses Sprachenlernen* (pp. 54–66). Berlin: Cornelsen.
- Bernstein, B. (1962a). Linguistic codes, hesitation phenomena and intelligence. *Language and Speech*, 5(1), 31-46.
- Bernstein, B. (1962b). Social class, linguistic codes and grammatical elements. *Language and speech*, 5(4), 221-240.
- Bernstein, B. (1973). *Class, codes and control*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Bhabha, H. K. (1994). *The Location of Culture*. London: Routledge.
- Bhatia, T. K., & Ritchie, W.C. (Eds.). (2006). *The Handbook of Bilingualism*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Biggs, B. (1957). Testing intelligibility among Yuman languages. *International Journal of American Linguistics*, 23, 57-62.
- Blom, J. P., & Gumperz, J. J. (1972). Social Meaning in Linguistic Structures: Code Switching in Northern Norway. In J. J. Gumperz, & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in Sociolinguistics*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. London: Allen and Unwin.
- Bjøge, A. K. (2010). Conflict or cooperation: The use of backchanneling in ELF negotiations. *English for Specific Purposes*, 29, 191-203.

- Braunmüller, K. & Zeevaert, L. (2001). *Semikommunikation, rezepptive Mehrsprachigkeit und verwandte Phänomene. Eine bibliographische Bestandsaufnahme* [Arbeiten zur Mehrsprachigkeit, Folge B 19]. Hamburg: Universität Hamburg, Sonderforschungsbereich Mehrsprachigkeit.
- Brwon, J.D., & Rodgers, T. (2002). *Doing Second Language Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brulhart, M. (1986). Foreigner Talk in the ESL Classroom: Interactional Adjustments to Adult Students at Two Language Proficiency Levels. *TESL Canada Journal*, 1, 29-42.
- Butler, Y. G. & Hakuta, J. (2006). In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism* (pp. 114-144). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Campus Life*. (n.d.). Retrieved May 19, 2013, from <http://www.metu.edu.tr/>.
- Canale, M. (1983). From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and Communication* (pp. 2-27). Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Cenoz, J., Hufeisen, B., & Jessner, U. (Eds.). (2001). *Cross-Linguistic Influences in Third Language Acquisition: Psycholinguistic Perspectives*. New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Clyne, M. (2004). Towards an agenda for developing multilingual communication with a community base. In J. House & J. Rehbein (Eds.), *Multilingual Communication* (pp. 19-39). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Cogo, A. & Dewey, M. (2006). Efficiency in ELF Communication: From Pragmatic Motives to Lexico-grammatical Innovation. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 5/2, 59-93.

- Cook, V. (1991). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Arnold.
- Corballis, M.C. (2008). The Gestural Origins of Language. In N. Masataka (ed.), *The Origins of Language Unraveling Evolutionary Forces* (pp. 11-24). Tokyo: Springer.
- Coseriu, E. (1988). *Sprachkompetenz. Grundzüge der Theorie des Sprechens* [UTB 1481]. Tübingen: Francke.
- Coughlan, S. (2011). *Record Number of International Students*. Retrieved April 29, 2013, from BCC News Web site: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-12671198>.
- Council of Europe (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dewaele, J. M., Housen, A., & Wei, L. (Eds.). (2003). *Bilingualism: Beyond Basic Principles*. New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Dijkstra, T., (2005). Bilingual Visual Word Recognition and Lexical Access. In J. F. Kroll & A. M. B. De Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of Bilingualism Psycholinguistic Approaches* (pp. 179-201). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.) (2005a). *The Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Dewaele, J. M., Housen, A., & Wei, L. (Eds.). (2003). *Bilingualism: Beyond Basic Principles*. New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1995). On the Teachability of Communication Strategies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29:1, 55-85.

- Dörnyei, Z. & Scott, M. L. (1995b). Communication Strategies: An Empirical Analysis with Retrospection. In J.S. Turley & K. Lusby (Eds.), *Selected Papers from the Proceedings of the 21st Annual Symposium of the Deseret Language and Linguistics Society* (pp. 155-168). Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.
- Dörnyei, Z. & Scott, M. L. (1997). Review Article Communication Strategies in a Second Language: Definitions and Taxonomies. *Language Learning*, 47:1, 173-210.
- Duff, P.A. (2008). *Case Study Research in Applied Linguistics*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum/Taylor & Francis.
- Edwards, J. (2006). Foundations of Bilingualism. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism* (pp. 7-31). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Ehlich, K., (1993). HIAT: A Transcription system for Discourse Data. In Edwards, J. A. & Lampert, M. D. (eds.), *Talking Data: Transcription and Coding in Discourse Research* (pp. 123-148). New York: Psychology Press.
- Ehlich, K. & Rehbein, J. (1976b). Halbinterpretative Arbeitstranskriptionen (HIAT). *Linguistische Berichte*, 45, 21-41.
- Ehlich, K. & Rehbein, J. (1977a). Wissen, kommunikatives Handeln und die Schule. In C. H. Goepfert (Ed.), *Sprachverhalten im Unterricht* (pp. 36-114). München: Fink.
- Ehlich, K. & Rehbein, J. (1986). *Muster und Institution. Untersuchungen zur schulischen kommunikation* [Pattern and Institution: Investigation in school communication]. (Series KommuniKation und Institution 15). Tübingen: Narr.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- EXMARaLDA. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.exmaralda.org/en_index.html

- Færch, C. & Kasper, G. (1983a). *Strategies in Interlanguage Communicative*. Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Færch, C. & Kasper, G. (1983b). Plans and Strategies in foreign Language Communication. In C. Færch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communicative* (pp. 20-60). Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Feitsma, A. (1986). Interlingual communication Dutch Frisian, a model for Scotland? In *Scottish Language and Literature, Medieval and Renaissance. Fourth International Conference 1984 — Proceedings —* [Scottish Studies 4], D. Strauss and H. W. Drescher (Eds.), 55–62. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.
- Ferguson, C. A. (1971). Absence of Copula and the Notion of Simplicity: A Study of Normal Speech Baby Talk, Foreigner Talk and Pidgins. In D. Hymes (Ed.), *Pidginization and Creolization of Language* (pp. 141-150). London: Cambridge University Press.
- Ferguson, C. A. (1975). Toward a Characterization of English Foreigner Talk. *Anthropological Linguistics*, 17, 1-14.
- Firth, A., (1996). The discursive accomplishment of normality. On ‘lingua franca’ English and conversation analysis. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 26, 237–259.
- Gardner-Chloros, P. (2009). *Code-Switching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition An Introductory Course* (3rd Ed.). New York: Routledge.
- General Information*. (n.d.). Retrieved May 19, 2013, from <http://www.metu.edu.tr/general-information>.
- Graddol, D. (1997). *The future of English?* London: British Council.
- Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with Two Languages: An Introduction to Bilingualism*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

- Grosjean, F. (1992). Another View of Bilingualism. In R. Harris (Ed.), *Cognitive Processing in Bilinguals* (pp. 51-62). Amsterdam: North-Holland.
- Grosjean, F. (2006). Studying Bilinguals: Methodological and Conceptual Issues. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism* (pp. 32-63). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Grosjean, F. (2010). *Bilingual: Life and Reality*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1982). *Discourse Strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hamers, J. F., & Blanc, M. H. A. (2004). *Bilinguality and Bilingualism* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hansen, E. 1987. Det nordiske sprogfællesskab. In *The Nordic languages and modern linguistics 6. Proceedings of the Sixth International Conference of Nordic and General Linguistics in Helsinki, August 18–22, 1986*, P. Lilius and M. Saari (Eds.), 7–20. Helsinki: Helsinki University Press.
- Haugen, E. (1966). Semicommunication: The language gap in Scandinavia. *Sociological Inquiry*, 36, 280–297.
- Haugen, E. (1990). *Babels forbrodring. Om tospraklighet og sprakplanlegging [Det Bla Bibliotek]*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.
- Hickerson, H., Turner, G. D. & Hickerson, N. P. (1952). Testing procedures for estimating the transfer of information among Iroquois dialects and languages. *International Journal of American Linguistics*, 18, 1-8.
- House, J. (1999). Misunderstanding in intercultural communication: Interactions in English as a lingua franca and the myth of mutual intelligibility. In C. Gnutzmann (Ed.), *Teaching and learning English as a global language* (pp. 73–89). Tübingen: Stauffenburg.
- House, J. & Rehbein, J. (2004). What is ‘multilingual communication?’ In J. House & J. Rehbein (Eds.), *Multilingual Communication* (pp. 1-17). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

- Howatt, T. (2002). Introduction. In K. Malmkjær (ed.), *The Linguistics Encyclopedia* (2nd ed.) (pp. xxv-xli). London: Routledge
- Hüllen, W. (1982). Teaching a foreign language as ‘lingua franca’. *Grazer Linguistische Studien* 16, 83–88.
- Hülmbaur, C. (2009). ‘We don’t take the right way. We just take the way that we think you will understand’ - The shifting relationship of correctness and effectiveness in ELF communication. In A. Mauranen & E. Ranta (Eds.), *English as a Lingua Franca: Studies and Findings* (pp. 323-347). New Castle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Hülmbaur, C. (2011). English as a Lingua Franca (ELF): A Mode and Its Implications. *Copenhagen Studies in Bilingualism A Toolkit for Transnational Communication in Europe*. 64, 43-68.
- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1991). *English for Specific Purposes: A learning-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hymes, D. (1977). *Foundations in Sociolinguistics*. London: Tavistock.
- International University*. (n.d.). Retrieved April 29, 2013, from <http://www.metu.edu.tr/international-university>.
- Janssens, R., Mamadouh, V., & Maracz, L. (2011). Languages of Regional Communication (ReLan) in Europe: Three Case Studies and a research Agenda. *Copenhagen Studies in Bilingualism A Toolkit for Transnational Communication in Europe*. 64, 69-101.
- Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2002). A sociolinguistically based, empirically researched pronunciation syllabus for English as an International Language. *Applied Linguistics* 23.1, 83–103.
- Jenkins, J. (2011). Accommodating (to) ELF in the international university. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43 (2011), 926-936.

- Jenkins, J., Cogo, A., & Dewey, M. (2011). Review of developments in research into English as a lingua franca. *Language Teaching*, 44.3, 281-315.
- Jensen, J. B. (1989). On the mutual intelligibility of Spanish and Portuguese. *Hispania*, 72, 849-52.
- Jidong, G. (2011). Empirical studies on L2 Communication Strategies over four Decades: Looking Back and Ahead. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 34: 4, 89-106.
- Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp.11-30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kaffash Khosh, A. (2012). Accomodation in Azeri-Turkmen and Azeri-Kirgiz Conversations. Paper presented at *16th International Conference on Turkish Linguistics* (pp. 242)- 2012, Middle East Technical University, Ankara, 18-21 September 2012. Ankara, Turkey.
- Kaur, J. (2011). Raising Explicitness through Self-Repair in English as a Lingua Franca. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 2704-2715.
- Kecskes, I. (2013). Focus on the Speaker: An Introduction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 48, 1-3.
- Kellerman, E. (1977). Towards a characterization of the strategies of transfer in second language learning. *Interlanguage Studies Bulliten*, 2, 58-145.
- KirkPatrick, A. (2010). English as an Asian Lingua Franca and the Multilingual Model of ELT. *Language Teaching*, 44(2), 212-224.
- Knapp, K. (1985). Englisch als internationale lingua franca und Richtlinien. In K-R. Bausch, H. Christ, W. Hüllen & H-J. Krumm (Eds.), *Forschungsgegenstand Richtlinien* (pp. 84-90). Tübingen: Narr.

- Knapp, K. (1987). English as an international lingua franca and the teaching of intercultural competence. In W. Lörtsche & R. Schulze (Eds.), *Perspectives on language in performance* (pp.1022-1039). Tübingen: Narr.
- Knapp, K. & Meierkord, C. (Eds.). (2002). *Lingua franca communication*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
- Kroll, J. F. & Dussias, P. E. (2006). The Comprehension of Words and Sentences in Two Languages. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism* (pp. 169-200). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Labov, W. (2006). *The Social Stratification of English in New York City*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Leopold, W. F. (1939—1949). *Speech Development of a Bilingual Child*. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.
- Lüdi, G. (2007). The Swiss Model of Plilingual Communication. In J. D. ten Thije, & L. Zeevaert (Eds.), *Receptive Multilingualism* (pp. 159-178). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- MacSwan, J. (2006). Code-switching and Grammatical Theory. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism* (pp. 283-311). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Mauranen, A. (2007). Hybrid Voices: English as a Lingua Franca of Academics. In K. Fløttum (Ed.), *Language and Discipline Perspectives on Academic Discourse* (pp.243-259). New Castle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Meisel, J. M. (2006). The Bilingual Child. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism* (pp. 91-113). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Muysken, P. (2000). *Bilingual Speech: A Typology of Code-Mixing*. Cambridge & New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1992). Comparing code-switching and borrowing. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 13(1&2), 19-39.

- Myers-Scotton, C. (1993b). *Duelling Languages: Grammatical Structure in Code-Switching*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (2002). *Contact Linguistics: Bilingual Encounters and Grammatical Outcomes*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (2006). *Multiple voices: An introduction to bilingualism*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Ostler, N. (2005). *Empires of the Word A Language History of the World*. London: HarperCollins.
- Poplack, S. (1980). Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish Y TERMINO EN ESPAÑOL: Toward a typology of code-switching. *Linguistics*, 18(7/8), 581-618.
- Redder, A. (2008). Functional Pragmatics. In Antos, G. & Ventola, E. (eds.), *Interpersonal Communication* (pp. 133-178). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Rehbein, J. (1977). *Komplexes Handeln* [Complex Action]. Stuttgart: Metzler.
- Rehbein, J. & Kameyama (2003). Pragmatik. In U. Ammon, N. Dittmar, K. Mattheier, & P. Trudgill (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics Soziolinguistik* (pp. 556-588). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Rehbein, J., ten Thije, J. D., & Verschik, A. (2012). Lingua Receptiva (LaRa): Remarks on the Quintessence of Receptive Multilingualism. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 16(3), 248-264.
- Ribbert, A. & Thije, J. D. ten (2007). Receptive Multilingualism in Dutch-German intercultural team cooperation. In J. D. ten Thije & L. Zeevaert (Eds.), *Receptive Multilingualism* (pp. 73-103). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Ritchie, W. C. & Bhatia, T.K. (2006). Social and psychological factors in language mixing. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism* (pp. 336-352). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

- Romaine, S. (2006). The Bilingual and multilingual Community. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism* (pp. 385-405). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Romaniuk, O. (2010). *Mother Tongue Talk in Three Languages*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Ankara: Middle East Technical University.
- Ronjat, J. (1913). *Le De'veloppement du Langage Observe' chez un Enfant Bilingue*. Paris: Champion.
- Saer, O. J. (1923) The effects of bilingualism on intelligence. *British Journal of Psychology*, 14, 25-28.
- Sağın-Şimşek, Ç. (2014). Receptive Multilingual in Turkish-Turkmen academic counseling sessions. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 5 (1), 195-210.
- Sağın-Şimşek, Ç., & König, W. (2012). Receptive multilingualism and language understanding: intelligibility of Azerbaijani to Turkish speakers. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 16(3), 332-347.
- Savignon, S. J. (1972). *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Teaching*. Philadelphia: The Center of Curriculum Development.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2004). Research Perspectives on Teaching English as a Lingua Franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 209-239.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2007). Common Property: English as a Lingua Franca in Europe. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *International Handbook of English Language Teaching* (pp. 137-154). New York: Springer Science + Business Media, LLC.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *IRAL*, 10, 209-230.
- Swain, S. (2002). Bilingualism in Cicero? The Evidence of Code-Switching. In J. N. Adams, M. Janse, & S. Swain (eds.), *Bilingualism in Ancient Society Language Contact and the Written Word* (pp. 128-167). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Swain, M. (1984). Teaching and Testing Communicatively. *TESL Talk*, 15:1 and 2, 7-18.
- Tarone, E. (1977). Conscious Communication Strategies in Interlanguage: A Progress Report. In H.D. Brown, C. A. Yorio & R. C. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL '77* (pp.194-203) Washington: TESOL.
- Tarone, E. (1980). Communication Strategies, Foreigner Talk and Repair in Interlanguage. *Language Learning*, 30, 417-431.
- Tarone, E., (1981). Some Thoughts on the Notion of Communication Strategy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 15:3, 285-295.
- 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., Frauenfelder, U. & Selinker, L. (1976). Systematicity / Variability and Stability / Instability in Interlanguage Systems: More Data from Toronto French Immersion. In H. D. Brown (Ed.), *Papers in Second Language Acquisition*. Ann Arbor, Mich: Language Learning.
- Tarone, E. & Yule, G. (1987). Communication Strategies in East—West Interactions. In E. S. Smith (Ed.), *Discourse Across Cultures: Strategies in World Englishes* (pp. 49-65). N Y: Prentice Hall.
- The American Heritage Dictionary of English Language* (3rd ed.). (1992). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Tollefson, J.W. (1991). *Planning Language, Planning Inequality: Language Policy in the Community* (pp. 80-103). London: Longman.
- Tomlinson, J. (1999). *Globalization and Culture*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Tottie, G. (1991). Conversational style in British and American English: The case of backchannels. In K. Aijmer & B. Altenberg (Eds.), *English corpus linguistics* (pp. 254–271). London: Longman.

- Trudgill, P. (2002). *Sociolinguistic Variation and Change*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Türkiye'deki uluslararası öğrenci sayısı iki kat arttı.* (2013). Retrieved 29 April, 2013, from <http://www.egitimtercihi.com/gundem/8572-turkiye-deki-uluslararasi-ogrenci-sayisi-iki-kat-artti.html>.
- Valdés-Fallis, G. (1978). Code switching and the classroom teacher. *Language in Education: Theory and Practice*, 4, 22-26.
- Van Bezooijen, R., & Gooskens, C. (2007). Interlingual Text Comprehension Linguistic and Extralinguistic Determinants. In J. D. ten Thije, & L. Zeevaert (Eds.), *Receptive Multilingualism* (pp. 249-264). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Van Heuven, W. J. B., Dijkstra, A. & Grainger, J. (1998). Orthographic Neighborhood Effects in Bilingual Word Recognition. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 39, 458-483.
- Varadi, T. (1980). Strategies of Target Language Learner Communication: Message Adjustment. *IRAL* 18, 59-71.
- Voegelin, C. F. & Harris, Z. S. (1951). Methods for determining intelligibility among dialects of natural languages. *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society*, 95, 322-329.
- Wardhaugh, R. (1990). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Wei, L. (ed.). (2000). *The Bilingualism Reader*. New York: Routledge.
- Weinreich, U. (1953). *Languages in Contact Findings and Problems*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Wolff, H. (1959). Intelligibility and Inter-Ethnic Attitudes. *Anthropological Linguistics*. 1(7), 1-88.
- Wongsawang, P. (2001). Culture-Specific Notions in L2 Communication Strategies. *Second Language Studies*, 19:2, 111-135.

- Yin, R.K. (2011). *Qualitative Research from Start to Finish*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Yule, G. & Tarone, E. (1997). Investigating Communication Strategies in L2 reference: pros and cons. In G. Kasper & E. Kellerman (Eds.), *Communication Strategies Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Perspectives* (pp.17-31). London and New York: Longman.
- Zeevaert, L. (2007). Receptive Multilingualism and Inter-Scandinavian Semicommunication. In J. D. ten Thije, & L. Zeevaert (Eds.), *Receptive Multilingualism* (pp. 103-136). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Zeevaert, L. & ten Thije, J. D. (2007). Introduction. Receptive Multilingualism and Inter-Scandinavian Semicommunication. In J. D. ten Thije, & L. Zeevaert (Eds.), *Receptive Multilingualism* (pp. 1-21). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Zuengler, J. (1991). Accommodation in Native-Nonnative Interactions: Going beyond the “What” to the “Why” in Second-Language Research. In H. Giles, J. Coupland & N. Coupland (Eds.), *Context of Accommodation Developments in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 223-244). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: EMAIL

Dear international students,

New-comer international students with Turkic language background (Azeri, Turkmen, Uzbek, etc.) are needed to participate in my doctoral thesis research. 25 liras will be paid after completing 5 communicative tasks.

For more information email:

akk1361@yahoo.com

ahmad.khosh@metu.edu.tr

APPENDIX B: NOTE

DO YOU WANT TO EARN 25 liras? NEW-COMER INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS



My name is Ahmad Kaffash khosh, a PhD student **studying communication among international students**. For my thesis I need volunteers to take part in my study by **completing communication tasks**. The participants will visit the following five places to ask for some information and voice record their conversation:

Task 1. Visiting a bank

Task 2. Visiting a post office

Task 3. Visiting registrar's office

Task 4. Visiting instructor at their office

Task 5. Visiting a friend

After completing the tasks participants will be paid 25 liras.

APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE

Language Background Questionnaire					
Dear Participant,					
Thank you for taking part in this study. The data obtained through this questionnaire will be solely used for this research study.					
1. General Information					
1.1. Name:	1.2. Gender: Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/>				
1.3. Age:	1.4. Nationality:				
1.5. Place of Birth:	1.6. Place of Living:				
1.7. Department:	1.8. Date of Entering Turkey:				
1.9. E-mail:	1.10. Phone Number:				
2. Language Background					
2.2. What language(s) does your mother speak?					
2.3. What language(s) does your father speak?					
2.4. Please list the languages you know in the order you have acquired and write the age you have started learning them					
	Languages you know in the order you have learn	Age you have started learning			
L1.					
L2.					
L3.					
L4.					
L5.					
2.5. Please indicate the contexts you have learnt these languages.					
	L1.	L2.	L3.	L4.	L5.
Kindergarten					
School					
Family					
Friends					
Internet					
TV					
In contact with speakers of the language					
Other:					

2.6. Please state how well you know the languages.						
	Very Poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very Good	Excellent
L1.						
L2.						
L3.						
L4.						
L5.						
2.7. Please indicate the language(s) you use in the following situations. Check at least one language for each item.						
	L1.	L2.	L3.	L4.	L5.	
At home with your father						
At home with your mother						
At home with your sister/brother						
At home with your grandparents						
At home with your neighbors/relatives						
At university with your friends						
At university with your teachers						
In your spare time with your friends						
At voice/video chat and internet						
In contact with official institutions in your home country						
In contact with official institutions in Turkey						
Other:						
Other:						
Other:						
3. Turkish Contact Information						
3.1. Have you ever had a visit to Turkey before you started studying in Turkey?						
Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>						
3.2. If yes, when was this visit and how long did you stay?	When		For how long			

Thank you for taking time to complete the questionnaire 😊

Ahmad Kaffash khosh

APPENDIX D: ETHICS OFFICE APPROVAL

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



DUMLUPINAR BULVARI 06800
ÇANKAYA ANKARA/TURKEY
T: +90 312 210 22 91
F: +90 312 210 79 59
ueam@metu.edu.tr
www.ueam.metu.edu.tr

Sayı: 28620816/130 - 325

08 Nisan 2013

Gönderilen: Doç.Dr. Çiğdem Sağın Şimşek
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
IAK Başkanı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü Doktora öğrencisi Ahmad Kaffash Khosh'un "Multilingual Communication in Educational Settings: The Case of Foreign Students in Middle East Technical University" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

08/04/2013

Prof.Dr. Canan ÖZGEN
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkanı
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

APPENDIX E: CONSENT FORM

This is a thesis study conducted by Ahmad Kaffash khosh, PhD. Student in English Language Teaching department in METU. This study aims to study the multilingual behavior of international students in different settings in METU. Participants are expected to fill out a brief questionnaire about their language background. Then they will visit different places and get into communication with addressee present in the place. Then they will report to the researcher on what went on and how they managed the multilingual communication. No private information will be asked from the participants and all the data collected will be used anonymously. This is a totally voluntary participant and the participants can stop participants whenever they feel so. For more information about this study you can refer to Ahmad Kaffash khosh in ELT department (telephone number: 0531-83 83-955, email address: ahmad.khosh@metu.edu.tr).

I take part in study voluntarily. I know I can stop participation whenever I feel so. I accept that the data I provide be used for scientific purposes.

First and last name:

date: / /201

signature

APPENDIX F: SAMPLE TRANSCRIPTION FROM THE DATA

Speakertable

P

Sex: m
Languages used: tur; azb
L1: azb
L2: eng; deu; tur; pes
Comment: Azeri participant

A

Sex: u
Languages used: tur
L1: tur
L2: eng
Comment: Post office clerk

[1]

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:00.9]	2 [00:01.8]
P [v]	Merhaba.		Eee mən eəəə Azəbaycana para göndərəcəəim.
P [v]	Hello.		I will send money to Azerbaijan.
A [v]	Hoş geldiniz. Merhaba. Hoş geldin abi.		
A [v]	Welcome.	Hello welocme.	

[2]

	3 [00:05.3]
P [v]	İstirdim görəm nasıl olar / nasıl mənə göndərəbiller? Mən nasıl onlara göndərəbilləm?
P [v]	I want to find out how they can send me money. How can I send them money?
A [v]	Tamam Gönderelim.
A [v]	OK. Let's send.

[3]

	.4 [00:09.9]	5 [00:14.8]
P [v]		Evet.
P [v]		Yes.
A [v]	Eee Western Union diye bir sistem var Azerbaycana para göndermek için.	
A [v]	There is a system called Western Union to send money to Azerbaijan.	

[4]

6 [00:15.1]

A [v] Western Union'i kullanabilirsin. Western Union'i kullandığın zaman adını soyadını
A [v] You can use Western Union. When you use Western Union they will write your name surname and that's all. And

[5]

..

A [v] yazacaklar bu kadar. Bir tane de MTC'nin numarasını verecekler. ((3s)) Bu numarayı /
A [v] they will give MTC number. This number / I mean you will come with your ID you will tell that number and that's

[6]

..

7 [00:33.2]

P [v] Hocam bu nedir? Bu MTC
P [v] Sir what's this? This MTC number?
A [v] yani kimliğinle geleceksin o numarayı da söyledin o kadar.
A [v] all.

[7]

..

8 [00:35.7]

9 [00:39.0]

10 [00:39.7]

P [v] numarası? **Aha**
P [v]
A [v] Eee şimdi Western Union diye bir para sistemi var ya. **Şimdi senin**
A [v] Now there is a system call WEstern Union **Now there will be**

[8]

..

11 [00:43.3]

12 [00:44.13 [00:45.3]

P [v] Evet. **Evet.**
P [v] **Yes.**
A [v] adına para gelecek. Name surname adına para gelecek. **Eee her kişinin adına da**
A [v] money for your name There will be money for your name surname **Specific for each person's name**

[9]

..

14 [00:49.1]

P [v] **Aha**
A [v] özel şöyle bir tane numara olur. Mesela der ki dört bin sekiz yüz altmış yediye üç. Bu
A [v] there is a number. **For example four thousand eight hundred sixty seven slash three. If you**

[10]

..		15 [00:57.2]
P [v]		Hm̄ Bu
P [v]		Where can I get this
A [v]	numarayı söyledin mi zaten otomatikman isminle öy / özleşir / eşleşir.	
A [v]	say this number it will in fact automatically match with your name.	

[11]

..		16 [01:00.2]
P [v]	numaranı ha / nereden alabilirler?	
P [v]	number?	
A [v]		Evet. Azerbaycan'dan sana gönderiyorlar ya.
A [v]		Yes. They are sending you from Azerbaijan. In fact the person who is

[12]

..		17 [01:06.3]
P [v]		Evet.
P [v]		Yes.
A [v]	Azerbaican'dan gönderen kişi bu numarayı verecek sana zaten. Ha sana para gön / işte	
A [v]	sending you from Azerbaijan will give you this number.	You can get the moeny from me

[13]

..		18 [01:12.2]
P [v]		Hm̄
P [v]		
A [v]	benden alabilirsin Ziraat bankasından alabilirsin Garanti bankasından. Yani bütün	
A [v]	you can get it from Ziraat bank from Garanti bank.	It means you can get

[14]

..		19 [01:15.2]	20 [01:16.9]
P [v]		Transfer ücretləri nə qədər olur?	
P [v]		How much is the transfer charge?	
A [v]	Western Union işlem yapan her yerden alabilir sin.		Transfer
A [v]	from all the places that do the Western Union operation.		How much is the

[15]

..		
P [v]		
A [v]	ücretleri ne kadar? Ee yüz dolar ve yüz euro'ya ilk başlangıç on beş dolar ve on beş	
A [v]	transfer charge? For one hundred dollars and one hundred Euros, fifteen dollars and fifteen Euros at the beginning.	

[16]

..
P [v]
A [v] euro. Fakat daha sonra ee para miktarı arttıkça masraf miktarı azalıyor. Yani şimdi yüz
A [v] But later on as the amount of money increases, the charge decreases. That is now that it is five dollars charged for a
[17]

..	21 [01:33.0]
P [v]	Evet.
A [v] dolara on beş dolar aldı bin dolara yüz elli dolar alacak diye bir şey yok. Mesela bu bin	
A [v] hundred dollars	for on thousand dollars it is not fifty dollars. For example for one thousand dollars

[18]

..	22 [01:39.8]	23 [01:41.0]
P [v]	Evet.	Evet. Nə
P [v]	Yes.	Yes. How
A [v] dolar olursa bunun alacak parası sana otuz beş dolar civarında bir para eder.		
A [v] the money they get from you is about thirty five dollars.		

[19]

..	24 [01:42.2]	25 [01:43.1]	26 [01:43.6]	27 [01:44.6]	28 [01:46.5]
P [v] qədər zəməən istər?	Anında.				Təşəkkür elirəm.
P [v] much time is needed?	Instantly.				Thank you.
A [v]	Anında.	Anında.			Rica ederim efendim. İyi
A [v]	Instantly.	Instantly.			You're welcome. have a nice day.

[20]

..
A [v] günler.
A [v]

Speakertable

P

Sex: f
Languages used: eng; tur
L1: eng
L2: fra
Comment: US Participant

A1

Sex: f
Languages used: tur; eng
L1: tur
L2: eng
Comment: Pharmacist

A2

Sex: m
Languages used: tur; eng
L1: tur
L2: eng
Comment: Pharmacist assistant

[1]

	0 [00:00.0]	1 [00:03.0]	2 [00:04.3]	3 [00:06.0]	4 [00:06.5]	5 [00:07.4]	6 [00:07.97 [00:08.8]
P [v]	Ee boğaz.			Eem ...		Hm̃` Evet.	Eemm • do you have
P [nv]			<i>Artificial caughing</i>				
P [v]	Throat.					Hm̃` Yes.	
A1 [v]		Arıyor.			Cau.		Yes? Hm̃`
A1 [v]		Aching.					

[2]

	7 [00:15.0]	8 [00:17.0]	9 [00:19.1]
P [v]	something to ••• eemm make it not sore like mint nane? Or ...		
A1 [v]		Yes. Yes yes OK.	
A1 [nv]			<i>Taking the</i>

[3]

	10 [00:28.11 [00:28.9]	11 [00:30.0]	12 [00:32.3]
P [v]		Tamam. Bu ne kadar?	
P [v]		OK. How much is this?	
A1 [v]		This.	
A1 [nv]	<i>medicine from the shelf</i>		
A2 [v]			İşte ağrı kesici özelliği olduğu için ???
A2 [nv]			<i>Speaking to another customer</i>
A2 [v]			Because it has a pain killing feature ????. Eight liras

[4]

	13 [00:49.2]	14 [00:51.1]	15 [00:56.3]
P [v]		Tamam. Eemm and if it still hurts? Like	after a couple
P [v]		OK.	
A1 [v]		Eight • liras.	Cua ...
A2 [v]	var ya. sekiz lira.		
A2 [nv]			
A2 [v]			

[5]

	16 [01:01.4]	17 [01:02.3]
P [v]	of days? After a couple of days if it still hurts?	In three days or four days
A1 [v]		Yes?

[6]

	18 [01:06.5]	19 [01:14.0]	20 [01:14.0]
P [v]	should I come back?		Yeah.
A1 [v]		Hà` Yes. Eee ((1.5 s)) antibiotics? Antibiotics.	Yes.

[7]

	21 [01:15.7]	22 [01:21.6]	23 [01:22.4]	24 [01:22.8]	25 [01:24.9]	26 [01:26.27]	27 [01:26.8]
P [v]		Yes.		OK. Two times?		Do I	
A1 [v]		This.	Ee sabah • akşam.			Yes.	
A1 [nv]	<i>Showing the medicine.</i>						
A1 [v]			Ee morning evening.				
A2 [v]							Morning is

[8]

	28 [01:27.8]	29 [01:29.3]	30 [01:30.8]	31 [01:31.3]	32 [01:33.1]	33 [01:34.2]
P [v]	need to eat before?		Hm`		After eating?	
A1 [v]		One tablet.	Sabah one tablet.			
A1 [v]			Morning one tablet			
A2 [v]	...		After to eating	morning one ea / ee		

[9]

	34 [01:36.7]	35 [01:37.7]	36 [01:38.1]	37 [01:38.7]	38 [01:41.1]
P [v]	OK.	OK.		OK. Good.	
A1 [v]	Yes.	Yes.			
A2 [v]	night one	after eating.			

APPENDIX G: VITA

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: **Kaffash khosh, Ahmad**
Nationality: **Iran**
Date and Place of Birth: **15 December 1982 , Tabriz**
Marital Status: **Married**
Phone Turkey: **+90 531 83 83 955**
Phone Iran: **+98 914 417 37 67**
email: **akk1361@yahoo.com**

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
MS	University of Tabriz	2008
BS	Azad University of Tabriz	2005
High School	Mostafa Khomeini	2000

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2014- Present	Islamic Culture and Relations Organization (ICRO), Ankara	Farsi Teacher
2011-2013	Receptive Multilingualism Project	Project Assistant
2008-2009	ACECR (Academic Center of Education, Culture, and Research)	Head of Department of Foreign Languages
2008-2009	Daneshvaran College	Lecturer
2001-2009	ACECR (Academic Center of Education, Culture, and Research)	Teacher

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Azeri native speaker, Farsi, English, Turkish

PUBLICATIONS

Kaffash khosh, A., Jabbari, A., Behzad, S. & Moradi, H. R., (2014). *Peyk-e Parsi Basic*. ICRO Publications: Ankara, Turkey

Kaffash khosh, A., Jabbari, A., Behzad, S. & Moradi, H. R., (2014). *Peyk-e Parsi Intermediate*. ICRO Publications: Ankara, Turkey

Kaffash khosh, A., Jabbari, A., Behzad, S. & Moradi, H. R., (2014). *Peyk-e Parsi Advanced*. ICRO Publications: Ankara, Turkey

APPENDIX H: TURKISH SUMMARY

1.1 Çalışmanın Arkaplanı

Günümüzde dünya genelinde yaklaşık 200 ulus-devlet dahilinde konuşulan dillerin sayısı 6700'e ulaşmıştır (Romaine, 2004). Bu "ikidillilik veya çokdilliliğin, dünyanın hemen hemen her ülkesinde mevcut" olduğu anlamına gelir (ibid. p. 388). Grosjean (1982) dünya nüfusunun muhtemelen yaklaşık yarısının ikidilli olduğunu tahmin etmektedir. Bu sayı o tarihten günümüze dek büyük ihtimalle artmıştır. Bununla birlikte şunu da önemle vurgulamak gerekir ki, bu ulus-devletlerin arasında dillerin dağılımı eşit değildir. Dünya çapında bulunan tüm dillerin yüzde yetmişten fazlası, yalnızca yirmi ulus-devlette konuşulmaktadır. Örneğin sadece Papua Yeni Gine'de 860 dil konuşulmaktadır. Bununla birlikte uluslararası kamuoyu tarafından evrensel kabul edilmiş diller de bulunmaktadır. Bu dillere örnek olarak, İngilizce, Fransızca ve İspanyolca gibi evrensel diller verilebilir. Üstelik bu diller ya anadil ya ikinci dil ya da yabancı dil olarak konuşulmaktadır. Bu dillerin arasında yirmi birinci yüzyılın başında, İngilizce "sadece uluslararası kamuoyu tarafından evrensel ölçekte kullanılan bir dil olarak kabul görmeye başlamış, aynı zamanda uluslararası arenada kullanılagelen *tek* dil haline gelmeye başlamıştır (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 2, cited in Hulmbaur, 2011). Crystal'a (2003) göre, dünya üzerinde 570 milyon kişi İngilizce konuşmaktadır ki bu insanların yüzde kırk biri hem İngilizce hem de diğer bazı dünya dillerinde ikidilli kabul edilmektedirler.

Bu bağlamda, iki veya daha fazla dil yetisine sahip olmak, günümüzde hayatın önemli bir gerçeğidir (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004). Bu vaziyet hayatın farklı alanlarında tecelli etmiştir: ev ve aile, meslek alanları ve iş dünyası, medya ve reklam, internet ve elbette eğitim. Şu açıklıkla belirtilebilir ki, ikidillilik en çok, farklı seviyelerde de olsa eğitimi etkilemiştir. Kanada'da Fransızca daldırma programında (French Immersion Program) (Ellis, 1994) olduğu gibi, ikidilli eğitim, iki-/çokdilli çocukların okul hizmetleri almakta olduğu diğer bazı ülkelerde de belirgindir. Akademik dil olarak, yüksek öğrenim için İngilizce öğrenme hemen hemen dünyadaki tüm

üniversitelerde kaçınılmaz hale gelmiştir. İngilizce kullanmaya doğru dünyada var olan bu küresel eğilim doğrultusunda, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi (ODTÜ) İngilizce eğitimiyle iki avantaja sahiptir. Dünyadaki diğer üniversitelerde olduğu gibi, ODTÜ’de de eğitim için yararlanılan kaynaklar İngilizce olmakla birlikte eğitim dili de İngilizce olarak kullanılmaktadır.

İkidiilli konuşucuların ve ikidiilli dil kullanım çeşitlerinin uzun tarihi ve hayatın farklı alanlarında ikidilliliğin çağdaş uygulamaları göz önünde bulundurularak, iki-/çokdillilik çalışmalarının verimli olması beklenir. Oysa ki “ikidillilik her ne kadar kadim bir kavram olsa da, bu konu ile ilintili çalışmalar nispeten yenidir” (Dewaele, Housen, & Wei, 2003, p. 3). Aslında, ikidillilik çalışmaları 19. yüzyıldan itibaren yapılmaktadır; ancak 1960’larda önemli bir dönüm noktası yaşamıştır. 19. yüzyıldan 1960’lara kadar, ikidillilik üzerine yapılan çalışmalar, ikidilliliğin insanlar üzerinde zararlı etkileri olduğunu göstermekteydi. 1960’lar ikidillilik dahil olmak üzere dille ilgili bütün sahalarda bir dönüm noktasıydı. Dewaele ve diğerlerine göre (2003), bu dönüm noktasının ana sebebi, araştırmacıların ikidilliliğin geçmişte düşünüldüğünden daha yaygın ve belki de ölçü olduğu gerçeğini kabul etmeleridir.

21. yüzyılda küreselleşme toplumlar ve kültürler arasındaki mesafeyi azaltmıştır. Öncekinden daha sık olarak çeşitli kültürel ve dilsel geçmişlere sahip olan bireyler farklı nedenlerle biraraya gelmektedirler. Bireylerin kendi toplumlarından ayrılmasının önemli nedenlerinden biri eğitimidir. 2009 UNESCO istatistiklerine göre dünya çapında uluslararası öğrencilerin sayısı 3.43 milyonu bulmaktadır. İstatistikler göstermektedir ki, 2000 yılından bu yana, bu sayılar yüzde yetmişbeşlik bir sıçrama yaşamıştır (Coughlan, 2011). Türkiye söz konusu olduğunda ise bu artış daha belirgin olmaktadır. ÖSYM istatistiklerine göre, 2001-2002 akademik yılında Türkiye’de eğitim gören uluslararası öğrencilerin sayısı 15.505 idi. Kırdan fazla ülkeden gelen öğrencilerin bu sayısı, 2011-2012 akademik yılında yüzde yüzden daha fazla bir artışla 31.170’e ulaşmıştır (Türkiye’deki uluslararası öğrenci, 2013). 80’den fazla ülkeden yaklaşık olarak 1800 uluslararası öğrenci sayısı ile ODTÜ, uluslararası öğrencilerin eğitiminde paha biçilmez bir rol oynamaktadır. ODTÜ’de eğitim dili İngilizce’dir. Bu nedenle, ister uluslararası öğrenci olsun ister Türkiye vatandaşı, kabul alan bütün öğrenciler İngilizce’ye hakim olmak zorundadır. Üstelik, uluslararası öğrenciler Türkiye Cumhuriyeti’nin resmi dili olan Türkçe’ye de hayatın

farklı alanlarında maruz kalmaktadırlar. Kısacası, farklı seviyelerde de olsa İngilizce ve Türkçe'yle donanan uluslararası öğrenciler çeşitli iletişim ortamlarında bu dilleri yaratıcı bir şekilde kullanmak durumunda kalmaktadırlar.

Farklı dilsel ve kültürel geçmişlere sahip olan bu öğrenci çeşitliliği çokdillilik üzerine yapılacak olan bilimsel araştırmalar için verimli bir alan oluşturmaktadır. Çokdilli bireylerin dil repertuarlarında birden fazla dil olduğundan, çokdilli bireyin kendisini bulduğu bağlama bağlı olarak seçeceği en uygun dil üzerine geliştireceği dil seçim stratejileri de değişiklik arz etmektedir. Çokdilli bireyin içinde bulunduğu durum ve bağlamın değerlendirmesi, ona hangi dili seçmesi gerektiğine dair ipuçları sağlar. Dil seçim stratejisi bir dili diğerine tercih etmek gibi durağan bir dil seçimi değildir. Bilakis, çokdilli bireyin içinde bulunduğu bağlamın tüm bileşenlerinin - hitap edilen (kişiler), bilinen diller ve bu dillere hakimiyet düzeyi, iletişimin konusu ki konuşma boyunca değişebilir, yaş, cinsiyet ve güç farklılığı gibi bireylerarası konuların dahil olduğu devinimsel bir süreçtir. Buna ilaveten, tüm iletişimsel durumlarda, iletişimin akışı ve konuşucular arasında karşılıklı anlaşılabilirliğin azami düzeyde sağlanması için ikinci bir stratejiden yararlanılır. Buna iletişim yöntemleri denmektedir. İletişim yöntemleri “iletişim için elzem olan anlam yapılarının olmadığı durumlarda iki konuşucunun karşılıklı anlamayı sağlama için karşılıklı çabası” olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Tarone, 1981, p. 419). Uluslararası öğrencilerin sıklıkla karşılaşma ihtimali olduğu durumlardaki gibi; ortak paylaşılan dilsel, toplumdilbilimsel, kültürel ve kişisel geçmişlerin olmadığı koşullarda bu iletişim yöntemlerinden faydalanmak çok daha önem kesbetmektedir. İletişim sırasında tahminler, karşılıklı anlaşılabilirliği artırmaktadır. Bu nedenle ortak paylaşılan bilginin olmaması konuşmanın akışını düzenlemeye çalışırken konuşucuların üzerine fazladan bir yük yüklemektedir. Üstelik, yabancı dillerdeki özellikle sözcüksel ve dilbilgisel sözel kaynakların yetersizliği, dilsel etkileşimin akışını zora sokmaktadır. Bu doktora tezi tam olarak bu konunun üzerinde durmaktadır.

1.2. Çalışmanın Amacı

Günümüz dünyasında, küreselleşme değişik nedenlerle insanların biraraya gelmesine vesile olmuştur. Kendine özgü dilsel geçmişlere sahip bireyler biraraya

geldiğinde, iletişim zorlu bir süreç olur. Çokdilli iletişimde, karşılıklı iletişimi sağlamak için konuşucular farklı ilave dillerle donanmak zorundadır. Bu çokdilli repertuarı kullanırken ise, konuşucular, kendilerini buldukları bağlamın değerlendirmesine dayanarak doğru dil(ler)i seçmek için farklı yöntem ve stratejilere başvururlar. Buna dil seçim yöntemleri denir ve bu; kod-değiştirimi, ortak dil kullanımı ve algısal çokdilliliği kapsar. İlâveten, karşılıklı anlaşılabilirliği sağlamak için, hem konuşan hem de dinleyen farklı türde yöntemlerden faydalanır. Bunlara ise iletişim yöntemleri denir. Bu yöntemlerden yabancı dillerdeki özellikle sözcüksel ve dilbilgisel sözel kaynakların yetersizliği ve paylaşılan kültürel ve kişisel geçmiş eksikliğinden dolayı çokdilli ortamlarda hassaten olmasa da sıklıkla istifade edilir. Konudan kaçınma, dolaylı yoldan anlatma, pandomim, geri-yönlendirme (back-channelling) vs. bu tür yöntemlerden bazılarıdır. Çokdilli bireyler, bağlamın değerlendirmesine bağlı olarak çokdilli iletişimi sağlamak için bu iki tür yöntem grubundan da yararlanırlar. Yukarıda bahsedilenler ışığında, bu çalışmanın amacı farklı dilsel bağlam, durum ve ortamlarda çokdilli bireylerin çokdillilik davranışlarına ışık tutmaktır. Daha açık şekilde belirtmek gerekirse, bu araştırma ODTÜ yerleşkesine yeni gelen uluslararası öğrencilerin çokdilli davranışlarını gözlemleyerek açıklama ve bu davranışların nedenlerini belirlemeyi hedeflemektedir.

1.3. Araştırma Soruları

Araştırma soruları aşağıdaki gibidir:

1.1. ODTÜ yerleşkesindeki uluslararası öğrenciler kendilerine ait sözel repertuarları ve içinde buldukları iletişimsel bağlamı göz önüne alarak hangi dil seçim stratejilerini kullanıyorlar? Ve neden bu stratejileri kullanıyorlar?

1.2. Türkî ve Hint-Avrupa dil geçmişine sahip olan katılımcılar dil seçim stratejileri bağlamında nasıl ayrışıyorlar?

2.1. Katılımcılar kişilerarası ve kültürlerarası anla(ma)mayı sağlamak/savmak için hangi dil seçim stratejilerini kullanıyorlar?

2.2. Katılımcıların dilsel geçmişlerindeki farklılıklar anlama sorunlarıyla baş etmek için kullandıkları iletişim stratejilerini nasıl etkiliyor?

3. Farklı dilsel geçmişe sahip katılımcılar iletişim etkinliklerini gerçekleştirirken farklılık göstermekte midir?

1.4. Metodolojiye Bakış

Yukarıda sunulan araştırma sorularını cevaplamak adına, çoklu bir vaka çalışması tasarlanmıştır. Kolayda örneklem yöntemiyle beşi Hint-Avrupa ve dördü Türkî dil geçmişine sahip toplamda dokuz katılımcı seçilmiştir. Bu katılımcıların temel özelliği Türkçe'ye maruz kalmamış olmaları ve ODTÜ'ye yeni gelmiş olmalarıdır. Genel anlamda niteliksel çalışmaların özellikle ise vaka çalışmalarının belirgin özelliklerinden biri çoklu kanıt imkânı sağlamaları (Duff, 2008; Yin, 2011) olduğundan üç veri toplama yöntemi kullanılmıştır.

Çalışmanın başında katılımcılara doldurmaları için “dil geçmişi” anketi verilmiştir. Çalışmanın veri toplama aşamasının ilk adımı bu olmuştur. Çalışmanın amacı, katılımcıların dilsel performanslarının tespiti olduğundan katılımcılarla ilgili tüm dil geçmişlerinin aydınlatıcı olabileceği düşünülmüş ve bu gerekçeyle dil geçmişi anketi uygulanmıştır.

Katılımcıların iletişim davranışlarını tespit etmek için bu iletişim yöntem ve tekniklerinin eylem halinde saptanması gerekmektedir. Diğer bir deyişle, katılımcıların dahil oldukları gerçek hayattaki iletişimlerinin araştırılmak üzere kaydedilmesi gerekmektedir. Bu kayıtlar sırasında olabildiğince sözlü verinin doğrallığının sağlanması ve korunması için bir tür iletişim eylemleri tasarlanmıştır. Şöyle ki, katılımcılara araştırmacı tarafından bir takım bilgi-boşluğu olan önceden tasarlanmış problemler verilerek kendilerinden belli bazı yerlerde bir kısım kişilerle iletişime geçerek bu sorunu çözmeleri istenmiştir. Katılımcıların çokdilli davranış ve tavırlarının tespiti için yeteri kadar zengin bir veri toplamak aslında her bir katılımcıdan beş iletişim eylemini gerçekleştirmesinin yeterli olacağı düşünülmüştür. Bu beş farklı bağlamı seçebilmek için dört kriter kıstas alınmıştır: uluslararası öğrencilerin iletişime dahil olma olasılığı olan durumlar, konu hakkında bilgileri, hitap edilen kişilerin kullanacağı muhtemel dil(ler) ve iletişim dahilindeki resmiyet düzeyi. Sonuçta yukarıda ismi geçen kıstasları karşılayan müteakip beş bağlam

seçilmiştir: postane, eczane, Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı Yabancı Öğrenciler Ofisi, bir üniversite hocası ile görüşme ve bir Türk arkadaş ile görüşme.

Her bir iletişim eylemi tamamlandıktan sonra katılımcılar ile iletişimin genel değerlendirmesi için bir görüşme yapılmıştır. Genel anlamda iletişim içerisindeki konuşucuların iletişiminin boyutu ve iletişim dahilinde kullandıkları diller ve bu dilleri kullanma nedenleri ile birlikte hitap edilen kişinin kısa bir dil geçmişi ve en önemlisi etkileşim içerisinde herhangi bir iletişim sorunuyla karşılaşmış ve karşılaşmadıkları konuları değerlendirildi.

Sözlü verinin sadece araştırmacı tarafından incelenmesi, iletişim stratejilerinin neden ve nasıl kullanıldığına dair güvenilir bir yöntem olmadığı düşünüldüğünden, verinin çeviriyazısının analizi sırasında katılımcıların zihinsel eylemlerini ortaya çıkartmak ve betimlemek için uyarılmış-hatırlatma görüşmesi (stimulated recall interview) yapılmıştır.

Kaydedilmiş olan verileri is EXMARaLDA adı verilen programla çeviriyazıya dönüştürülmüş ve İşlevsel Dilbilim çerçevesinde analiz edilmiştir.

1.5. Sonuç

Bu çalışma kapsamında araştırılan soruların üç ana alanı vardır: kod-değiştirimi, dil seçimi stratejileri ve eylem başarısı. Bu bölümde anılan bu üç alan ayrı ayrı incelenip tartışılacaktır.

1.5.1. Dil Seçimi Stratejileri

Dil seçimi stratejileri, diğer bir deyişle katılımcıların kullanmayı tercih ettiği dil(ler), üç açıdan incelenebilir. Öncelikle, dilbilimsel bir bakışla iletişim esnasında kullanılan diller ortaya çıkarılabilir. Bu açıdan araştırmanın ilk sorusunun cevabı elde edilir. Saniyen, dil geçmişi boyutuyla değerlendirilecek olursa, Hint-Avrupa ve Türkî dil geçmişlerine sahip olan katılımcıların dil seçimlerindeki benzerlik ve farklılıkların genel bir sınıflandırması yapılabilir. Bu da ikinci araştırma sorusuna ışık tutar. Son olarak bağlam açısından bakıldığında ise, farklı iletişim eylemleri esnasında katılımcıların istifade ettiği dil seçimi tercihleri incelenebilir.

1.5.1.1. Dil Seçimi Stratejileri: Dilbilimsel Bakış

Katılımcıların sahip olduğu sözel repertuar ve içinde buldukları iletişim bağlamının değerlendirilmesi dayanarak, katılımcıların dört dili yaratıcı bir şekilde kullanılmıştır. Bu kapsamda şunu önemle belirtmek gerekir ki, zihinsel olarak bir dilsel repertuarı dahilinde kullanılan diller arasında bir farklılık olmayabilir. Çokdilli dil konuşucularının zihinlerinde vakıf oldukları tüm diller farklı düzeyde etkin olabilir ve/ya etkinleştirilebilirler. Bununla birlikte, bu dillerin yaratıcı bir şekilde kullanılması bu bölümde odak noktasını oluşturmaktadır. Müteakip bölümde bu dillerin kullanım sıklığı göz önüne alınarak bir sıralama yapılacaktır.

Yapılan veri analizi sonucunda katılımcılar arasında en çok kullanılan dilin İngilizce olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Hemen hemen tüm iletişim eylemleri sırasında dünya genelinde kullanılan ortak dil olarak İngilizce kullanılmıştır. Aslında, sadece bir Kırgız katılımcı postahannede ve Türk arkadaşı ile yaptığı konuşma esnasındaki iletişim eylemleri sırasında İngilizce kullanmamıştır. Bunun dışında istisnasız bütün katılımcılar bütün bağlamlar içerisinde farklı düzeylerde de olsa İngilizce kullanmışlardır. Bu iletişim sırasında ya sadece İngilizce ya Türkçe ve/ya Azerice kod-değiştirimi ile ya da İngilizce'yi algısal olarak anlayarak İngilizce'den yararlanmışlardır. Şunu da özellikle vurgulamak gerekir ki, çoğunu Hint-Avrupa dil geçmişine sahip katılımcıların dahil olduğu iletişim eylemlerinin yarısından fazlasında sadece İngilizce kullanıldığı tespit edilmiştir.

İkinci en çok kullanılan dil ise Türkçe olarak belirlenmiştir. ODTÜ'nün ana kampüsünün bulunduğu Türkiye Cumhuriyeti'nin resmi dili ve katılımcıların hitap ettiği kişilerin anadili olduğundan, farklı düzeylerde Türkçe'den faydalanılmıştır. Katılımcıların Türkçe kullanımı, iki durumda tespit edilmiştir: sohbete başlamak için 'Merhaba!'nın (Hello!) kullanımı ve Türkçe-İngilizce ve Türkçe-Azerice kod-değiştirimi sırasında algısal anlama ile Türkçeden faydalanılması. Bu özellik Türkî dil geçmişine sahip katılımcılarda gözlemlenmiştir.

Türkî dil geçmişi grubundan iki Azeri katılımcı gerekli gördükleri durumlarda Türkçe yerine kendi anadillerini kullanmışlardır. Diğer katılımcılar gibi bu Azeri katılımcılar Türkiye'ye yeni geldikleri ve öncesinde Türkçeye maruz kalmadıkları için Türkçeye vakıf olmadıklarından kendilerini ifade etmek için yeteri kadar Türkçe

bilgisine sahip değilllerdi. Fakat bilinçaltında Azerice ve Türkçenin birbirine yakın diller olduğunun farkında olarak iletişimleri sırasında bu iki dilin sahip olduğu bu avantajdan faydalanmışlardır. Aynı zamanda bağlamı sürekli zihinsel olarak değerlendirmeleri ve sahip oldukları tüm dil repertuarını etkinleştirmeleri neticesinde gerekli hallerde anadillerinden faydalanmışlardır. Azeri katılımcıların sözel verisi incelendiğinde ortaya çıkan şu ki, iletişim eylemlerinde Azeri diline özgü geri-yönlendirmeleri kullandıkları belirlenmiştir.

Azeri katılımcılar gibi, eczanede gerçekleşen iletişim eylemi sırasında Kırgız katılımcı da Kırgızca ve Türkçenin yakınlığını göz önüne alarak Türkçe “boğaz” kelimesi yerine Kırgızca aynı anlama gelen “damak” kelimesini kullanmıştır. Ancak Türkçede damak kelimesinin farklı bir anlama geldiğini tahmin edememiştir. Ancak ne olursa olsun katılımcıyı bu tür bir dil kullanımına teşvik eden şey öyle görünüyor ki diller arasında var olduğunu düşündüğü yakınlık idi. Ayrıca şunu ehemmiyetle not etmek gerekir ki, her ne kadar dillerin genetik yakınlığı iletişim esnasında bir teminat gibi gözüксе de yanıltıcı eşasılı kelimeler algısal çokdilli iletişimde sorunlara neden olmaktadır.

1.5.1.2. Dil Seçimi Stratejileri: Dil Geçmişi Bakışı

İkinci bir perspektiften bakılacak olursa, katılımcıların dil seçimi stratejileri katılımcı-odaklı dil geçmişi göz önüne alınarak incelenebilir. Bu çalışma kapsamında iki dil grubundan katılımcılar bulunduğundan ötürü dil gruplarının kendine has özelliklerinin konuşucuların dil kullanımı üzerine etkisi de bu çalışmanın incelemeyi amaçladığı alanlardan birisiydi. Sözel veri bu bağlamda aydınlatıcı olmuştur.

Hint-Avrupa grubundan katılımcıların verilerinin analizi tüm beş iletişim eylemlerinde kullanılan iletişim dili büyük oranda İngilizce'dir. Daha detaylı bir inceleme sonucunda iki katılımcının tüm beş iletişim eyleminde sadece İngilizce kullandığı görülmektedir. Katılımcılardan biri eczanede Türkçe “Merhaba!”yı kullanarak konuşmaya başlarken diğer bir katılımcı postanede Türkçe “Merhaba”yı kullanmanın yanında Türkçe sayıları algısal olarak anlamıştır. Türkçe ve İngilizce arasında kod değiştirimi yapan tek Hin-Avrupa grubundan katılımcı ise Amerikalı katılımcıdır. Bu katılımcı hem postanede hem de eczanede bazı Türkçe cümleler

kurmuştur. Tüm bu değerlendirmeler ışığında şu söylenebilir ki Hint-Avrupa dil grubundan olan katılımcıların iletişim odağı Ortak Dil Olarak İngilizce'dir (ELF). Bu eğilimin temel nedeni ise Avrupa'da çokdilli bireyler arasında İngilizce'nin ortak iletişim dili olarak algılanmasıdır. Bu nedenle, Türkiye ve ODTÜ yerleşkesinde de bu iletişim yöntemini devam ettirmeyi tercih ettikleri görülmüştür.

Diğer taraftan, Türkî dil konuşucularının ortaya koyduğu tablo ise tam anlamıyla farklıdır. Bu gruptaki katılımcılar, İngilizce'nin yanında kendi dil geçmişlerini göz önüne alarak yatkın olduklarını düşündükleri Türkçeyi de kullanmışlardır. Aslında, üç iletişim eylemi istisna olmak üzere diğer tüm eylemlerde Türkçenin kullanımı ve izi belirlenmiştir. Kırgız katılımcı, örneğin, en fazla Türkçeden yararlanan katılımcı olmuştur. Azeri katılımcıların hikâyesi ise tamamen farklı bir seyir izlemiştir. Şöyle ki, İngilizce'nin yanında Türkçeyi de algısal olarak kullanmışlardır. Üstelik, iletişimleri sırasında Azerice-Türkçe karışımı bir kod-değiştiriminden istifade etmişlerdir.

Özetle, Hint-Avrupa dil geçmişine sahip katılımcılar beş bağlamda da ortak iletişim dili olarak İngilizce'yi tercih etmişlerdir. Hitap ettikleri dinleyicilerin anadilinden farklı bir dile sahip olduklarından dolayı, bir iki önemsiz durum dışında, Türkçeden faydalanamamışlardır. Diğer taraftan, her ne kadar Türkçeye tam anlamıyla vakıf olamasalar da Türkî dil grubundaki katılımcılar iletişimleri esnasında kendi dil geçmişlerinden ziyadesiyle faydalanmışlardır. Bu gruptaki katılımcılar, iletişimlerinde İngilizce ile birlikte, Türkçeyi algısal olarak anlamış, Türkçe selamlaşmış, Türkçe-İngilizce ya da Azerice kod değiştirimi yapmış veya nadir de olsa sadece Türkçe kullanmışlardır.

1.5.1.3. Dil Seçimi Stratejileri: Bağlam Açısı

Katılımcıların sözel verileri beş bağlamda toplanmıştır: postane, eczane, Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı Yabancı Öğrenciler Ofisi, bir üniversite hocası ile görüşme ve bir Türk arkadaş ile görüşme. Dil seçimi açısından, bu bağlamlar üç kısma ayrılabilir. Bu kapsamda ilk kategori postane ve eczane olur. Bu bağlamlarda Türkçe-odaklı iletişim gerekmektedir çünkü buralar akademik olmayan halka açık alanlar ve hitap edilen kişiler günlük konuşmada norm olarak Türkçeyi kullanan kişilerdir. Bundan

dolayı ki bu iletişim bağlamlarında Hint-Avrupa dil grubundan katılımcılar Ortak Dil Olarak İngilizce'nin yanında Türkçe kod-değiřtirmeyi yapmıř, Türkçe selamlařmıřlardır. Bu iletişim bağlamlarında Türkî dil grubundan katılımcılar ise farklı modlarda İngilizce'den ziyade Türkçeyi kullanmıřlardır. Sadece İngilizce'nin kullanıldıđı bir örnek iletilim modu bulunmamakla birlikte İngilizce-Türkçe veya Azerice kod-değiřtirmeyi gözlemlenmiřtir.

İkinci tasnif ise Öğrenci İřleri Daire Bařkanlıđı Yabancı Öğrenciler Ofisi ihtiva eder. Deđiřim ve uluslararası öğrenciler, kayıtlı diđer öğrenciler gibi öğrencilik iřlemleri için ÖİDB Yabancı Öğrenciler Ofisi'ne bařvurmaları gerektiđi belirtilmiřtir. Yabancı Diller Ofisi'ne bařvuran Hint-Avrupa dil grubundan tüm katılımcıların çokdilli iletişim için tercihi Ortak Dil Olarak İngilizce olduđu tespit edilmiřtir. Türkî dil geçmiřine sahip gruptan Kırgız öğrenci de uluslararası bir öğrenci olduđundan Yabancı Öğrenciler Ofisi'ne bařvurmuřtur. Kırgız katılımcının muhatabı olan memurun kullandıđı dil İngilizce olsa da Kırgız katılımcı arada sırada İngilizce'ye kod-değiřtirmeyi yapmıř olsa da yukarıda belirtilen nedenlerden dolayı Türkçeyi tercih etmiřtir. Memurun İngilizce kullanmaya meyyal olmasının sebebi bu ofisin yabancı öğrencilerle ilgilenen bir ofis olması ve bu ofise bařvuran öğrencilerin uluslararası öğrenci olmaları ve Türkçeye hakim olacak kadar Türkiye'de bulunmadıkları varsayıldıđından kaynaklanmaktadır. Diđer taraftan, Yabancı Öğrenciler Ofisi'ne bařvuran diđer üç Türkî dil geçmiřine sahip katılımcı İngilizce'ye çok da hakim olmayan memurlarla iletişime geçtiklerinden İngilizce'den Türkçeye veya Azericeye ya da bu dillerin bir karıřımını kullanmak suretiyle dil seçimlerini güncellemek zorunda kalmıřlardır. Bununla birlikte, muhatapları olan memurlar bu katılımcıların sorularını Türkçe cevaplamıřlardır. Bu nedenle Türkî katılımcılar muhataplarının verdikleri bu Türkçe cevapları algısal olarak anlamıřlardır.

Üçüncü grup iletişim eylemleri ise bir üniversite hocası ile görüşme ve bir Türk arkadař ile görüşme olarak belirlenmiřtir. Bu konuşma bağlamları İngiliz dilinde eğitim veren bir üniversitede ve akademik bir ortamda yapıldıđından İngilizce en çok kullanılan dildir. Beř Hint-Avrupa dil grubundan katılımcı bu bağlamda İngilizce'den istifade etmiřlerdir. Türkî dil geçmiřine sahip katılımcılardan iki Azeri de İngilizce'yi tercih etmiřtir bu bağlam dahilinde. Kazak katılımcı ise Türk arkadařı

ile konuşurken algısal olarak Türkçeyi dinlemiş ve karşılık olarak İngilizce'yi yaratıcı bir şekilde kullanmıştır. Yalnızca Kırgız öğrenci Türk arkadaşı ve üniversiteden hocası ile konuşurken Türkçe-İngilizce kod-değiştirimi ile iletişim kurmuşturçv

1.5.2. İletişim Stratejileri

İster tekdilli ister çokdilli olsun tüm bireyler ihtiyaç duydukları hallerde hem iletişimin etkisini artırmak hem de karşılıklı anlaşılabilirliği sağlamak için iletişim stratejilerinden yararlanırlar. Bu çalışmada yer alan katılımcılar da kendilerine verilen iletişim eylemi görevlerini yerine getirirken iletişim stratejilerinden faydalanmışlardır. Genellikle, bu iletişim stratejileri üç açıdan incelenebilir: katılımcıların rolleri, iletişim stratejilerinin işlevi ve katılımcıların kullandığı dil formları.

1.5.2.1. İletişim Stratejileri: Katılımcı Rolü Açısı

İşlevsel Dilbilim çerçevesinde değerlendirildiğinde, iletişim yoluyla iletişim içerisinde bulunan aktörler hem konuşucu hem dinleyici olarak çok etkin rollere sahiptirler. Bu durum dilsel, kültürel ve kişisel uzaklığın olduğu durumlarda ayrı bir önem kesbeder. Diğer bir ifadeyle, aynı dilsel, kültürel ve kişisel geçmişe sahip olmayan bireyler biraraya geldiklerinde iletişim içerisindeki bireylerin birbirini anlaması garanti edilemez. İletişimin akıcı bir şekilde devam edebilmesi için dinleyici açısından anlama teminatının olması gerekir. Bu çalışmada incelenen durum ise tam anlamıyla budur. Katılımcılara tamamlamak üzere iletişim-odaklı vazifeler verildiğinden, katılımcılar dinleyici rollerini olabildiğince etkin bir şekilde yerine getirmek zorundadırlar.

İletişim stratejileri ile ilintili olarak, elde edilen sözlü verilerde geri-yönlendirme sinyalleri yoluyla katılımcıların dinleyici olarak rolleri gözlenmiştir. Bu sinyaller, dinleyici rolündeki katılımcının karşısındaki konuşucu rolündeki muhatabını anladığını ve sözlü ve sözsüz sinyallerle muhatabına konuşmasına devam edebileceğini göstermektedir. Bu tür iletişim stratejileri her iki dil grubuna sahip

katılımcılar tarafından kullanılmıştır. Ancak iki Azeri katılımcı kendi anadillerine has geri-yönlendirme sinyallerini de kullanmıştır. Bunun temel sebebi, daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, katılımcıların Türkçe ve Azerice arasındaki genetik yakınlıktan ötürü Türk muhatabının bunu anlayacağı zannıdır.

Bu çalışma kapsamında ayrıca bu iletişim stratejisi dahilinde verilen geri-yönlendirme sinyallerinin anlamının gerçekleştiğini belirten bir türünün yanında muhatabın söylediklerini teyit amacı taşıyan bir diğeri olduğu da ortaya çıkmıştır. İkinci tür dahilinde, dinleyicinin verdiği geri-yönlendirme sinyalinin amacı, muhatabının son söylediği sözce veya cümleyi teyittir. Bu sinyaller veri analizinde “geri-yönlendirme: teyit” olarak etiketlenmiştir.

Katılımcıların farklı bakış açıları göz önüne alınarak, konuşucu olarak rolleri ise müteakip bölümde sunulmuştur.

1.5.2.2. İletişim Stratejileri: İşlevsel Bakış Açısı

Genel bir bakış açısıyla, iletişim stratejileri iletişimin etkisini artırmak ve karşılıklı anlaşma esnasında ortaya çıkan sorunları çözmek amacıyla geliştirilen tasarımlardır. Bu görüş, iletişim stratejilerine dair en genel görüş olarak kabul edilir. Özel anlamda ise, iletişim stratejilerinin her biri kendine has bir amaç için kullanılır. Diğer bir ifadeyle, iletişim sırasında ortaya çıkan tüm durumlara binaen iletişimin akışını dengelemek amaçlı farklı iletişim stratejilerinden yararlanır. Yani, kullanıldığında her bir iletişim stratejisinin kendine mahsus bir amacı vardır. Bu nedenle iletişim stratejilerinin her biri kullanıldığı bağlama bağlıdır. Şöyle ki, aynı iletişim stratejisi farklı bağlamlarda farklı amaçlarla kullanılabilir. İşlevsel bir bakış açısıyla bu iletişim stratejileri beş sınıfa ayrılabilir: basitleştirme, konuyu ayrıntılandırma, muhatabın anlamasını sağlama, kendini anlama ve söylem dolguları (discourse).

Bu tür iletişim stratejilerinden ilk grubu muhatabın anlamasını sağlamak ve teşvik etmek için kullanılan dilin ve ifadenin basitleştirilmesidir. Bu çalışma kapsamında elde edilen verilerin analizi sonucu bu strateji çeşidine özellikle İngilizce konuşulduğunda başvurulduğu gözlenmiştir. Muhatabın İngilizce’ye hakim olmadığı bir takım iletişim eylemleri sırasında, konuşucu rolündeki katılımcılar gönderdikleri

ileti ve mesajın karşısındaki muhatap tarafından kolayca anlaşılması için ifadelerini ve dillerini basitleştirme yoluna gitmişlerdir. Kullanılan bu stratejiler şu şekildedir:

1. Sözce uzunluğunun kısaltılması
2. Devrik olmayan soru sorma
3. Sıklıkla kullanılan kelimelerin kullanımı
4. Yavaş konuşma hızı
5. Telaffuza dikkat etme
6. Seçenekli sorular sorma
7. Evet/Hayır cevaplı sorular sorma eğilimi
8. Kullanışlı kelimeler kullanımı
9. Kelimeleri tane tane telaffuz etme
10. Heceleri vurgulama ve telaffuza dikkat
11. Önbişim öncülünün hatırlatılması

Bu stratejiler arasında ilk dokuzu yabancı konuşması olarak alanyazına geçmişse de son ikisi bu çalışmanın alanyazına sunduğu katkı olarak ortaya çıkmıştır.

Bu çalışmada kullanılan iletişim stratejilerini oluşturan ikinci grup ise konuyu detaylandırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Şöyle ki, bu stratejiler her ne kadar yine muhatabın anlamasını kolaylaştırmayı hedeflese de kullanılan dili basitleştirme ve dili/ifadeyi manipüle etme yoluna gitmemektedir. Konunun içeriğini, anlamayı sağlamak için genişletme ve ayrıntılandırma söz konusudur. Bu stratejiler ise şu şekilde tespit edilmiştir:

1. Dolaylı anlatma
2. Konuyu uzatma ve genişletme
3. Kendini başka bir şekilde ifade etme
4. Yanıt olarak: kendini başka bir şekilde ifade etme
5. Muhatabın anadilinde kendini başka bir şekilde ifade etme
6. Yanıt olarak: muhatabın anadilinde kendini başka bir şekilde ifade etme
7. Kendini tekrar etme
8. Yanıt olarak: kendini tekrar etme
9. Muhatabın anadilinde kendini tekrar etme
10. Yanıt olarak: muhatabın anadilinde kendini tekrar etme

Yukarıda verilen stratejilerin ortak özellikleri, konuşucunun iletlediği mesajı ya farklı ifade etme ya da aynı mesajı tekrar etme yoluna giderek konuyu ayrıntılandırmasıdır. Diğer bir deyişle, katılımcılar, bazı durumlarda iletilerinin özüne dokunmadan şeklini deęiştirmektedirler. Bunu yaparken eklemeler yapıyor, örnekler veriyor veya bağlamı genişletiyorlar. Diğer durumlarda ise dinleyicinin duymadan dolayı sorun yaşadığını varsayıp telaffuz ettikleri sözce veya cümleyi kısmen veya tamamen tekrar ediyorlar. Hatta Türkî dil geçmişine sahip olan katılımcılar, anlamayı sağlamak için bu stratejileri dinleyici durumundaki muhatabının anadili olan Türkçede yapmayı tercih etmektedirler. İlâveten, bu stratejiler ya ileriye doğru tahmin ederek ya da dinleyicinin etkisine bir tepki olarak kullanılmışlardır.

İletişim stratejilerinin üçüncü ve son grubunu ise dinleyicinin anlamasını sağlamak için uygulanan stratejiler oluşturmaktadır. Aşağıda sıralanan söz konusu stratejiler anlamayı sağlamak için ilave kaynaklar hizmeti görmektedirler:

1. Yanıt: teyit
2. Biçim açısından kendini düzeltme
3. Biçim açısından kendini düzeltme: Amerikan İngilizcesi/Britanya İngilizcesi
4. Konu açısından kendini düzeltme
5. Yanıt: konu açısından kendini düzeltme
6. Anlama-kavrama kontrolü
7. Pantomim veya mimik kullanma

Hem iletinin konusu hem ileti biçimi düzeltmeleri, anlamayı kolaylaştırmak için katılımcılar tarafından kullanılan olağan stratejiler olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Üstelik, anlamının gerçekleşip gerçekleşmediğini doğrulamak adına konuşucu rolündeki katılımcılar sıklıkla muhataplarına dönerek muhataplarının kendilerini anlayıp anlamadıklarını kontrol etmektedir. Dinleyici rolündeki muhataplar ise konuşucu olan katılımcının en son sözcelerini ya kendi dilinde ya da dilediği bir dilde –kısmen veya tamamen- tekrar etmektedir ki bu sayede konuşmayı anladığını karşısındaki konuşucuya ima etmektedir. Buna ilave olarak, bazı durumlarda konuşucu da muhataplarının anlayıp anlamadığını kavrama soruları sorarak kontrol etmektedir. Bu sınıflandırma son kategori olarak ise, sözel veride toplamda üç durumda pantomim veya mimik kullanma da tespit edilmiştir.

Yukarıda betimlenen ilk üç iletişim stratejileri, katılımcıların muhataplarının anlamalarını sağlamak adına iletmek istedikleri mesajın hem konusu hem de biçimi ile ilgili yaptıkları yönlendirmelerle alakalıydı. Bununla birlikte, devinim halinde konuşucu ve dinleyici rollerinin değiştiği bir iletişimde, katılımcılar hem anlamayı hem de karşılık anlaşılabilirliği (anlaşmayı) sağlamak zorundadırlar. Bu da üç tür iletişim stratejisi ile sağlanmaktadır: kendi anlamasını kontrol. Bu stratejiler şu şekildedir:

1. Teyit için sorma
2. Muhatabı tekrar etme
3. Muhatabı tekrar etme: soru sorarak
4. Yorumlayarak özetleme
5. Muhataptan tekrar etmesini isteme
6. Açıklık getirmek için sorma: anlam
7. Yavaş bir hızla konuşmasını isteme
8. Tahmin etme
9. Anlamadığını ifade etme

Sözün özü, bu stratejiler katılımcılar tarafından kendi anlamalarını teminat altına almak için kullanılır. Ancak iletişimde iletinin kaynağı konuşucunun muhatabı olduğundan ve katılımcılar kendi anlamalarını garanti altına almak için kendi muhataplarına yönelirler. Bu amaçla kendi anlamalarını kontrol etmek için stratejiler geliştirirler. Diğer başka türlü stratejiler, dinleyicinin anlamasını sağlamak ve algısal anlayışını geliştirmek için konuşanın sözcelerinin tedbir olarak kullanılır.

Beşinci tür stratejilerin mesaj iletmeye veya alma ile alakası yoktur. Bu stratejiler konuşucunun iletişim süresince kendi rolünü devam ettirirken konuşmasını gözden geçirip tasarlamak için vakit kazanmak adına sessiz veya sözsüz boşluklar kullanmasına yardımcı olur. Bu stratejiler şu şekilde sınıflandırılabilir:

1. Hımlama ve errleme
2. Durma
3. Uzatılmış sesler çıkarma

Bu çalışma kapsamında toplanan verilerin analizinin ortaya koyduğu şudur ki, bu tür stratejiler tüm katılımcılar tarafından sık sık kullanılmaktadır. Bu durumun sebeplerinden biri; iletişim içinde bulunan kişinin iyi bir dil kullanıcısı olmaması

ve/veya aynı dilsel, kültürel ve kişisel ortaklıklar olmadığından, iletişim içerisinde olan kişiler için pek olağan olmayan olan bu tür çokdilli bir iletişimde, iletişimi sürdürmek ve konuşmalarını planlamak için daha fazla zamana ihtiyaç duyuyor olmaları bir ihtimaldir. Kişilere has hımlama ve errleme dışında, bu stratejiler iletilinin biçimini tasarlamak ve muhatabın anlamasını sağlayacak bir bağlam ve düzlemde uygun hale getirmek için kullanılan yöntemlerdir.

İletişim esnasında katılımcılar tarafından konuşulacak veya dinlenilecek olan dil konusunda anlaşmayı sağlayan bir işlevi olan bir “dil seçim işaretçisi” bulunmaktadır. Bu tür bir strateji, analizi yapılmış olan çalışmanın verisinde çıkmamıştır. Bununla birlikte, geri-yönlendirmesinin etkileri müteakip bölümde tartışılacaktır.

1.5.2.3. İletişim Stratejileri: Dil Seçim Açısı

Bu çalışma kapsamında incelenen ve tespit edilen iletişim stratejilerini genel anlamda iki dil grubundan katılımcılar kullandığından, adı geçen bu stratejiler dilbilimsel bir gözle de incelenebilir. Bu, aynı zamanda, bu çalışmanın katılımcıların dilsel geçmişlerinin iletişim stratejilerinin kullanımına olan yaklaşımlarının etkisi ile ilintili ikinci araştırma sorusunun ikinci bölümüyle de yakından ilgilidir. Her ne kadar her iki gruptan katılımcılar tarafından hemen hemen bütün iletişim stratejileri kullanılmış olsa da bu bağlamda dikkati çeken iki farklılık olduğunu belirtmek gerekmektedir.

Hint-Avrupa ve Türkî dil geçmişine sahip olan katılımcılar arasında iletişim stratejilerini uygulama anlamında var olan bu durumlar içinde ilk dikkati çeken ve belki de en önemli ayrımı oluşturan farklılık bu iki grup arasında dillerin kullanımı meselesidir. Hint-Avrupa dil geçmişine sahip olan katılımcıların uyguladığı iletişim stratejilerinin tümü İngilizce'dir. Diğer bir deyişle, çok az durum dışında, daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, bu gruba dahil olan katılımcıların iletişim dili İngilizce'dir. Sonuç olarak, kullanılan iletişim stratejileri de bu dilde gerçekleşmiştir. Bununla birlikte, diğer grubu oluşturan Türkî dil geçmişine sahip katılımcılar açısından resim çok daha farklıdır. Bu gruptaki katılımcılar hem İngilizce hem Türkçe iletişimde bulunurken, her iki dilden de faydalanarak iletişim stratejilerini konuşma boyunca geliştirip

kullanmışlardır. Bu katılımcıların, İngilizce-temelli konuşmalarda dahi Türkçe yoluyla birtakım iletişim stratejilerinden faydalandıkları da gözlenmiştir. Burada vurgulanmak istenen şudur ki, İngilizce'nin kullanıldığı bazı iletişim eylemlerinde dahi Türkî dil konuşucuları Türkçe iletişim stratejileri uygulamışlardır. Bu farklı stratejiler şu şekilde sınıflandırılabilir:

1. Muhatabın anadilinde kendini tekrar etme
2. Muhatabın ana dilinde kendini başka bir şekilde anlatma
3. Yanıt: muhatabın anadilinde kendini tekrar etme
4. Yanıt: muhatabın ana dilinde kendini başka bir şekilde anlatma

Bu stratejiler, başlıklardan da anlaşılacağı gibi, Türkî dil geçmişine sahip olan katılımcıların muhatabının anadilinde gerçekleşmiştir. Türkî dil konuşucuları bu stratejileri geliştirerek muhatabı olan dinleyicinin anlamasını en azamî seviyeye çıkartmayı hedeflemiştir. Bu sayede katılımcılar hem “içeriği genişletme” iletişim stratejisini kullanıp, bunu bir de Türkçe yaparak dil ve dilbilim kaynaklı oluşabilecek herhangi bir yanlış veya kısmi anlamayı ya da anlamama ihtimalini ortadan kaldırmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu stratejiler sadece Türkî dil geçmişine sahip katılımcılara özgüdür. Çünkü bu katılımcılar iletişim süresince Türkçe ve Azerice'nin genetik yakınlığından dolayı sahip oldukları asgarî Türkçe bilgisini yaratıcı bir şekilde kullanabilmektedirler.

İkinci farklılık da yine iletişim stratejilerinin içerik genişlemesi ile ilintilidir. Tüm veri analizi içerisinde sadece Hint-Avrupa dil geçmişine sahip olan katılımcıların kullandıkları iletişim stratejileri ‘kendini başka şekilde ifade etme’, ‘yanıt: kendini başka şekilde ifade etme’ ve ‘genişletme/ayrıntılılandırma’ olarak tespit edilmiştir. Bu iletişim stratejileri Türkî dil geçmişine sahip grup tarafından hiç bir surette kullanılmamıştır. Bunun nedeni Türkî dil konuşucularının dil seçim tercihlerinde yatıyor olabilir. Türkî dillerden birini konuşan katılımcılar halihazırda iletişimlerinde Türkçeyi diğer gruptan daha fazla kullandıklarından bu tür bir açıklama ve içeriği genişleterek anlatma yolunu tutmamışlardır. Sonuç olarak, bu gruptaki katılımcıların muhataplarına konuyu detayına inerek anlatma gereği bırakmayacak bir noktada iletişimi gerçekleştirdikleri söylenebilir. Üstelik Türkî dil konuşucuları dil yakınlığı nedeniyle Türkçe bilgisine de değişen düzeylerde de olsa sahip olduklarından muhataplarına kendi dillerinde açıklama yoluna giderek iletmek

istedikleri mesajı muhataplarına azami derecede anlatabilmektedirler. Bununla birlikte, yukarıda da belirtildiği gibi, ne zaman kendilerini tekrar etme ve veya başka bir şekilde ifade etmeleri gerekse, bunu Türkçe yapmaktadırlar.

1.5.3. Görev Başarısı

Araştırma soruları içerisinde son soru olarak ifadesini bularak ve araştırma deseninin bir parçası olarak, araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanarak Hint-Avrupa ve Türkî dil geçmişine sahip katılımcılara verilen soruların her birini gerekli iletişim eylemleri kapsamında belirlenen her bir bağlam ve durumda sorup; bu sorulara gerekli cevap alıp almadıklarının tespiti bu çalışma için ortaya çıkartılması elzem bir soru ve sorundu. Görevin tam anlamıyla tamamlanması iletişim açısından çok büyük önem taşıyordu. Çünkü içinde bulunduğu bağlam içerisinde iletişim kuramayan bir katılımcı olması halinde görev olarak cevap bulunması gereken soruların cevaplanmaması ve bunun neticesinde görevin başarısızlıkla sonuçlanmasına neden olacaktı. Çalışmanın veri analizinin detaylı analizinin ortaya koyduğu şudur ki, çalışmada yer alan tüm katılımcılar beş farklı bağlam dahilinde yer aldıkları iletişim eylemlerini başarıyla tamamlamışlardır. Diğer bir ifadeyle, beş farklı iletişim eyleminde de, katılımcılar iletişimin çökmesine sebebiyet vermeden ve kendilerine araştırmacı tarafından verilen görevleri başarıyla yerine getirerek cevap bulunması gereken tüm sorulara gerekli yanıtları alarak sağlıklı bir iletişim gerçekleştirmeye muvaffak olmuşlardır.

APPENDIX I: TEZ FOTOKOPI İZİN FORMU

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü

Enformatik Enstitüsü

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Kaffash khosh
Adı : Ahmad
Bölümü : İngiliz Dili Öğretimi

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : Multilingual Communication in Educational Settings: The
Case of International Students at Middle East Technical University

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

Yazarın imzası:

Tarih: .07.2015