

CONVERSATION STRATEGIES IN THE ELT CURRICULUM AND THEIR
EFFECT ON EFL LEARNERS' ORAL PROFICIENCY EXAM PERFORMANCE

A MASTER'S THESIS

BY

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THE PROGRAM OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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To all who make this world a better place,

Conversation Strategies in the ELT Curriculum and Their Effect on EFL Learners'

Oral Proficiency Exam Performance

The Graduate School of Education

of

İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University

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EFL Learners' Oral Proficiency Exam Performance

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January 2017

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ABSTRACT**CONVERSATION STRATEGIES IN THE ELT CURRICULUM AND THEIR
EFFECT ON EFL LEARNERS' ORAL PROFICIENCY EXAM PERFORMANCE**

Gökhan GENÇ

M.A in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Deniz ORTAÇTEPE

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This study aims to explore whether teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies show any difference from students' perceptions on teaching these strategies in in-class activities. The study also investigates the extent to which explicit conversation strategy teaching affects the use of the strategies in oral proficiency exam context and the relationship between conversational strategy use and the scores candidates receive from speaking exams in terms of task completion and overall proficiency. The study was carried out with 261 tertiary level EFL learners and 19 English Language instructors at Bülent Ecevit University, School of Foreign Languages. To see the similarities and differences between teachers' reported practices of covering conversation strategy instruction and students' perceptions on strategy instruction in class, a content analysis of the course books was carried out to identify the conversation strategies presented by the teaching material. After that, student and teacher participants were administered questionnaires designed by the researcher on the basis of the result of the content analysis. In order to reveal the effect of conversational strategy use on oral

proficiency exam performances, a content analysis of the video recordings of students' oral proficiency exam performances were examined to see evidence for successful execution of conversation strategies. The frequency of successful conversation strategy use and the scores students received from the task completion and overall proficiency band of the rubric was used to explore the effect of strategy use on oral exam scores.

The results coming from the questionnaires showed that in 41 out of 50 items, teachers reported practices of and students' perceptions on in-class strategy training matched whereas in 9 items there was a mismatch between teacher and students responses. The results of the study also revealed that there was a moderate relationship between the use of conversation strategies and oral proficiency exam performances in terms of task completion and overall proficiency.

In the light of the findings, the study provides insights with regards to conversational strategy instruction for future teaching practices. Stakeholders like curriculum developers, material designers, instructors and administrators can benefit from the results of the present study.

Key words: conversation/communication strategies, communication strategy

training, oral proficiency exams, task completion, overall proficiency in speaking

ÖZET

İNGİLİZ DİLİ ÖĞRETİMİ MÜFREDATINDA KARŞILIKLI KONUŞMA STRATEJİLERİ VE İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN SÖZLÜ YETERLİLİK SINAVLARI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Gökhan GENÇ

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

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Bu çalışma, öğretmenlerin karşılıklı konuşma stratejileri öğretimi ile ilgili aktardıkları uygulamalarıyla öğrencilerin bu stratejilerin sınıf içi aktivitelerinde öğretilip öğretilmediğine yönelik algıları arasında bir farklılık olup olmadığını inceler. Çalışma aynı zamanda karşılıklı konuşma stratejilerinin doğrudan öğretiminin sözlü yeterlilik sınavı bağlamında strateji kullanımına ne ölçüde etki sağladığını ve karşılıklı konuşma stratejisi kullanımı ile adayların konuşma sınavlarının görev tamamlama ve genel yeterlilik bantlarından aldıkları not arasındaki ilişkiyi de araştırır. Çalışma Bülent Ecevit Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'nda 216 üçüncü düzey İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenci ve 19 İngiliz Dili eğitmeni ile yürütülmüştür. Öğretmenlerin karşılıklı konuşma stratejisi öğretimine ilişkin aktardıkları uygulamaları ile öğrencilerin bu stratejilerin sınıf içi aktivitelerde öğretimine dair algıları arasındaki benzerlikler ve farklılıkları görmek için, öğretim materyalinde sunulan karşılıklı konuşma stratejilerini belirlemek üzere kitaplarda içerik analizi yapılmıştır. Daha sonra bu içerik analizinden hareketle, araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan anketler öğrenci ve öğretmen katılımcılara uygulanmıştır. Karşılıklı konuşma stratejisi kullanımının sözlü yeterlilik

sınavı performansına etkisini ölçmek için, öğrencilerin sözlü yeterlilik sınavı performansları video-kayıtlarına karşılıklı konuşma stratejilerinin başarılı bir şekilde kullanımlarının emarelerini görmek üzere içerik analizi uygulanmıştır. Strateji kullanımının sözlü sınav notlarına olan etkisini incelemek için, başarılı bir şekilde gerçekleştirilmiş karşılıklı konuşma stratejilerinin kullanım sıklığı ile performans değerlendirme kriterinin görev tamamlama ve genel yeterlilik bantlarındaki notlar kullanılmıştır.

Anketlerden gelen sonuçlar 50 maddenin 41inde sınıf içi strateji öğretimine ilişkin öğretmenlerin aktarılan uygulamaları ve öğrencilerin algısı örtüşme gösterirken, dokuz maddede bu iki katılımcı grup farklı görüş belirtmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları aynı zamanda karşılıklı konuşma stratejilerinin kullanımı ile sözlü yeterlilik sınav performansları arasında görev tamamlama ve genel yeterlilik açısından orta düzey bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Bu bulguların ışığında, çalışma karşılıklı konuşma stratejileri hususunda gelecekteki öğretim uygulamalarına iç görü sağlamaktadır. Müfredat ve material geliştirenler, öğretmenler ve yöneticiler mevcut çalışmanın sonuçlarından faydalanabilirler.

Anahtar sözcükler: karşılıklı konuşma/ iletişim stratejileri, iletişim stratejisi eğitimi, sözlü yeterlilik sınavları, görev tamamlama, konuşmada genel yeterlilik

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The introduction of communicative approaches in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) brought an emphasis on communication and conveying message accurately and fluently both in written and spoken discourse; that is, in Foreign Language (FL) classrooms, students are expected to learn the language and use it for communication purposes. The shift on the focus from linguistic competence to communicative competence brought by Communicative Language Teaching also introduced new techniques in assessment. One of these techniques is oral interviews; in which the performance of students in a communicative task is evaluated through criteria which aim to evaluate several aspects of oral performance such as fluency, accuracy, interaction, task completion and vocabulary use. In these interviews, students are required to comprehend the message created by their peers and respond to them accordingly in an accurate and fluent manner. However, learners may experience problems while interacting with their partners and exchanging information during conversation. Lack of linguistic competence may constitute one aspect of the problem and this could hinder the production in grammatical and lexical forms required for communication. Another reason for not being able to establish spoken interaction efficiently could be the lack of necessary skills or strategies to initiate, maintain and end a conversation in an appropriate way which stems from lack of communicative competence.

Most of the teaching practices in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms aim to promote students' communicative competence so that foreign language learners could succeed in conversational tasks they are engaged in. One

way to foster students' communicative abilities is teaching conversation strategies to help students overcome the difficulties encountered in a conversational task. Recent textbook series of renowned publishers have included these strategies to help learners survive in a conversation by presenting them situations that allow them to understand the context of interaction in which English is used.

With this much emphasis put on teaching conversation strategies to help convey a message in a clearer and more fluent manner, one might assume that upon receiving explicit teaching on conversation strategies, students should perform better and score higher in oral interviews on the condition that they make use of these strategies in their oral performances. Thus, this study attempts to explore whether teachers' reported practices and students' perceptions demonstrate difference in terms of conversational strategy instruction in classroom activities. Another central purpose of the current study is to investigate the extent to which conversation strategies student are taught is demonstrated in oral interviews. The study also aims to reveal, if any, the relationship between students' use of conversation strategies in oral exams and the scores they receive in these oral performances.

Background of the Study

Since the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the late 1970's, teaching communicative abilities and skills gained significance in language classrooms all around the world (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1997). There has been a consensus by many foreign language instructors on what CLT is: it is a "meaning-based, learner-centred approach which favours production and comprehension of message over teaching or correcting the language form" (Spada, 2007, p. 17). Thus, in language teaching practices the focus has shifted from teaching how to form structures accurately to delivering the message fluently.

However, conveying the message across in a fluent manner still stands as a challenge for most L2 learners. EFL speakers may encounter difficulties in initiating and maintaining a spontaneous conversation despite possessing the necessary lexical and grammatical resources required to engage in a conversation (Brown & Yule, 1983). To remedy such shortcomings during conversations, several scholars suggest that certain kind of strategies or ‘conversational acts’ have been utilized by the speakers.

The strategies speakers in a conversation employ to enhance the meaning or to make up for their shortcomings have been explained with several terms; one of which is called Communication Strategies. Selinker (1972) defines communication strategies as “...every potential intentional attempt to cope with any language related problem of which the speaker is aware during the course of communication” (p. 179). According to the definition here, communication strategies, also referred to as Oral Communication Strategies (OCS) in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), primarily function as compensatory when the speaker experiences lack of resources to convey the message appropriately.

Another term used to define the strategies speakers utilize in order to get the message across as desired is Conversation Strategies (CS). Although communication strategies and conversation strategies are often used interchangeably, the terms have different origins. According to definition provided by Kehe and Kehe (1994), conversation strategies refer to “actions speakers take to bring the conversation to desired conclusion” (in Triana, 2009, p. 19). According to Nakatani (2005), the definition of the term provided here can be equated with the interactionist view of communication strategies.

The significant change in language teaching brought by CLT and Task-Based Language Instruction placed a focus on conversational tasks and success of attaining the objective required by the task (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Scholars have debated on what defines a task and provided numerous definitions for what a task actually is. Though there are some minor different perceptions on what constitutes a task, Bygate, Skehan and Swain's (2001 in Ellis, 2003) definition is somewhat comprehensive and provides the core elements of the definitions: "A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective" (p. 11). Thus, as how a task could be achieved became the focus of instruction in language classes, testing and evaluating success has also altered; bringing new methods of evaluation into English Language Teaching. One of these alternative evaluation methods is oral interviews, which is also referred as oral examinations or speaking examinations, became popular in language teaching programs. Within these exams, oral performance of students in individual, pair or group tasks are evaluated according to a set of criteria called rubric (Ellis 2003).

Statement of the Problem

Speaking has probably been perceived as the most difficult skill to master by second language learners. This is mainly because speaking requires production of target language spontaneously (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). With the emergence of communicative methodologies in the 1980s, the issue of spoken interaction became a popular subject of research along with its subcomponents like problems experienced by second language learners during conversations (e.g., Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991; Phakiti, 2008; & Tarone & Yule, 1990). As a means of remedy for the shortcomings learners experience during conversations, quite a few researchers investigated conversation strategies from different angles such as

presentation of pragmatic items in language teaching materials and providing definitions, historical background and definition of conversation strategies (e.g., Crandall & Baştürkmen, 2004; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

Previous studies attempted to either define what conversation strategies consist of or the ways to promote them. With these purposes in mind, research has reported on different aspects of conversational strategies. For instance, Richards (1980) discussed English as a Second Language (ESL) learners' perception and utilization of conversation skills while Pietro (1982) investigated the impact of open-ended scenarios on promoting the learners use of conversational strategies. Martinez-Flor (2007) explored the influence of the type of instruction on students' development of communicative skills by providing one of the experimental groups with explicit explanation and other experimental group with implicit information and no specific type of instruction to the control group. The study concluded that learners benefited from both types of instruction. Kasper (1997) explored the effects of teaching conversational strategies whereas several researchers investigated students' perceptions of teaching conversational strategies (e.g., Bouton, 1994; Kubota 1995). As for the oral assessment exams, there is also a bulk of literature investigating factors affecting candidate's performance on task given and/or rater's assessment of the performance (e.g., Doğruer, Meneviş & Eyyam, 2010; Demirbaş, 2013). However, to the knowledge of the researcher, there has been no detailed investigation of whether students' use of conversational strategies has an impact on their oral assessment performances. Therefore, this study aims to reveal the effect of teaching conversation strategies on tertiary level EFL learners' oral exam performances and oral proficiency exam scores.

In Turkey, learners of a foreign language experience difficulty in productive skills; especially in speaking. This is mainly because speaking requires the knowledge of how to start, maintain and end a conversation appropriately and the production needs to occur instantaneously. While this instantaneous skill takes place, learners find it challenging to make up for their lack of lexical or grammatical knowledge. Although teaching conversation strategies has been proposed to remedy this situation, very few resources or teaching materials put emphasis on creating awareness on how teaching these strategies may contribute to learners' speaking abilities. Besides, in the institutions where teaching conversation strategies is a part of the curriculum, a discrepancy between what teachers report on teaching the strategies and how students perceive the activities or exercises that intend to teach conversational acts may occur. Also in such institutions, little has been known about whether teaching of the conversation strategies translates into student use or whether these strategies have any effect on learners' speaking performances. Therefore, the aim of this study is to explore whether there is a difference between teachers' reported practices and students' perceptions on teaching conversation strategies and whether teaching of conversation strategies result in any change in students' proficiency speaking exam performances and scores.

Research Questions

Considering the scope of this research, the study aims to address the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference between teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies and students' perceptions on whether these strategies are taught or not?

2. What are students' perceptions on the necessity of teaching conversation strategies as part of classes that aim to promote speaking ability?
3. To what extent do tertiary level EFL students apply conversation strategies they are taught in the classroom in the oral exams?
4. To what extent does the use of conversation strategies impact:
 - a) students' task completion scores?
 - b) students' oral interview scores?

Significance of the Study

Many institutions, including major universities in Turkey are implementing oral interview exams. For test-takers to communicate effectively and obtain higher performance scores in oral interviews, they need to have a number of competencies such as communicative, linguistic, discourse and strategic competence. Among these competences, strategic competence is helpful for learners to overcome breakdowns in a conversation (Canale, 1983). Possessing the necessary grammatical and lexical competences on their own may not help students obtain successful results when required to produce in a conversational task in oral exams, unless these competencies are accompanied by strategic competence. Considering the problematic fields discussed, findings of this study might provide implications for various institutions and people in the field of English language teaching in general, and practitioners of language teaching in specific.

Although there is a significant volume of literature on oral assessments, the studies investigating the relationship between teaching conversational strategies and oral assessments are quite few. The results of this study may expand the existing literature by exploring the extent to which these skills are utilized by students, by

analyzing the effect of use of these skills on oral exam scores and comparing the perceptions of students and teachers' reports of these skills being taught.

At the local level, the findings of this study may prove beneficial to Curriculum Development and Speaking Assessment Offices of the Turkish universities in designing curriculum and speaking tasks used in oral exams. Instructors teaching in these institutions could also benefit from this study by gaining an insight into their teaching practices of conversational strategies and on how students perceive these practices of teachers. The analysis of rules or conversational strategies and whether they have impact on students' production in oral assessment exams might provide implications for administrators, curriculum developers and teachers along with other shareholders in the institutions mentioned about teaching conversational strategies.

Conclusion

In this chapter, an overview of the literature related to oral interviews as a means of language testing, language competencies, and utilization of conversation strategies has been presented. Then, the statement of the problem, research questions, and the significance of the study have been discussed. Thus, the next chapter deals with the literature on oral interviews as a means of language testing, language competencies, and use of the conversation strategies more broadly.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This study aims to investigate whether there is a statistically significant difference between teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies and students' perceptions on whether these strategies are taught or not. Another objective of the study is to see whether students perceive the teaching of conversational strategies a significant component to improve their conversational abilities. The study will also reveal the extent to which tertiary level EFL students utilize conversation strategies they learned in their classroom practices and the extent to which using conversation strategies in speaking exams impact their oral exam scores. In this chapter, a review of the related literature will be presented. First, language competencies and sub-competencies under which conversation strategies are categorized will be explained. Concluding this section, various definitions for conversation strategies, how they are classified and theoretical and empirical studies regarding conversation strategies will be provided. The other section of this chapter will mainly deal with testing speaking, with a focus on oral interviews and evaluation of oral performances in this type of exams. In relation to oral interviews and how it is assessed, features of a task, task completion and the effect of conversation strategies on task completion will be discussed. The section will end by discussing the studies which aim to find out the relationship between conversational strategy use and speaking task performance and task performance scores.

Language Competencies

The question how languages are learned has long been a debate for the scholars in the field of SLA. A variety of approaches were proposed by researchers in endeavor to explain the mechanisms that enable language acquisition. Since these approaches or theories influenced language teaching pedagogy to a great extent, next part will review the emergence of these theories in a chronological order; linking these theories to competences related to speaking skill in general.

A Brief History on the Competencies in Language Acquisition

Since its beginnings, the field of SLA adopted theories and notions from many other disciplines; one of which was behaviourism. Originating from the field of psychology, behaviourism explains all kind of learning, including language learning, as the acquisition of a new behaviour (Van Patten & Williams, 2006). In this construct, environment is vital to learning as learning is initiated with the stimuli coming from the environment. According to behaviourist principles, when the stimuli is processed and imitated successfully, it receives positive reinforcement and the individual who receives this kind of reinforcement tends to repeat the outcome until it becomes a behaviour. Similarly, as Larsen-Freeman and Long (2014) explain, in order to learn a second language, correct models must be imitated in repetition. Behaviourist approach asserts that through this repetition and positive reinforcement, producing correct forms become habit, thus second language acquisition is achieved. Although behaviourism was able to explain some of the phenomena in language learning, this model explaining how languages are learned received criticism; mostly for the argument that it explains language learning as a mere repetition of forms process. Many models and competences were proposed to compensate for what

behaviourist construct lacked in terms of explaining how language learning occurs; one of which was *linguistic competence*.

One of the most prominent scholars associated with the term *linguistic competence* is Noam Chomsky who had a considerable impact on the field of second language acquisition. In his review of Skinner's book 'Verbal Behaviour,' Chomsky (1953, as cited in Canale, 1983) challenged the behaviourist construct in explaining the language acquisition by stating that language use is much too complex to be described with environmental stimuli and responses. He argued that humans possessed an internal mental device through which they can internalize a body of language rules. This ability to process and internalize language is defined as *linguistic competence*. Chomsky (1965) first introduced the term as a part of his 'generative grammar' concept but it has been developed by the linguists particularly in generativist tradition (e.g., Pustejovski, 1995; Jackendoff, 1997). Generative grammar is a more encompassing term which can be described as a theory which considers grammar as finite set of rules that could hypothetically produce an infinitive number of utterances (Rowe & Levine, 2006). Chomsky (1965) also differentiates linguistics competence from linguistic performance by asserting that former has to do with "an idealized capacity that is located as a psychological or mental property or function" (Chomsky, 2014, p. 22) whereas latter is the production of actual utterances. With this understanding of the competence and performance, language is seen as primarily cognitive phenomenon and "the use of linguistic code of a language (performance) is steered by tacit rule-based knowledge stored in in the minds of speakers (competence)" (Newby, 2011, p. 31). This Chomskyan view of language acquisition received critiques by several scholars in the field. Hymes (1972) criticized Chomsky's (1965) model for "isolating human mind from the social

context” (p. 272). In a similar vein, Halliday (1978) described language as social fact and reality and stressed out that people behave in accordance with the social structure, assume their roles and statuses and create and share systems of value and knowledge in their daily communicative acts. The criticisms directed by Hymes (1972) and Halliday (1978) did not address the nature of Chomskyan view of competence but its limited scope because it disregards the social context and explains language acquisition with cognitive processes only. Such criticisms led to a search for a broader definition of language that would include the social context as a component of competence and the term communicative competence came into existence. The next section will define what communicative competence is and describe several models proposed for communicative competence.

Communicative Competence

The term *communicative competence* was coined by Dell Hymes, a linguist and anthropologist, who defined the concept as “knowledge of utterance to a particular situation or context and of its sociocultural significance” (Hymes, 1972, p. 274). Savignon (1972) provides a broader definition by stating that communicative competence is “the ability of language learners to function in a truly communicative setting (...) by interacting with other speakers, making meaning, as distinct from their ability to perform on their discrete point tests of grammatical knowledge” (p. 44). Both definitions put an emphasis on the interaction taking place in speakers’ environment which constitutes a setting and context for communication.

Several scholars (e.g., Canale & Swain, 1980; Bachman, 1990) proposed communicative competence models which aimed to serve for instructional and assessment purposes. First of these models was developed by Canale and Swain

(1980) which was elaborated by Canale (1983) later on. According to this model, communicative competence has four components: a) *grammatical competence*, which refers to knowledge of the linguistic code such as grammar rules, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling, b) *sociolinguistic competence*, which is related to the appropriate use of language in context like appropriate use of vocabulary, politeness, register and style in particular situation, c) *discourse competence*, the ability to achieve coherence and cohesion in written and oral communication, and d) *strategic competence*, which can be regarded as the knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may enable the learner to overcome communication difficulties and breakdowns in a conversation (Triana, 2009). Canale and Swain's (1980) model bears many similar features compared to Hymes' (1972) model of communicative competence, except for the *strategic competence*, which was not included by Hymes in his model. Although the model received criticism from researchers (Popham, 1990; Schachter, 1990 as cited in Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurell, 1995) for its major components were not adequately defined, the model has been influential in defining the key points of communicative instruction. Canale and Swain's (1980) model is illustrated in the Figure 1 below.

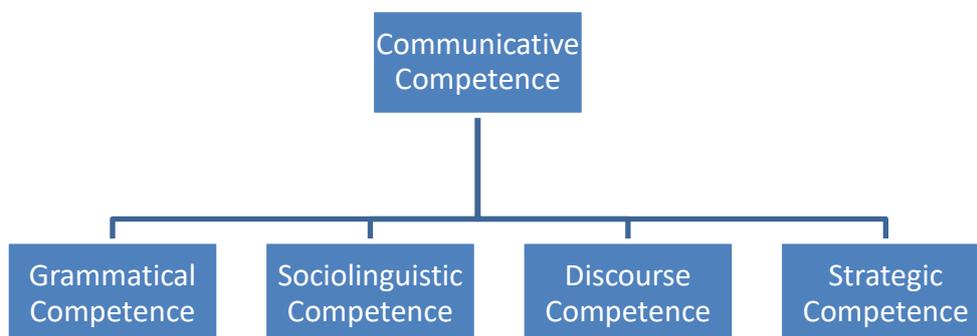


Figure 1. Canale and Swain's (1980) communicative competence model

Another model for communicative language abilities was proposed by Bachman (1990), who essentially divided language competence into two sub-competencies: a) *organizational competence*, and b) *pragmatic competence*. In Bachman's (1990) model, organizational competence has two sub-elements: a) *grammatical competence* which is in consonance with grammatical competence in Canale and Swain's (1980) model, and b) *textual competence*, which pertains to the knowledge of conventions for cohesion and coherence and rhetorical organization (Bachman, 1990). The conventions for language use in conversations involving starting, maintaining and closing conversations are also within the scope of textual competence. Textual competence in this model has similar features with Canale and Swain's (1980) discourse competence and strategic competence. The other component of Bachman's (1990) model is pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is described as "components that enable us to relate words and utterances to their meanings, to the intentions of language users and to relevant characteristics of the language use contexts" (Bachman, 1990 as cited in Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurell, 1995). Pragmatic competence also consists of two sub-competencies which are a) *illocutionary competence* and b) *sociolinguistic competence*. Illocutionary competence is the knowledge of the relationships between the utterances and intentions of the speakers whereas sociolinguistic competence is basically identical to sociolinguistic competence in Canale and Swain's (1980) model. Figure 2 below demonstrates what constitutes language competence in Bachman's (1990) model.

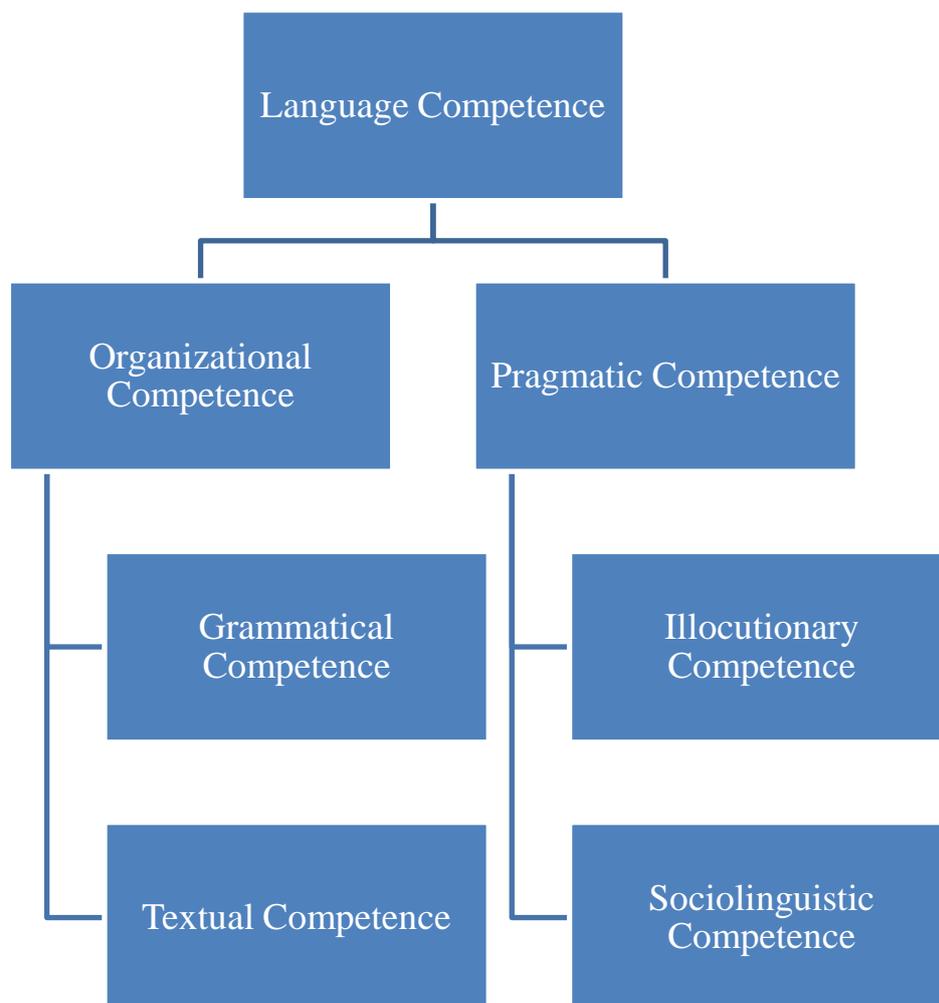


Figure 2. Components of language competence in Bachman's (1990) model of communicative language ability

Strategic Competence

Strategic competence may broadly be defined as the competence required to strategically employing linguistic and pragmatic resources speakers possess in an effective manner (Ellis, 2003). Some scholars (e.g., Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1997) assert that strategic competence is the ability to deal with breakdowns in communications and to make up for one's lack of resources and thus being able to negotiate the meaning intended.

Bachman (1990) perceives strategic competence central to the nature of conversation in general. He argues that strategic competence is metacognitive in nature and comprised of numerous complex operations like *determining communicative goals, assessing communicative resources, planning communication and executing communication* (Ellis, 2003). Bachman (1990) also points out that language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms are three components of the framework he proposed for Communicative Language Ability (CLA). The strategic competence in this framework characterizes the ability to implement the components of language ability in a contextualized conversational situation. Therefore, strategic competence comprises of minor decision making processes that occur during the course of a conversation such as determining what the interlocutor wants to achieve, assessing the resources available and making up for the lack of resources through use of strategies to convey the meaning. In that sense, the use of conversation strategies might be considered as part of speakers' mental capacity of managing resources to achieve communicative goal intended.

Psychophysiological mechanisms component of Bachman's (1990) model refers to the neurological processes during a conversation that emerge as a response to stimuli of physical nature like light, sound etc. Figure 3 illustrates the role of strategic competence in a conversation in relation to other components of Bachman's model (1990) for communicative language ability.

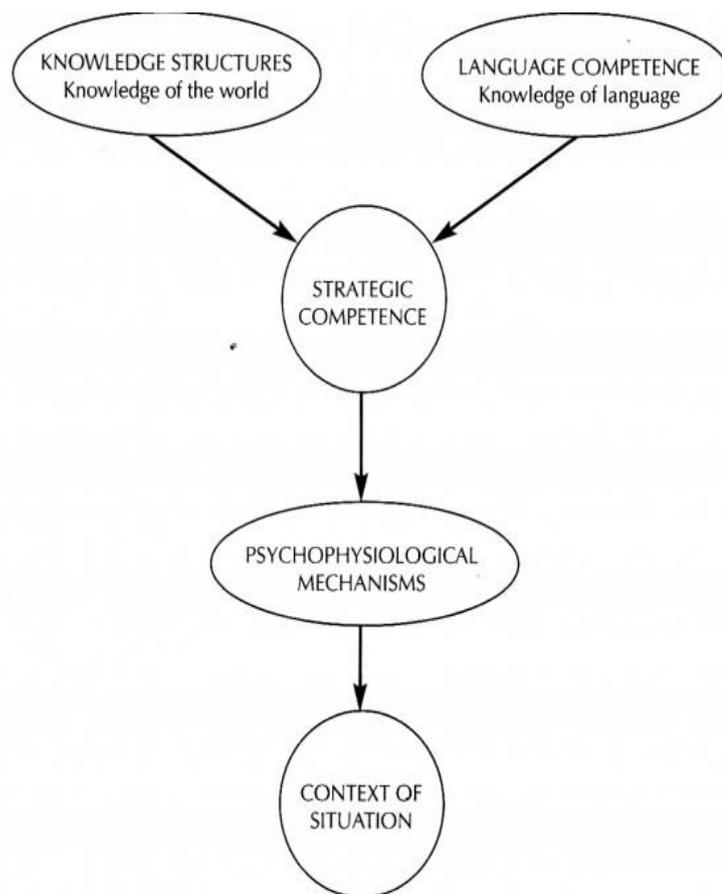


Figure 3. Components of CLA in communicative language use (adapted from Bachman,1990, p.85)

As Figure 3 depicts, in Bachman’s (1990) model of communicative language ability, the role of strategic competence is central: bridging the gap between knowledge a speaker possesses and the actual performance of producing language. Therefore, strategic competence of a language user serves as a means of commanding the grammatical and lexical resources at hand and compensating for the lack of the resources to convey the message in desired manner (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Strategic competence, in this sense, has similar features with ‘interactional competence’ which is a construct that falls under the scope of another discipline: conversation analysis.

Interactional Competence

The field of conversation analysis mainly deals with the interaction patterns occurring in conversations in mundane daily talks and structured institutional talks taking place in professional environments. As Heritage (1987) suggests, “the central objective of conversation analysis is to uncover the social competences which underlie social interaction, that is, the procedures and expectations through which interaction is produced and understood” (p. 258). Thus, conversation analysts suggest that contributing to interactions with communicative purposes requires competence on speakers’ part which is commonly referred as *interactional competence*. Interactional competence has common features with sociolinguistic aspects of communicative competence models of scholars (Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972).

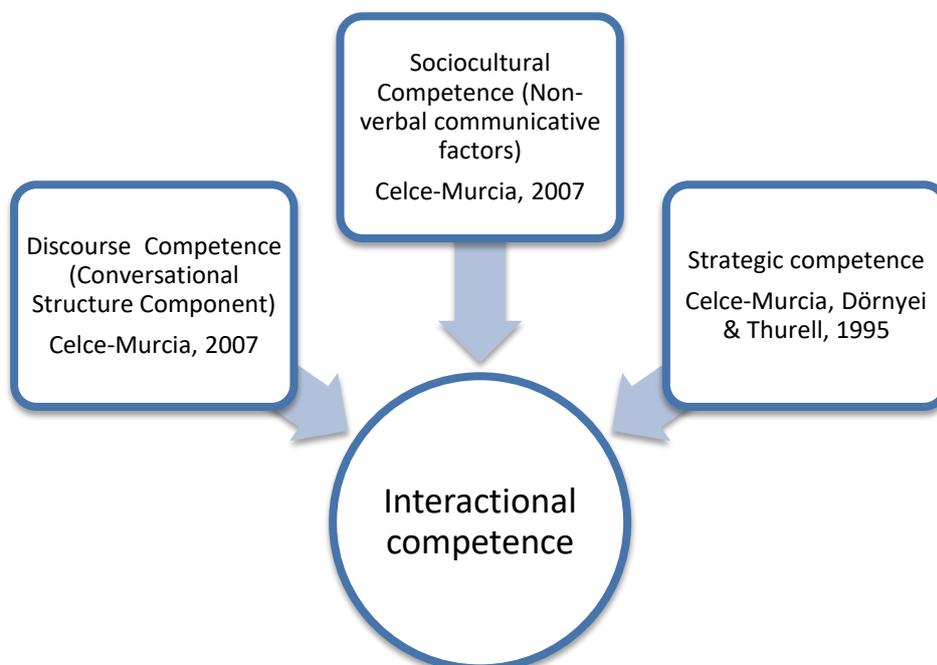


Figure 4. Components of interactional competence.

One of the most recent model of communicative competence is proposed by Celce-Murcia Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995) and interactional competence includes the conversational structure component of discourse competence, the nonverbal communicative factors component of sociocultural competence and all components of strategic competence of Celce-Murcia (2007), Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell's (1995) model of communicative competence (Markee, 2000, p. 64). Therefore, interactional competence comprises the knowledge of initiating and maintaining conversation and negotiating the meaning effectively in variant communicative situations. Appropriate use of non-verbal elements in conversation like body language, eye contact and proximity between interactants is also concern for interactional competence.

This section has reviewed four key competencies that are related to conversation strategies by defining these competencies and the presenting the components that constitute them. The next section, therefore, moves on to provide definitions, present background information about conversation strategies; which is a concept of prime importance for this study.

Conversation Strategies

Conversation strategies (CS), also addressed as communication strategies or oral communication strategies can be defined as the actions speakers resort to when they do not possess the necessary grammar and vocabulary resources and when they need to succeed in communicating within restrictions (Savignon, 1983). Utilization of communication strategies by second language learners is directly related to strategic competence component of Canale and Swain's (1980) widely recognised communicative competence model. Canale and Swain (1980) defined these strategies as "verbal and nonverbal strategies that may be called into action to compensate for

breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence”(p. 30). Another functional definition widely accepted by researchers is provided by Corder (1981, as cited in Dörnyei, 1995) stating that communication strategies are systematic techniques employed by a speaker when faced with difficulty in getting the message across. Although there have been a number of definitions about what communication strategies are; a universally accepted definition of the term still remains to be made (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Despite the differences among the definitions and conceptualization of conversation strategies, as most theorists argue, conversation strategies involve two features: problem-orientedness and consciousness (Metcalf & Nook-Ura, 2013). Therefore, in order to classify behaviour as a conversation strategy, there must be a direct response to a problem in conversation and this behaviour should be consciously used by the speaker (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

To clarify what constitutes a conversation strategy and to categorize the types of strategies, almost a dozen of taxonomies for identifying and classifying conversation strategies have been proposed by researchers (e.g., Tarone; 1977; Færch & Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1990; Willems, 1987; Poulisse, 1993). The taxonomies on communication strategies generally make a distinction between *achievement/compensatory strategies* and *reduction/abandonment strategies*. Achievement/compensatory strategies are defined as the type of strategies speakers resort in order to deal with the problematic areas that may hinder the delivery of the message (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Reduction/abandonment strategies, on the other hand, are generally employed by the speakers with low-proficiency in target language to avoid or abandon the message partially or completely thinking that conveying the intended message would not be possible with the linguistic resources at hand (Bialystok, 1990;

Færch & Kasper, 1983). Considering the scope of present study, only strategies categorized under achievement/ compensatory label is taken into consideration due to the difficulty of observing reduction/ abandonment strategies in oral exam performance video-recordings.

Combining communicational strategies from different taxonomies, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) classified total number of thirty-three strategies (see Appendix A). Some of these strategies are *message adjustment* or *avoidance*, *paraphrase*, *approximation*, *appeal for help*, *asking for repetition*, *asking for clarification*, *interpretive summary*, *checking for comprehension* and *use of fillers* (Dörnyei & Thurell, 1994). *Message adjustment* or *avoidance* can be explained as saying what you can instead of what you want or saying nothing at all because your language proficiency does not allow. *Paraphrase* refers to describing or exemplifying an action or a noun because speaker does not know or remember the name of the item or action. The conversation strategy *approximation* is used by speakers when they cannot use the exact lexical form in target language. The speakers then resort to a close term to convey meaning (e.g., using the word ship for boat). *Appealing for help* is the action of eliciting unknown words or phrases from the listener by asking questions such as: *What was ... called?* or *What do you call...?* etc. *Asking for repetition*, as its name implies, is the action of asking the speaker repeat a point listener fails to hear or understand. Asking for clarification strategy is resorted to when the content of the message is not comprehended clearly. Expressions like *What do you mean by...?* can be used to elicit the clarification. *Interpretive summary* means checking listeners' own comprehension by restating the expression they heard. *Comprehension checks* aim to understand if the listeners understood the speaker. Questions like *Are you with me* or *Do you understand what I mean?* are

means of employing comprehension check strategy in conversation. *Using hesitation devices* such as umm, uh, erm and well are communication strategies for purposes like buying time to think when in difficulty (Dörnyei & Thurell, 1994). *Use of hesitation devices* or *fillers* was regarded as a conversation strategy not because it helps the speaker achieve the communicative goal desired, but they serve as a means of keeping conversation channel open. However it should be noted that over and inappropriate use of hesitation devices might be seen as an indicator of lack of language proficiency whereas using them in place suggests otherwise. The inventory of classification of communication strategies provided by Dörnyei and Scott (1997) serves as a basis for identifying the communication strategies for this research as they included both compensation and negotiation aspect of communication strategies mentioned in the previous taxonomies.

Employing conversational strategies help speakers deal with the problems that stem from lack of language resources that lead to abrupt interruptions in conversations. Therefore, communication strategies attracted attention as significant tools that might possibly be used in language teaching pedagogy. However, the focus on conversation strategy training had its share of debates concerning its teachability. Some scholars argued that teaching these strategies would not be necessary because they are of the opinion that communication strategies develop in one's mother tongue and are easily transferrable to target language; regardless of the proficiency level of the speaker in L2 (Bongaerts & Poullisse, 1989; Bongaerts, Kellerman, & Bentlage, 1987; Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts, & Poullisse, 1990; Paribakht, 1985 as cited in Dörnyei, 1995). On the other hand, there are other researchers who believe strategy training is viable and desirable (e.g., Brooks, 1992; Chen, 1990; Færch &

Kasper, 1986; Paribakht, 1986; Rost, 1994; Rost & Ross, 1991; Savignon, 1990; Tarone & Yule, 1989).

Research on conversation strategies. When conversation strategies began to be presented as a component of several competence models (Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurell, 1995), the pedagogical weight conversational strategies carry became a focus of discussion. As the teachability of the conversation strategies was a matter of debate, whether strategy training affected strategy use became focus of inquiry for some researchers. For instance, in an attempt to discover the educational potential of conversational strategy training, Dörnyei (1995) conducted a quasi-experimental study involving one treatment group and two types of control groups. The experimental group received strategy training on three types of strategies; and those strategies are a) topic avoidance and replacement, b) circumlocution strategies, and c) using fillers or hesitation devices. The first type of control group, on the other hand, did not receive any sort of strategy training and followed their regular curriculum whereas second type of control group received general conversational training without focusing on strategy instruction. The study was conducted with 109 students who were administered pre and post-test aiming to see their use of conversation strategies and one-way ANOVA was conducted to analyse the results. He concluded in his study that all three types of strategies showed statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test results for treatment group; which may be interpreted as the evidence on teachability of conversation strategies. Dörnyei's (1995) conclusion was in line with several studies which implied that conversation strategy training is instructional and has impact on production performance of language learners (Færch & Kasper, 1983; Paribakht, 1986, Savignon, 1990; Tarone & Yule, 1989).Some

scholars (Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989; Bongaerts, Kellerman & Bentlage, 1987), on the other hand, agree that conversation strategies are impractical to teach because they assert that these strategies are first formed in language learners' first language and then transferred to target language; therefore the effort required for strategy training could be canalized into teaching more language as strategy use is rather adopted by language user than learned (Kellerman, 1991).

In her descriptive study, Faucette (2001) examined textbooks from renowned publishers to classify the conversation strategies included in these resources and discussed whether teaching of the conversation strategies in the books are pedagogically sensible. She also examined the types of activities through which conversation strategies are taught and the effectiveness of aforementioned activities in terms of language teaching pedagogy. She initially selected 40 books to include in her study; which she later reduced to 17 sources that actually employ strategy training within their syllabus. Faucette (2001) listed the most occurring conversation strategies in these resources as well as the resources in which conversation strategy teaching occurred with highest frequency. Arguing in favour of conversational strategy training, she concluded that emphasis put on strategy training in textbooks is quite limited; although she admitted that her study was quite limited in terms of the number of resources examined.

Unlike the theoretical aspect, very few researches investigated the use or teaching of conversation strategies in classroom (Gilmore, 2011; Taylor, 2002; Triana, 2009; Washburn & Christianson, 1995). Gilmore (2011) conducted a longitudinal quasi-experimental study to observe the effect of authentic materials on Japanese EFL students' communicative competence development and strategy use. He utilized eight different tests to operationalize communicative competence and

found that experimental group outperformed the control group in five of the eight scales. He also concluded that the group which received instruction through authentic materials used conversation strategies accurately more often than control group did. Similarly, Taylor (2002) investigated intermediate level Spanish EFL students' frequency of conversation strategy use after an implementation of tasks for two groups: 1) role enactment, and 2) discussion. The study used a repeated measure design and pre-test and post-test results indicated that the discussion group demonstrated a statistically significant increase in strategy use whereas the difference for role enactment group was not statistically significant. Another researcher researching conversation strategies in classroom context was Triana (2009); who identified the types of conversation strategies students 1) used and 2) developed for themselves. To that end, Triana (2009) video-recorded and transcribed the in-class conversations of 13 beginner level Columbian EFL students and categorized the strategies that students used in three main categories: 1) strategies to start a conversation, 2) strategies to sustain a conversation and, 3) strategies to end a conversation. Finally, Washburn and Christianson (1995) used a method they referred to as 'pair-taping' to record and observe the occurrence of four types of strategies: follow-up questions and comments, turn-taking, back-channel cues and requesting and giving clarifications. They suggested in their study that, students had the chance to face the challenge of oral production of language with their student peers; which enabled them to use conversation strategies in a more effective and meaningful way.

So far, this chapter has focused on theoretical issues and empirical evidence related to conversation strategies. The next section of the chapter, therefore moves on to present considerations on language assessment; specifically testing speaking and

performance-based assessment. Finally, this chapter concludes by discussing the relationship between performance-based spoken tests and conversation strategies.

Testing Speaking

In accordance with language teaching, language testing underwent a significant change with the introduction of communicative approaches to language testing. In previous methodologies speaking skill was not considered to be worthy of teaching or testing; however speaking began to be perceived as central with communicative language teaching paradigm (Bygate, 2009). As teaching and testing are inseparable components of curriculum, the focus on teaching for spoken interaction brought an emphasis on assessing oral performances.

According to Hughes (2007), three main types of tests can be used to evaluate oral performances of test takers: response to tape-recordings, interaction with peers, and interviews. In response to tape-recording format, candidates are given a sort of video or audio stimuli and expected to respond to them accordingly (Hughes, 2007). As this format is suitable for testing large number of candidates on condition that a language laboratory exists, it is widely preferred for tests like TOEFL. This format of testing oral ability, however, does not provide chance to follow-up candidate responses; therefore authenticity of the format is highly questionable. The second format of testing speaking is interaction tasks; in which meaningful interaction between the candidates or between a candidate and interlocutor is enabled through information-gap tasks. In information-gap tasks one party does not have the piece of information and this urges participants to negotiate meaning, elicit question forms and use the resources they have strategically to complete the task at hand. Thus, this type of oral testing is advantageous in terms of “representing real conversation” (Hughes, 2007, p. 81). However, this format is in a way more time-consuming when

compared to respond to tape-recordings format and may not be practical with large number of test-takers. The final format for assessing oral ability is oral interviews. Oral interviews may entail several types of tasks ranging from question-and-answer sessions to pair tasks or group discussions. Oral interviews may be put under various categories based on the way they are structured and number of the test-takers assessed. According to the way oral interviews are structured, there are two types of oral interviews: the free interview and the controlled interview.

In the free interviews, no prior preparations are made to elicit certain type of language from the candidates beforehand. Although this type of interview is easy to develop and does not require a lot of effort on interlocutors' side, it is not a favourable method of oral assessment because of the difficulty of assessing performances. The performances of candidates tend to vary from one topic to another and reliable scoring becomes hard to attain; especially when the rubric for evaluation includes limited descriptors for each type of scale (Weir, 1988). This type of oral interview is not also preferable for assessing large groups of test-takers due to time constraints and practicality issues.

Second type of oral interviews is the controlled interview which is conducted according to some set of procedures determined beforehand. This helps candidates put forth similar performances as test developers provide them with some sort of frame. Thus, performances become easier to compare, contrast and score (McNamara, 1996). Controlled interviews have some disadvantages as well; the type of tasks or topics candidates deal with in this type of interviews may be too specific to certain language items; that is, these tasks or topics may not be comprehensive enough compared to what test-takers might experience in real-life situations. As for

the scoring, inter-rater and intra-rater reliabilities are points to consider for this type of interviews (Weir, 1988).

Oral interviews may also be divided into three categories according to the number of the test takers: individual interviews, pair interviews and group interviews. The types of interaction demonstrate difference based on the number of the candidates in each interview format.

In the interviews which are conducted individually, the interaction takes place between interlocutor and the candidate. In this type of interaction, conversation is dominated by the interlocutor and the candidate acts as a respondent. Through this one-to-one question-answer process, interlocutor aims to see the proficiency level of the test-taker.

Pair interview is another form of oral interviews. In pair interviews, the interaction occurs between two candidates and the role of the interlocutor is to facilitate the task assigned to candidates and observe the performance to be assessed. Direct interaction between the examiner and the test takers are limited in this type of oral interview. Similarly, group interviews entail candidate-to-candidate interaction; however test-takers are required to carry out a group task in this type of oral interviews.

As Davies (1990) points out, to ensure valid and reliable scoring in oral interviews, design of the tasks used in the interviews is another significant point to be considered thoroughly along with how oral interviews are structured. According to Hughes (2007), “the relationship between the tester and the candidate is usually such that candidate speaks to a superior and is unwilling to take initiative” (p. 107). Therefore, elicited type of speech is limited and many language functions are not

represented in candidates' performance. Overcoming this problem requires design of the tasks which minimize the examiner-to-candidate interaction and maximize candidate-to-candidate information exchange. Thus, it becomes significant to determine what a communicative task is, how communicative ability of examinees should be operationalized through the tasks and how task performance should be assessed.

Nunan (1989) describes a communicative task as follows:

A task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right (p. 10).

This definition takes multiple dimensions of a task into account; such as scope of a task, psychological processes involved in task performance and outcome of a task (Ellis, 2003).

Tasks and Interaction

Generally maintaining a conversation is effort-demanding for language learners because the process is twofold: the people who are engaged in the conversation (1) need to understand what is said to them, and (2) respond appropriately and convey their message. Considering the fact that learners may also possess linguistic deficiencies, there are minor mechanisms that determine the quality of the interaction between the speakers (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

Ellis (2003) identifies three constructs involved in the process of learner interaction: (1) negotiation of meaning, (2) use of communication (also referred to as conversation) strategies, and (3) communicative effectiveness. According to Alberts, Martin and Nakayama (2011) negotiation of meaning refers to speakers' effort to mend breakdown that occur during a conversation. These efforts include a range of linguistic tools that help conversation maintain. The devices speakers resort to cope with breakdowns in conversations and negotiate the meaning are called communication strategies (Færch & Kasper, 1983). Speakers' command of conversation strategies and ability to negotiate the meaning contributes to their communicative effectiveness. These three constructs, according to Bialystok (1983), are the mechanisms that help speakers with limited resources succeed in conversational situations or tasks. Following section will report on information gap tasks as these are the types of tasks used in oral interviews that constitute the main source of data for this study.

Information-gap task can be defined as "a task where one participant holds information that the other participant(s) do(es) not have and that must be exchanged in order to complete the task" (Ellis, 2003, p. 343). Based on direction of information exchange, information tasks could either be one-way or two-way. In one-way information-gap tasks, one speaker holds the information required to complete the task. For instance describing scenery and having your partner draw the picture might be a good example of one-way information transfer whereas a task where speakers are required to get to know each other signifies two-way information exchange as both speakers hold vital information for completion of tasks. In oral interview performances, one way information gaps usually happen between interlocutor and candidate and two-way information exchange occurs among candidates.

Studies with different results exist in the literature regarding whether there is a discrepancy in amount of negotiation of meaning effort between one-way and two-way information gap tasks. Long (1983) for instance, concluded from his study that learners produced more effort to negotiate meaning in two-way information-gap tasks compared to one-way ones. On the other hand, several studies have failed to illustrate the positive effect of use of two-way information-gap tasks on candidates' effort for meaning negotiation. Varonis and Gass (1985) found no statistically significant difference between two types of information exchange in their study. In a similar vein, Jauregi (1990, in Ellis, 2003) found that one-way task produced more negotiation effort than two-way task.

With the introduction of communicative approaches to instruction in language classrooms, new techniques of tests that aim to measure learners' ability to communicate in a given situation have also appeared (Chalhoub-Deville, 1996; McNamara, 2000). These new performance-based assessment techniques of the test-takers allowed testers to observe the extent to which students can use their knowledge in real-life situations. However, this type of assessment based on the performance required a judging process by human raters; and this has brought out some concerns about reliability issues regarding the scoring process of evaluating performances. To assure standardized scoring between raters or within raters, Bachman and Palmer (1996) point to the necessity to use some sort of scale (also referred to as rubric or criteria factor) to attain an acceptable level of reliability in scoring. There are two types of assessment criteria in scoring: holistic and analytic.

Holistic scales are generally practical for overview of communicative effectiveness but usually they are not preferable for high-stake exams. Analytic rubrics, on the other hand, allow focusing on the several qualities of the performance;

such as grammar use, vocabulary range, fluency, comprehension, interaction and task completion. Since task completion aspect of oral performances is within the scope of this study, it will be discussed in more detail below.

Task completion and conversation strategies. Task completion component of a rubric is designed to score the extent to which candidate attained the communicative goal of the task she/he was assigned (Ellis, 2003). In other words, task completion band of a rubric answers the questions '*What was the comprehensiveness level of achievement in terms of reaching the objectives task required from the candidate(s)?*' and '*What was the appropriateness level of the responses candidate(s) during the conversational task?*' Carrying out a task is a complex process and requires performers' utilization of mechanisms like determining the communicative goal of the tasks, assessing the linguistic resources performers have, using language and strategic devices to fulfill the task requirement etc. Task completion in an assessment rubric is concerned with how these mechanisms fit into one another in test-takers' performance and whether the communicative purpose of the task is achieved.

Task performance involves users' or learners' strategic command of multiple competencies and task related factors (Council of Europe, 2001). To attain what a given task requires, learners naturally activate the general or communicative strategies at their disposal to take the conversation to its desired conclusion (Kehe & Kehe, 1994). Therefore, communicative strategy use can be perceived as a component of task completion process. Council of Europe (2001) highlights the relationship between task completion and conversational strategies as follows:

In carrying out a communication task, an individual selects, balances, activates and co-ordinates the appropriate components of those competences necessary for task planning, execution, monitoring/evaluation, and (where necessary) repair, with a view to the effective achievement of his or her intended communicative purpose. Strategies (general and communicative) provide a vital link between the different competences that the learner has (innate or acquired) and successful task completion. (p. 159)

According to the description provided here, use of conversation strategies is a tool that might assist performers in an oral interview in accomplishing the objectives inscribed by the test task. Through the use of strategies to start, maintain and end conversations, test takers could perform better in oral interviews in terms of task completion.

Studies on the effect of conversation strategies on task performance.

There has been a number of studies investigating the relationship between the use of communication strategies and its possible effect on task performance (e.g., Lam, 2006, 2009, 2010; Littlemore, 2003; Rossiter, 2003; Pawlak, 2015). In her attempt to reveal the effects of communicative strategy training on learners' performance and strategy use, Lam (2006) used a mixed-method approach to examine the impact of oral communication strategy training on 40 ESL learners' spoken performances and strategy use. The students were in two different intact classes constituting control and experimental groups of the study. Experimental group received 16 hours of explicit oral communication strategy training while the control group pursued their studies without any training in strategy use. The result of Lam's (2006) study suggested that treatment class outperformed control group; especially in terms of task effectiveness

or task completion. Similarly, Rossiter (2003) conducted her research with two groups of adult immigrants in Canada; and one group received 12 hours of conversational strategy training whereas other group served as a control group. Rossiter (2003) concluded that strategy training was favourable due to post-test results. In another study, Maleki (2007) instructed 30 Iranian students through oral communication strategies incorporated materials as another group of 30 students were instructed through materials without specific communication strategies. His results were in favour of conversational strategy training and the results of the study indicated that the materials with specific communication strategies proved to be more effective compared to the ones without them.

Although the relationship between oral communication strategy training and speaking task performance have been investigated to a certain extent, very few studies examined this type of relationship in oral examination context. One of these studies belonged to Nakatani (2005), who instructed 62 female learners (n = 28 for strategy training group, n=34 for control group) throughout 12 weeks course. Strategy training group used materials designed for explicit oral communication strategy and control group received only normal communicative course with no emphasis on oral communication strategies. Nakatani's (2005) findings demonstrated that strategy training group had significant difference in pre and post-course oral proficiency exams whereas the difference was not statistically significant in the control group. Similar to Nakatani's (2005) research design, Rabab'ah (2016) provided 44 EFL learners with strategy training throughout 14 week course as the control group (n = 36) received regular communicative course with no specific oral communication strategy instruction. Pre and post-test results of participants in the training group and control group from IELTS speaking part and course exit speaking

exam results were compared; and findings revealed that strategy training group outperformed control group in IELTS scores. Barkoui, Brook, Swain and Lapkin's (2013) study partially examined the effect of conversational strategy use (along with other factors like learning strategies) on TOEFL iBT speaking test performances. Contradictory to Nakatani's (2005) and Rabab'ah's (2016) findings, Barkoui et al. (2013) did not find a relationship between strategy use and speaking test scores. The number of studies investigating oral communication strategy use in speaking test performance is quite few (Seong, 2014). Therefore, the current study may shed light on the effects of strategy use on speaking exam performances; specifically oral proficiency exams.

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the key concepts related to this study investigating the effect of use of conversation strategies on proficiency oral exam performances. This chapter began by explaining the language competencies and language competency models under which conversational strategies are categorized. It went on by reviewing the literature on testing speaking with a focus on oral interviews, assessment of oral interviews, task and task completion. Finally the relationship between task completion and conversational strategy use was underlined. The next chapter describes the procedures and methods used in this study.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The study aimed to explore if there is a statistically significant difference between teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies and students' perceptions on whether these strategies were covered in in-class activities. Secondly, this study also intended to see whether students perceived conversational strategy instruction as a vital component of syllabus designed for speaking classes specifically. Another purpose of this study was to reveal the extent to which conversation strategies taught in language classes were utilized by EFL learners in spoken proficiency exams. The study also aimed to investigate, if any, the relationship between tertiary level English for foreign language (EFL) students' use of conversation strategies in spoken proficiency exams they take and the scores they get in these exams. To that end, the questions to be addressed in the study were as follows:

1. Is there a difference between teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies and students' perceptions on whether these strategies are taught or not?
2. What are students' perceptions on the necessity of teaching conversation strategies as part of classes that aim to promote speaking ability?
3. To what extent do tertiary level EFL students apply conversation strategies they are taught in the classroom in the oral exams?
4. To what extent does the use of conversation strategies impact:
 - a) students' task completion scores?

b) students' oral interview scores?

This chapter is composed of four main sections: the settings and participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures. In the first section, information about the participants in the study and the setting in which the study was conducted are presented. In the second section, the instruments used in the research are described. In the third section, the chronologically organized procedures for data collection are explained. And in the final section of this chapter, the procedures through which collected data is analyzed are provided.

Settings and Participants

This study is conducted at School of Foreign Languages at Bülent Ecevit University. Students in this institution receive language education intensively throughout two semesters; by the end of which they are expected to take a proficiency exam and succeed in it in order to continue their studies in their departments. Before the academic year starts, students are required to take a proficiency exam. Those who achieve a minimum score of 60 out of 100 are not obliged to receive education at the School of Foreign Languages; they may prefer to pursue their departmental studies instead. Students who cannot meet this requirement have to study Basic English in the institution for a year. Students who fail to go on with their departmental studies take a placement test; as a result of which they are divided into three levels of proficiency: B, C and D levels (from highest to the lowest). All students enrolled in the Department of Basic English need to meet the same proficiency exit level; which is A2 according to Common European Framework Reference (CEFR). The majority of student success is determined by final proficiency exam. Final proficiency exam aims to evaluate students' hold of

grammar and vocabulary use to as well as their ability to communicate verbally and on written discourse. This institution is preferred for research mainly because of two reasons: a) the students receiving education in this school are from different parts of Turkey with varying educational backgrounds; therefore the sample group could represent the intended population, and b) this particular institution is one of the few universities which administer and record oral interviews in midterm and final exams as a part of their testing and evaluation system. Another reason why this institution is selected to conduct this study is it employs a corpus-based text book as main teaching tool that has sections reserved for providing tips for achieving success in completion of a conversational task (see Appendix B). These tips or ‘conversation strategies’ are provided within relevant contexts throughout the series of the text book. Thus, students have the opportunity to practice and employ conversation strategies through real life-like role play activities.

The participants of the study consist of 19 teachers (16 female, 3 male); who were selected on voluntary basis. These teachers are teachers of English in foreign language context and are also native speakers of Turkish. The participants also include 261 students chosen among the participating teachers’ classes.

The demographic information of both students and teachers were collected via questionnaires which include separate items for teachers and students (see Appendices C.1 and C.2). The demographic part of the questionnaire for teachers includes questions that address participants’ gender, teaching experience and educational background. The questionnaire administered to students, on the other hand, comprised of questions related to students’ age and gender (See Table 1 and 2).

Table 1

<i>Demographic Information of the Teachers</i>		
Background Information	N	%
Gender		
Female	16	84.2
Male	3	15.8
Total	19	100
Distribution of Teachers by last Degrees		
BA	10	52.6
MA continuing	4	21.1
MA	4	21.1
PhD continuing	1	5.3
Total	19	100
Distribution of Teachers by Undergraduate Degrees		
ELT	14	73.7
English Language and Literature/American Culture and Literature	4	21.1
Translation and Interpretation	1	5.3
Total	19	100
Distribution of Teachers by English Language Teaching experience		
1-3 year(s)	3	15.8
4-6 years	2	10.5
7-9 years	7	36.8
10-12 years	4	21.1
13-15 years	2	10.5
15+ years	1	5.3
Total	19	100

Table 2

Demographic Information of the Students

Student Information	N	%
Gender		
Female	147	56.3
Male	114	43.7
Total	261	100
Age		
17-19	116	44.4
20-22	126	48.3
23-25	15	5.7
26+	4	1.5
Total	261	100

Instruments

Prior to administering 50 item questionnaire, a reliability analysis of the survey was conducted with three instructors and 50 students ($\alpha=.924$). At this stage, researcher administered the questionnaire to the students with the help of instructors in order to observe whether there were any items students get confused while completing the survey. Any mistakes regarding wording of the questions were corrected considering the feedback received from teachers and students. 11 items showing low level of reliability were removed from student and teacher surveys. Student and teacher responses to the questionnaire were entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 20).

For this study, the data came from the following sources; a) textbooks through which classes are taught, b) surveys containing parallel items for both

student and teacher participants, and c) final exam speaking test recordings and d) final exam score sheets of students. Each of the instruments is explained in detail below.

The Coursebook

The course books the institution uses are corpus-based books which have modules in each unit reserved for teaching conversation strategies explicitly. Throughout the academic year which consists of two semesters, three books of the series are used as the teaching material. Through a content analysis of these books, types of the conversation strategies presented are classified and where these strategies are introduced and recycled is defined. Table 3 below shows some strategies coming from the content analysis of the course books.

Table 3

A Sample of Strategies from the Content Analysis of the Books

Function the Strategy Serves	Operation Intended	Target Expressions
Starting the conversation	Initiating a conversation with strangers	“Do you come here a lot?”, “Nice weather, isn’t it?” etc.
Social Interaction Functions	Making/ Responding to offers and Promises	I’ll..., Let’s ... “That sounds like fun”, “Well, I’d like to, but...”, “Oh, I’d love to.” Etc.
	Emphasizing feelings	Using superlatives: E.g: This is the most incredible place...

Table 3 (Cont'd)

A Sample of Strategies from the Content Analysis of the Books

Coping with Problems	Appealing for help	What did you call those?, What was his name again? Etc.
	Self-repair: Correcting things you say	Well, Actually, No wait, I mean
	Asking for confirmation: echo questions	E.g: The new Shakespeare play is on. – Excuse me. The new what?
Ending the Conversation	Signalling the end the conversation	“Anyway, I’ve got to go”, “Look at the time” etc.

Conversation strategies presented in the books were divided into seven categories based on their function. These categories are *starting the conversation, maintaining the conversation, social interaction functions, being polite, being practical in conversation, coping with problems* and *ending the conversation*. Under each category, these strategies are also classified into subcategories according to their operation. While classifying the strategies presented, descriptions of conversation strategies provided in teacher’s guide section of the course book were taken as basis. The content analysis revealed where and how many times these operations occurred in the books (see Appendix D).

Questionnaires for Students and Teachers

The items in the surveys for teachers and students were developed based on the content analysis of the course books. The survey administered to the teachers aimed to reveal their reported practices of teaching conversation strategies whereas the survey intended for students had the purpose of investigating the perceptions of students on whether conversation strategies were being taught or not.

The questionnaires were piloted with three teachers and 50 students for reliability analysis. The classes in which piloting was conducted were selected among the teachers who volunteered to participate in the study. First, 61 items were developed by the researcher as a result of the content analysis of the books. In the piloting process, students and teachers were administered the questionnaires and according to the feedback they provided, the items that caused confusion for the participants were noted. As a result, 11 items were removed from the questionnaires and the wording of 12 items was revised. The students' perception questionnaire was found to be highly reliable (50 items; $\alpha = .924$).

Final Exam Video Recordings and Student Score Sheets

As part of final proficiency exam, students are required to take oral interviews and these interviews are videotaped for archiving. These interviews consist of two parts. In the first part students are interviewed individually and in the second part they are asked to complete a conversation task which involves working as pairs. The performance of students were evaluated by two assessors using a rubric (see Appendix E) designed for this particular purpose. The pair-task section of these videos was analyzed for determination of the frequency of use of conversation analysis. In order to ensure the reliability of analysis of the video-recordings to see the evidence of conversation strategy use, 107 speaking exam video performances (%53 of the total performances) were re-analyzed by an English Language instructor working in the same institution. Prior to content analysis of the videos, aforementioned instructor was informed about the target expressions which may indicate the use of conversation strategies presented in the course books. The

difference of conversational strategy use frequency in video recordings detected by the researcher and the examining instructor was less than 10 % of the total cases examined (nine times). The reason why only pair-task section is chosen for analysis is, as Willis and Willis (1996) point out, putting conversation strategies into action requires a two-way meaning negotiation and the individual task part of the exam requires one-way message delivery from the speaker to listener.

Data Collection Procedures

Necessary permissions were requested from the university to conduct the study, and once the permissions were granted, all the teachers in the institution were sent an informative e-mail about the research and its procedures, and researcher requested they respond to the e-mail indicating whether they would like to participate. Verbal and written consent of the teachers who volunteered to participate in the study were received.

Upon receiving the responses, the researcher first conducted the content analysis of three textbooks of the series. As a result of this analysis, the type and frequency of each conversation strategy was defined, and strategies taught in the books were categorized. Based on the content analysis, surveys were developed by the researcher to be administered to students and teachers.

Following this procedure, the researcher obtained the final speaking exam recordings from the institution. The speaking exam performance videos of the students who received their language education in participating teachers' classes were selected to be analyzed. Total number of 201 videos of speaking performances was analyzed.

By examining the speaking exam video recordings, the researcher investigated the frequency of conversation strategies students' use in their speaking exams. In light of the data coming from content analysis of the course books and video recordings, the correlation between students' conversation strategies use in the speaking exams and frequency of teaching of these conversation strategies in the course books was examined.

For the final part of the data collection procedures, the rubrics by which students' performances were evaluated were obtained from the Speaking Office of Bülent Ecevit University, School of Foreign Languages. The relationship between students' conversation strategy use in the final speaking exam and the task completion and overall scores they received was investigated using correlation tests. Figure 5 illustrates the data collection process.

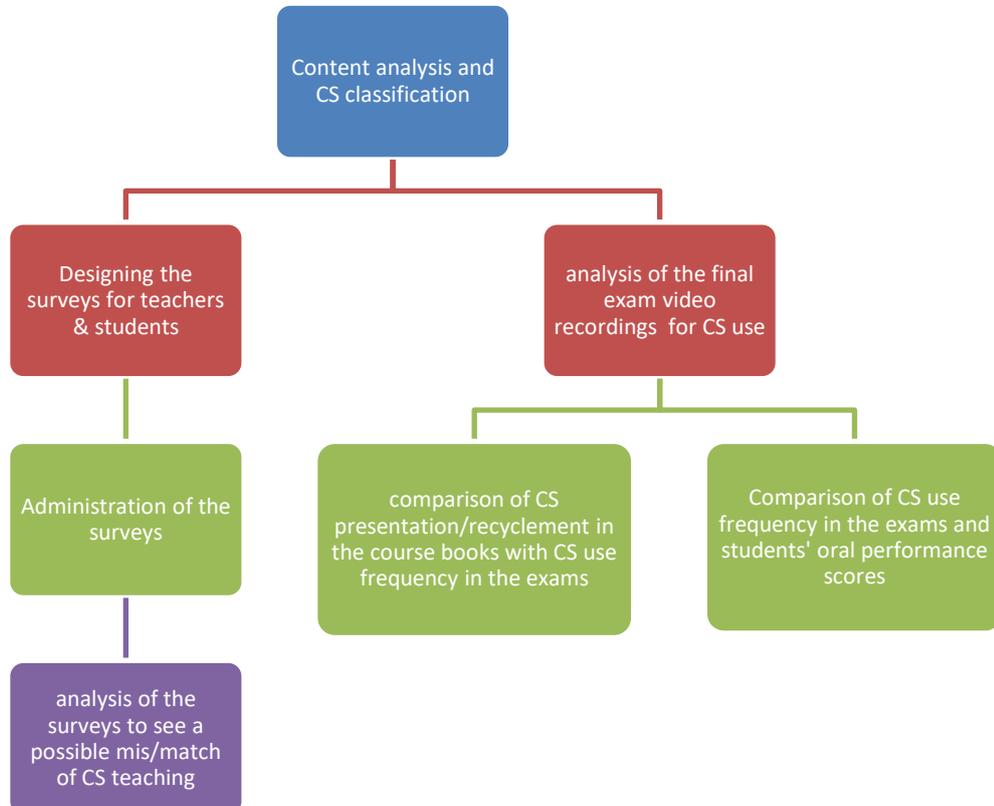


Figure 5. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Data Analysis Procedures

In the present study, quantitative data analysis method was used to address the research questions that intend to investigate if conversation strategy teaching has an effect on learners' conversation strategy use and overall oral speaking exam performances.

In order to see the similarities or differences between the items in the surveys administered to teachers and students, data coming from the surveys were analyzed quantitatively via Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) v.20. An independent sample *t*-test was conducted to see whether there is a statistically significant difference among the responses of teacher and student informants.

Secondly, at the end of the students' perception questionnaire, participants were asked to respond to the question "*In your opinion, what could be done to improve your speaking abilities during the classes in which the activities to encourage you to speak are done?*" The aim of this question was to observe the extent to which, if any, students perceive the necessity of teaching conversational strategies in speaking classes. To that end, student responses to this question was transcribed and translated into English. Translated texts were submitted to a word cloud application and frequent terms or phrases were associated with larger constructs such as motivation, testing, native/non-native instructors etc. Thus, thematic analysis of student responses was conducted.

Thirdly, the relationship between the frequency of conversation strategy teaching/recycling in the course books coming from the content analysis and students' use of these strategies in speaking exams was investigated through a correlation test using SPSS.

Finally for the first part of the fourth research question, students' conversation strategy use frequency and the scores assigned by the raters for the task completion part of the rubric was used so as to see the correlation between these two variables. Similarly, for the second part of the same question the correlation between students' conversation strategy use frequency and the scores assigned to learners for overall speaking performances was examined. The analysis of the scores was conducted quantitatively to find out whether there is a relationship between conversation strategy use and speaking exam performance.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the methodology of the study, including participants and setting, instruments, and data collection and analysis procedures were explained. The next chapter will provide detailed information about the findings of the analyses conducted in this study.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

Introduction

This study investigated, 1) whether there were any differences between the reported practices of instructors at Bülent Ecevit University School of Foreign Languages of whether they taught conversation strategies (CS), and students' perceptions on whether these strategies were taught or not; 2) students' perceptions on the necessity of conversation strategy instruction in classes in which the focus is on promoting communicative ability; 3) the extent to which these conversation strategies were utilized in oral proficiency exams; and 4) the effect of using conversation strategies on speaking exam scores of tertiary level English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students. The research questions addressed in the study were:

1. Is there a mis/match between teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies and students' perceptions on whether these strategies were taught or not?
2. What are students' perceptions on the necessity of teaching conversation strategies as a part of classes that aim to promote speaking ability?
3. To what extent do tertiary level EFL students apply conversation strategies they are taught in the classroom during the speaking exams?
4. To what extent does the use of conversation strategies impact:
 - a) students' task completion scores?
 - b) students' oral interview scores?

To answer these questions, 261 students and 19 teachers were administered two different questionnaires with 50 items parallel to one another. These questionnaires served as a means of understanding whether there is a resemblance or discrepancy between student and teacher responses. The students' survey also included one open ended question aiming to reveal students' further suggestions on how their speaking abilities might have been improved in the classes where the main focus is the kind of activities that encourage them to speak more. The principal aim of this open ended question was to see how frequently students would mention teaching conversation strategies to improve their communicative abilities. Then, in order to reveal the extent to which students make use of conversation strategies in their oral examination performances; a comparison between the frequencies of conversation strategies occurrence in course books and frequency of students' conversation strategy use in oral examination was drawn. Finally, these frequencies of CS use and the scores students received in the speaking exams were compared to find whether there was a correlation.

Data Analysis Procedure

The initial part of the data gathered for this study was the content analysis of the students' course books for the purpose of identification and classification of the conversation strategies. As a result of the analysis, researcher classified the conversation strategies presented and recycled in the books into seven main categories according to the function of the strategy. These categories were: (a) *starting the conversation*, (b) *maintaining the conversation*, (c) *social interaction functions*, (d) *being polite*, (e) *being practical in conversation*, (f) *coping with problems*, and (g) *ending the conversation*. Under each category, the conversation strategies were divided into various numbers of operations according to the

conversational purpose they served. In order to make it easier for the following stages of the research, researcher also added target expressions or acts which may serve as an indicator of the operations that emerged from content analysis.

Results

Research Question 1: Students' Perceptions and Teachers' Reported Practices on Teaching of Conversation Strategies (CS) in Classroom Activities

To investigate the possible similarities or differences between teachers' reported practices of and students' perceptions on whether CS were taught in class, responses coming from participants were evaluated using an independent samples *t*-test analysis. Total number of 19 teachers reported on their practices of teaching conversation strategies whereas 261 students reflected their perceptions on whether these conversation strategies had been the focus of instruction in their classes (see Appendix F). Following sections present the independent samples *t*-test results which indicate the occurrence of mis/match for each questionnaire item based on the categories of conversation strategies presented in the course books. When categories were being formed, two resources were taken into consideration: 1) classification of compensatory communication strategies by Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurell (1995), and 2) descriptors provided in teachers' book component of the course books regarding how conversation strategies taught. As a result, conversation strategies were classified into seven categories based on the language function they serve: 1) starting the conversation, 2) maintaining the conversation, 3) social interaction functions, 4) being polite, 5) being practical in conversations 6) coping with problems and 7) ending the conversation.

Starting the conversation. In student and teacher questionnaires, two items aimed to see whether there is a difference between student and teacher responses regarding strategies about starting the conversation. The items and the strategies they address are given in Figure 6 below.

Item #	Description
1	Greetings
3	Common topics to initiate a conversation with strangers

Figure 6. Operations of the strategies under starting the conversation category

Table 4

Mean Differences Regarding the Items for Starting The Conversation Category

			\bar{x}	SD	df	T	p
Item	Operation						
1	Greetings	T	4.26	.872	278	-.376	.707
		S	4.35	1.007			
3	Using common topics to initiate a conversation (with a stranger)	T	3.63	.761	278	-3.621	.000**
		S	4.41	.914			

**p < .01

Note: T: Teacher, S: Student

Table 4 above shows the difference between the perceptions of the students and reported practices of the teachers regarding the items addressing strategies that are primarily used to initiate a conversation. The category ‘starting the conversation’ included two items related to the ways of greeting people and using a common topic to initiate a conversation with strangers. As shown in Table 4, the findings pointed to a statistically significant difference between teachers’ reported practices ($\bar{x} = 3.63$,

$SD = .761$) and student perceptions ($\bar{x} = 4.41$, $SD = .914$) in terms of teaching conversation strategies related to *starting the conversation* for item # 3 (*using common topics to initiate a conversation with strangers*) ($t(278) = -3.621$), $p < .01$).

It can be concluded for item #3 that students have a more positive opinion on whether strategies for using common topics to start a conversation with strangers were covered compared to what their teachers reported on teaching them in class. In other words, teachers reported that they paid less attention on teaching conversation strategies related to *starting the conversation* category than what students perceive. As for the item #1 in the scale, which was about *greetings*, no statistically significant difference was found.

The analysis for starting a conversation category show that for item #3 (*using common topics to initiate a conversation with a stranger*) students thought that in their classes, teachers focused on this strategy more than their teachers reported. The results of the content analysis demonstrate that strategies related to using common topics to initiate a conversation with strangers were presented and recycled two times throughout the course books. The reason for the difference between student perceptions and teachers' reports might be because teachers might have deemed these strategies were not covered comprehensively in the teaching material. On the other hand, although these strategies were presented at the beginning of academic year and questionnaires were administered through the end, the fact that students agree these strategies were covered adequately may be an indicator of retention of in class teaching of aforementioned strategies.

Maintaining the conversation. The student and teacher surveys had ten items evaluating conversation strategies that are used to keep a conversation going. Figure 7 presents the strategies belonging to *maintaining the conversation* category.

Item #	Description
2	Trying to get similar information
4	Showing interest: indicators of surprise
5	Showing interest: Encouraging people to talk; Asking followup Qs/ providing follow up comments
17	Showing interest: Encouraging people to talk; Asking followup Qs/ providing follow up comments
20	Being a supportive listener
28	Showing interest: other repetition
33	Reacting to a story
34	Saying more than yes/no: giving additional information
35	Presenting surprising information

Figure 6. Operations of the strategies under maintaining the conversation category

Table 5 illustrates the differences between student perceptions and teachers' reported practices regarding teaching conversation strategies in *maintaining the conversation* subscale.

Table 5

Differences of Students Perceptions and Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies: Maintaining the Conversation Category

			\bar{x}	SD	df	T	P
Items	Operation						
2	Trying to get similar information/ asking a similar question	T	4.26	1.046	278	-.932	.352
		S	4.47	.914			
4	Showing interest: Showing surprise	T	4.11	.875	278	-2.961	.003**
		S	4.67	.798			
5	Showing interest: Encouraging people to talk; Asking followup Qs/ providing follow up comments	T	4.11	.658	278	-1.527	.128
		S	4.44	.926			
17	Showing interest: Encouraging people to talk; Asking followup Qs/ providing follow up comments	T	4.32	.749	278	.157	.875
		S	4.28	.978			
20	Being a supportive listener	T	3.63	.895	278	1.859	.064
		S	4.10	1.061			
28	Showing interest: other repetition	T	3.63	.831	278	-2.158	.032*
		S	4.15	1.021			
33	Showing interest: other repetition	T	3.95	.621	278	-2.043	.042*
		S	4.38	.897			
34	Saying more than yes/no: giving additional information	T	4.68	.671	278	1.373	.171
		S	4.36	1.012			
35	Presenting surprising information	T	3.89	.809	278	-2.891	.004**
		S	4.46	.830			

**p<.01, *p<.05

Note: T: Teacher, S: Student

The category maintaining the conversation had nine items; four of which were about showing interest to what other speakers said. The other items (item # 2 *trying to get similar information/ asking a similar question*, #20 *being a supportive listener*, #33 *showing interest: other repetition*, #34 *saying more than yes/no: giving additional information*, #35 *presenting surprising information*) addressed to strategies that help speakers keep the conversation going such as reflecting questions being asked, providing comments on what was said etc. As shown in the Table 5, statistically significant difference occurred between students' perceptions ($\bar{x} = 4.67$, $SD = .798$) and teachers' reported practices ($\bar{x} = 4.11$, $SD = .875$) in terms of teaching conversation strategies related to maintaining the conversation category for item #4 (*showing interest: showing surprise*). ($t(278) = -2.961$) $p < .01$). Similarly, findings revealed a statistically significant difference between students' perceptions ($\bar{x} = 4.15$, $SD = 1.021$) and teachers' reported practices ($\bar{x} = 3.63$, $SD = .831$) for item #28 (*showing interest: other repetition*) ($t(278) = -2.158$) $p < .01$). Other than these items, the independent samples *t*-test results revealed no statistically significant difference for items addressing strategies that belong to *showing interest* operation. In both items teachers reported less confidently about teaching these particular strategies compared to what their students perceived.

For item #33 (*reacting to a story*), students ($\bar{x} = 4.38$, $SD = .897$) and teachers ($\bar{x} = 3.95$, $SD = .691$) expressed different opinions about conversation strategy teaching in the classroom and this difference was also statistically significant ($t(278) = -2.043$) $p < .05$). Another statistically significant item which indicated

statistically significant difference between student perceptions ($\bar{x} = 4.46$, $SD = .830$) and teachers' reported practices ($\bar{x} = 3.89$, $SD = .809$) in this category was item # 35 (*presenting surprising information*) ($t(278) = -2.891$, $p < .01$). In items #33 (*Showing interest: other repetition*) and #34 (*Saying more than yes/no: giving additional information*) students thought the strategies were covered to an extent to which exceeded what their teachers reported on teaching these strategies. The other five items (item #2 *trying to get similar information/ asking a similar question*, #5 *showing interest: encouraging people to talk; asking follow up questions/ providing follow up comments*, # 17 *showing interest: encouraging people to talk; asking follow up questions/ providing follow up comments*, # 20 *being a supportive listener*, # 34 *saying more than yes/no: giving additional information*) in the category *maintaining the conversation* did not show statistically significant difference.

In all items that showed statistically significant difference in this category, students' perception scores on conversation strategies teaching were higher than what their teachers reported, indicating that teachers reported less confidently about their teaching practices whereas students perceived teaching of these strategies to be adequate. The difference may have occurred from the number of times the strategies had been taught or recycled throughout the books. The strategies items #28 (*showing interest: other repetition*), #33 (*showing interest: other repetition*) and #35 (*presenting surprising information*) referred to were recycled two times, four times and two times respectively throughout the books. On the other hand, the only item that does not fit into this pattern is item #4 (*showing interest: showing surprise*), which had been recycled 11 times throughout the books.

Social interaction functions. The category of social interaction functions had 13 items; aiming to see the differences/similarities between student and teacher responses about teaching conversation strategies ranging from giving suggestions to making offers, giving promises etc. (see Figure 7).

Item #	Description
6	Giving suggestions/ advice
12	Making offers and Promises
39	Giving a contrasting idea
41	Responding to suggestions
42	Agreeing: accepting offers
43	Providing appropriate responses to special occasions
44	Changing the topic
45	Emphasizing/complaining about a habit
46	Showing positive side of a negative thing using "at least"
47	Emphasizing feelings
48	Agreeing to opinions
49	Letting other person to decide
50	Giving (different) opinions

Figure 7. Operations of the strategies under social interaction functions category

Table 6 shows independent samples t-test results for social interaction functions scale.

Table 6

Differences of Students' Perceptions and Teachers Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies: Social Interaction Functions Category

			\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Items	Operation						
6	Giving suggestions/ advice	T	4.26	.872	278	-.600	.549
		S	4.49	.925			
12	Making offers and Promises	T	4.11	.737	278	-.142	.887
		S	4.14	.996			
39	Giving a contrasting idea	T	3.84	.602	278	-.641	.522
		S	4.00	1.060			
41	Responding to suggestions	T	4.00	.882	278	1.005	.316
		S	4.24	1.019			
42	Agreeing: accepting offers	T	3.84	.688	278	1.061	.290
		S	4.08	.977			
43	Providing appropriate responses to special occasions	T	4.37	.831	278	.708	.480
		S	4.20	.993			
44	Changing the topic	T	3.53	.772	278	-2.850	.005**
		S	4.17	.954			
45	Emphasizing/ complaining about a habit	T	3.74	.653	278	1.318	.189
		S	4.07	1.070			

Table 6 (Cont'd)

Differences of Students' Perceptions and Teachers Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies: Social Interaction Functions Category

46	Showing positive side of a negative thing using "at least"	T	4.37	.761	278	.822	.412
		S	4.17	1.039			
47	Emphasizing feelings	T	4.11	.459	278	-.157	.876
		S	4.14	1.007			
48	Agreeing to opinions	T	4.47	.513	278	.563	.574
		S	4.35	.927			
49	Letting other person to decide	T	4.11	.809	278	.038	.970
		S	4.10	1.064			
50	Giving (different) opinions	T	3.89	.809	278	4.550	.000**
		S	2.44	1.371			

** $p < .01$

Note: T: Teacher, S: Student

In social interaction functions subscale of surveys, two out of 13 items revealed statistically significant difference between student and teacher responses. For the item number #44 (*changing the topic*), results showed that students had different perceptions ($\bar{x} = 4.17$, $SD = .954$) on conversation strategy teaching compared to teachers' reported practices ($\bar{x} = 3.53$, $SD = .772$) in terms of social interaction functions ($t(278) = -2.850$) $p < .01$). The results for item #50 (*giving different opinions*) also revealed statistically significant difference between student ($\bar{x} = 2.44$, $SD = 1.371$) and teacher ($\bar{x} = 3.89$, $SD = .809$) responses ($t(278) = 4.550$) p

< .01). No statistically significant difference was found in the other items (item #6 *giving suggestions/ advice*, #12 *making offers and promises*, #39 *giving a contrasting idea*, #41 *responding to suggestions*, #42 *agreeing: accepting offers*, #43 *providing appropriate responses to special occasions*, #46 *emphasizing/complaining about a habit*, #45 *showing positive side of a negative thing using "at least"*, #47 *emphasizing feelings*, #48 *agreeing to opinions*, #49 *letting other person decide*, #50 *giving (different) opinions*) in this category.

When the response for item #50 *giving (different) opinions* was examined, it can be deduced that teachers believed they had covered this specific strategy to a wide extent whereas students thought these strategies were not dealt as intensively as their teachers reported. In contrast, students believed the strategy in item #44 (*changing the topic*) was covered to great extent; more than what their teachers reported.

Being polite. The strategies that help speakers be more polite or less direct in conversations were represented with 10 items in the questionnaires. The items in *being polite* category are given in Figure 8.

Item #	Description
7	Thanking
10	Agreeing: stating the points in common
11	Being less direct in questions
16	Apologizing
26	Saying "no" in a friendly fashion
27	Softening comments
30	Asking for favors politely
31	Responding to requests
32	Agreeing: stating the points in common
36	Self-rephasing (for not being too direct)

Figure 8. Operations of the strategies under being polite category

Table 7 presents the perception and reported practices differences on teaching conversation strategies related to politeness or directness.

Table 7

Differences of Students' Perceptions and Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies: Being Polite Category

			\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Items	Operation						
7	Thanking	T	4.37	.831	278	-.507	.612
		S	4.48	.922			
10	Agreeing: stating the points in common	T	4.11	.737	278	-1.345	.180
		S	4.41	.979			
11	Being less direct in Questions	T	3.84	.602	278	-1.972	.05
		S	4.27	.927			
16	Apologizing	T	4.11	.809	278	.268	.789
		S	4.04	1.001			
26	Saying "no" in a friendly fashion	T	4.16	.688	278	.251	.802
		S	4.10	1.061			
27	Softening comments	T	3.74	1.147	278	-1.407	.160
		S	4.10	1.068			

Table 7 (Cont'd)

Differences of Students' Perceptions and Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies: Being Polite Category

30	Asking for favors politely	T	4.47	.612	278	.432	.666
		S	4.38	.975			
31	Responding to requests	T	4.42	.607	278	.628	.530
		S	4.28	.966			
32	Agreeing politely	T	4.00	.667	278	-.901	.368
		S	4.21	1.003			
36	Self-rephasing (for not being too direct)	T	4.32	.820	278	.561	.576
		S	4.18	1.026			

Note: T: Teacher, S: Student

Out of 10 items in *being polite* category, no items showed statistically significant difference between teacher and student responses. This finding indicates that teachers' reported practices and students' perceptions about these practices are in line with each other. In other words, teachers reported teaching strategies related to being polite comprehensively and students agree that these strategies were focused on in class activities as much as their teachers reported.

Being practical in conversation. There were four items in teacher and student surveys addressing the strategies that facilitate practicality in conversations.

Figure 9 lists the items in this category and their descriptions.

Item #	Description
8	Using vague responses
21	message enhancement/ mitigation
22	using appropriate responses for good/bad news
40	Avoiding listing

Figure 9. Operations of the strategies under being practical in conversations category

Table 8 displays the differences between students' perceptions and teachers' reported practices of teaching practicality enhancing conversation strategies.

Table 8

Differences of Students' Perceptions' and Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies: Being Practical in Conversation Category

			\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Items	Operation						
8	Using vague responses: I don't know, maybe	T	4.47	.612	278	-.612	.541
		S	4.59	.859			
21	"really" for message enhancement/mitigation	T	4.26	.562	278	.596	.552
		S	4.12	1.015			
22	using appropriate responses for good/bad news	T	4.00	.816	278	-1.205	.229
		S	4.28	.973			
40	Avoiding listing: or something/ or anything	T	4.00	1.054	278	-1.031	.303
		S	4.24	.963			

Note: T: Teacher, S: Student

Four items in the category *being practical in conversation* did not reveal any statistically significant difference. Therefore, it may be interpreted from the results that both teachers' reports and students' perceptions point to that strategies related to practicality in conversations are covered in classes to an adequate extent.

Coping with problems. The student and teacher surveys had eight items addressing the strategies which can be used to deal with the problems encountered during the course of the conversation (see Figure 10).

Item #	Description
9	Use of fillers
15	Appealing for help
19	Asking for confirmation: checking information/ echo questions
23	Other repair: correcting the things other person says
24	Dealing with interruptions/restarting conversations
25	Response: Providing lacking word/name
37	Explaining words through comparison/exemplification
38	Self-repair: Correcting things you say

Figure 10. Coping with problems

Table 9 presents the independent-samples t-test results for *coping with problems* category.

Table 9

Differences of Students' Perceptions and Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies: Coping with Problems Category

			\bar{x}	SD	df	t	p
Items	Operation						
9	Use of fillers	T	4.26	.733	278	-.021	.983
		S	4.27	1.029			
15	Appealing for help	T	3.74	.991	278	-1.558	.120
		S	4.12	1.045			
19	Asking for confirmation: checking information/ echo questions	T	4.05	.705	278	.028	.978
		S	4.05	1.001			
23	Other repair: correcting the things other person says	T	3.63	.761	278	-.857	.392
		S	3.85	1.094			

Table 9 (Cont'd)

Differences of Students' Perceptions and Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies: Coping with Problems Category

24	Dealing with interruptions/restarting conversations	T	4.21	.855	278	-.733	.464
		S	4.37	.930			
25	Response: Providing lacking word/name	T	3.79	.918	278	-.757	.450
		S	3.97	1.028			
37	Explaining words through comparison/exemplification	T	3.63	.885	278	-2.712	.007**
		S	4.33	1.003			
38	Self-repair: Correcting things you say	T	3.89	.737	278	-1.778	.077
		S	4.31	1.008			

** $p < .01$

Note: T: Teacher, S: Student

Out of eight items in *coping with problems* category, results revealed statistically significant difference in only one item: item #37 (*explaining words through comparison/exemplification*). Statistically significant difference between student perceptions ($\bar{x} = 4.33$, $SD = 1.003$) and teachers' reported practices ($\bar{x} = 3.63$, $SD = .885$) was observed in item #37 ($t(278) = -2.712$) $p < .01$).

For item #37, students believed that the strategy *explaining words through comparison/ exemplification* was addressed in the classroom whereas their teachers had different opinions about covering this particular strategy. This indicates that teachers are less confident when reporting their teaching practices about strategy related to *explaining words through comparison/exemplification* when students' perceptions on teaching of these strategies are taken into comparison.

Ending the conversation. The final category of the student and teacher questionnaires included four questions pertaining to conversation strategies used to end the conversation appropriately. The Figure 11 below shows the items listed under the category: *ending the conversation*.

Item #	Description
13	Signalling the end of a conversation
14	Ways to bid farewell
18	Ways to bid farewell
29	Signalling the end of a conversation

Figure 11. Operations of the strategies under ending the conversation category

Table 10 shows the difference between student perceptions on and teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies used for ending a conversation.

Table 10

Differences of students' perceptions and teachers reported practices of teaching conversation strategies: ending the conversation category

			\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Items	Operation						
13	Using signal word "anyway" to end the conversation	T	3.79	1.134	278	-2.360	.019*
		S	4.35	.987			
14	Ending phone conversations	T	3.89	.875	278	-1.785	.075
		S	4.30	.958			
18	Saying good-bye	T	4.32	.671	278	-.462	.644
		S	4.41	.906			

Table 10 (Cont'd)

Differences of students' perceptions and teachers reported practices of teaching conversation strategies: ending the conversation category

29	Signaling the end of a conversation	T	3.79	.976	278	-1.599	.111
		S	4.16	.988			

* $p < .05$

Note: T: Teacher, S: Student

As shown in Table 10, difference between student perceptions ($\bar{x} = 4.35$, $SD = .987$) and teachers' reported practices ($\bar{x} = 3.79$, $SD = 1.134$) is statistically significant for item #13 (*signaling the end of a conversation*). ($t(278) = -2.360$), $p < .05$).

For item #13 (*signaling the end of a conversation*) the mean score for students was higher than the mean score for teachers. Therefore, teachers reported less confidently on teaching signaling the end of a conversation strategy than what their students perceived about whether this specific strategy had been covered comprehensively in in-class activities.

As the results indicate, the category with the highest frequency of items with statistically significant difference was *maintaining the conversation* category (four times); followed by *social interaction functions* category (two times). The categories with the fewest occasions of difference were: (a) *starting the conversation*, (b) *coping with problems*, (c) *ending the conversation* (once each). Items belonging to *being polite* and *being practical in conversation* categories had no statistically significant difference between student and teacher responses.

Out of 50 items in teacher and student surveys, nine items showed statistically significant difference (%18). The distributions of these items by the categories are illustrated in Figure 12.

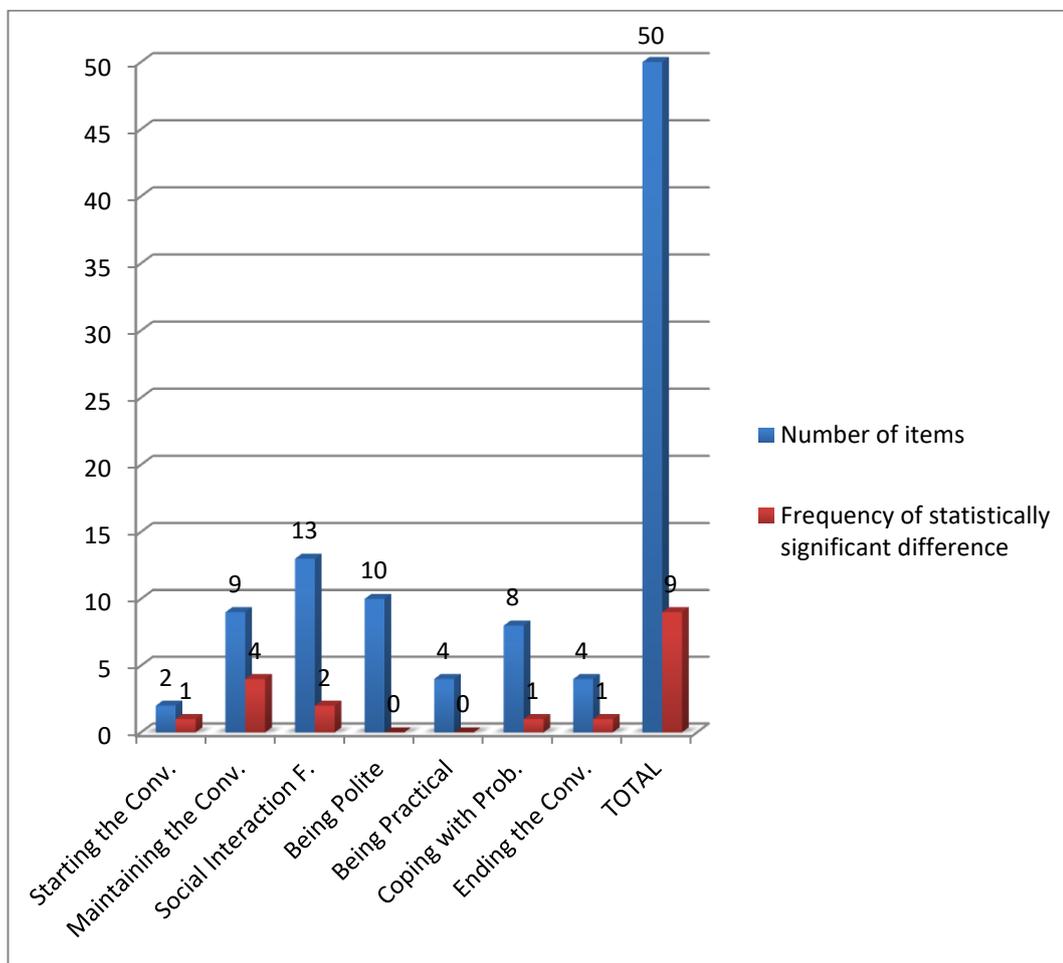


Figure 12. Distribution of mismatching items by the categories

Among the nine items that demonstrated statistically significant difference, in eight items (item #3 *using common topics to initiate a conversation (with a stranger)*, #4 *showing interest: showing surprise*, #13 *signaling the end of a conversation*, #28 *showing interest: other repetition*, #33 *showing interest: other repetition*, #35 *presenting surprising information*, #37 *explaining words through comparison/exemplification*, #44 *changing the topic*) students' perception scores were higher than teachers' reported practices scores. Only in one item (item #50

giving (different) opinions) students' perception score was not as high as teachers' reported practices score. Table 11 exhibits the items that showed statistically significant difference between the teacher and student responses in the surveys.

Table 11

Means for Teachers' Reported Practices and Students' Perceptions for Statistically Different Items

		\bar{x}	T>S/ S>T	Operation addressed by the item	Number of times presented/recycled in the books
Item #					
3	T	3.63	S>T	Using common topics to initiate a conversation with a stranger	2
	S	4.41			
4	T	4.11	S>T	Trying to get similar information/ reflecting question	4
	S	4.67			
13	T	3.79	S>T	Using signalling words to end a conversation	2
	S	4.35			
28	T	3.63	S>T	Showing interest: other repetition	2
	S	4.15			
33	T	3.95	S>T	Reacting to a story	4
	S	4.38			
35	T	3.89	S>T	Presenting surprising information	2
	S	4.46			
37	T	3.68	S>T	Explaining words through comparison/ exemplification	3
	S	4.33			
44	T	3.53	S>T	Changing the topic	2
	S	4.17			
50	T	3.89	T>S	Expressing (different) opinions	7
	S	2.44			

Note: T: Teacher, S: Student; T>S: higher mean score for teachers, S>T: higher mean score for students

When the data in Table 11 is examined, it can be seen that in the majority of items showing statistically significant difference, students thought conversation strategies were covered in the activities where the main focus is improving students' speaking abilities whereas teachers' reported practices did not reflect confidence in teaching these strategies as much as students perceived. This discrepancy may have occurred because of teachers' cautious nature when it comes to reporting self-practices. As can be seen in Table 11, the items where student perception scores were higher than teachers' reported practices scores are presented or recycled in the books various number of times ranging from twice to four times; therefore, these strategies rank among the lowest in terms of frequency of appearance in course books. As the strategies aforementioned items address were not frequently presented within the syllabus, teachers may have deemed that strategy instruction related to these items had fallen short, failing to create retention on students' side.

As for item #50 (*giving (different) opinions*), students' perception scores regarding whether conversation strategy that help speakers express their opinions or disagree with their partners proved to be significantly lower than what their teachers reported about teaching this strategy in class. Again this may have resulted from the frequency of appearance of this particular strategy throughout the course books. The strategy had been presented and recycled seven times in the books and this is the second highest frequency of strategy instruction according to content analysis of the books. This fact may have led teachers to believe the strategy had been taught comprehensively in in-class activities; however students did not perceive teaching regarding this strategy in classroom practices occurred as much as their teachers reported. One probable reason for such perceptions of students might be that the strategy is recycled via speaking activities implicitly five times in the course books;

therefore students may not have noticed that they had been working on that particular strategy. As a result, students' perception scores are significantly lower than teachers' reported practices of teaching strategy that facilitate easier communication when speaker is expressing her/ his opinion or disagreeing to opinion which was previously expressed.

In summary, the independent samples *t*-test results indicate that in 9 items out of 50, students' perceptions on whether conversation strategies were taught in class and teachers' reported practices of teaching these strategies were significantly different. In the items with statistically significant difference, student mean scores were higher than the teachers eight times whereas teacher mean scores were higher than the students' only once.

Research Question 2: Students' perceptions on the necessity of teaching conversation strategies as a part of classes that aim to promote speaking ability

Student survey also intended to reveal students' perceptions on speaking activities or classes in a broader sense. The students' survey contained 50 Likert-Scale questions and one open ended question which aimed to elicit further suggestions from students to address their speaking abilities during speaking activities/ classes. With that purpose in mind, students were asked the following question: *In your opinion, what else could be done to improve your speaking abilities during the classes in which the activities to encourage you to speak are taught?* The primary aim of this question was to see frequency of students' comments mentioning the necessity of conversational strategy instruction along with the other needs they perceive to be vital to improve their speaking skill. In total, this question received

147 comments/ suggestions from students. Responses were thematically analysed and classified under nine main themes (see Table 12).

Table 12

Distribution of student responses to item #51 by themes

Themes	Frequency	%
Conversation strategies	4	3
Motivation/ anxiety	10	7
Suggestions/ comments on how classes could be/ have been taught	32	22
Native/ non-native instructors	20	13
Speaking as a skill	10	7
Time constraint	22	15
Testing	1	Less than 1
Sufficient activities to teach conversation strategies	22	15
Miscellaneous	26	18
Total	147	100

Student comments/suggestions mentioning *conversation strategy*

instruction as a necessity. Four student respondents out of 174 mentioned that conversation strategy instruction should be a part of classes that aim to promote communicative ability of EFL learners. The students provided different angles to conversational strategies theme varying from the necessity of strategy instruction to how training should be implemented.

Student coded S88 emphasized the significance of conversational strategy training by saying: “I think, strategy training helps us especially when we run out of things to say. We also can make use of them to communicate effectively, so I am totally in favor of teaching conversation strategies in class”. In a similar vein, S108 touched on the compensatory aspect of strategy instruction: “In my opinion, in speaking classes we (learners) should be provided with more situations in which we may experience communication breakdowns. In that way, we may have more opportunities to practice the strategies we were taught in classes”. Student coded S22, on the other hand, commented on the frequency of conversation strategy appearance in the syllabus: “I believe conversation strategies are good means of improving our speaking ability, but we only learn one certain strategy a couple of times and this is not enough for us to have a command of it”. Finally S191 expressed that the variety of activities through which conversation strategies are taught are quite limited: “I enjoyed the classes when the teacher taught us some useful strategies to keep going. But after a while the activities started to look same and I kind of got bored. Maybe a variety of activities can be added- I do not know how, I am not an expert- so the speaking classes could get more interesting”.

When other comments to the open ended question are concerned, students’ responses showed that they believed various improvements should be implemented in order to increase the quality of speaking classes. Their suggestions on what could have been improved or their comments on what had been done in speaking classes were put under several categories and the next section will report on the commonly reoccurring themes emerging from student responses.

Twenty times in the data students stated that in-class speaking activities or teachers’ approach were in line with the purpose of enhancing students’ speaking

abilities; and quantity of the activities were sufficient. These respondents also stated that they were content with the design and execution of the activities specific to speaking classes.

Ten of the responses belonged to the theme *Motivation/ Anxiety* whereas the theme *Suggestions/ Comments on How Classes are Taught* received 32 responses; the highest number of response among nine main themes emerged from the data. Within this theme, in 13 responses students expressed that use of L1 in classes might be demotivating and therefore should not be allowed by teacher and only one response suggested that there should have been a stronger emphasis on use of useful daily expressions. These numbers represent the highest and lowest number of responses attributed to certain bullet-points in *Suggestion/ Comments on How Classes are Taught* category.

In 20 responses, students distinguished between a native speaker and non-native speaker instructor. Nineteen of these respondents favor a native speaker teacher over a non-native when speaking abilities are concerned while 1 response expressed the opposite opinion.

Throughout the data 10 responses were about *speaking skill* broadly. Eight responses reflect the opinion that fluency should be given more emphasis than accuracy; and two respondents believed pronunciation is a problematic issue for the English as a Foreign language students. The respondents to the open ended question mentioned time constraint 22 times; 18 of the responses revealed students only preferred to articulate that lack of time allocated to speaking activities is an issue that needs to be dealt with. 4 responses suggested solutions to the problem: the suggestions “*number of the students in a class should be reduced*” and “*interactive*

language lab hours should be replaced with hours specific to speaking activities” were mentioned 2 times each.

In only one response students addressed the testing aspect of the question and it is pointed out in the response that grading speaking might be a pressure-causing factor for students. The informant also suggested that students’ ability to communicate should be measured using non-formal assessment methods because of two reasons: 1) she/he had concerns about the reliability of scoring, and 2) she/he believed that scoring speaking performances in presence of a camera is a stress inducing factor.

The responses that could not be classified under any of the themes above were put under miscellaneous category. Total number of 26 responses was classified as miscellaneous. The majority of responses in this category (17) were about the students’ perceptions of necessity of students being exposed to target language media such as movies, TV shows, short videos etc. Students reflected their opinion as “the number of presentations that needs to be delivered throughout the year“ and “the frequency of impromptu speech activities should be increased” three times each in their responses to the open-ended question of the survey. One response mentioned that the material selection process for English teaching purposes at Bülent Ecevit University School of Foreign Languages should be reconsidered; and again one respondent believed that complete system in the institution was malfunctioning. Finally, only once in the data students suggested pairing or grouping students with low target language competency with students with students having better language abilities. No further explanation was provided for what respondent meant by the terms *low-competency* or *better language abilities*.

Figure 13 presents a pie-chart illustration of the distribution of comments or suggestions to nine themes identified according to the content of student responses to item #51; the open ended item. The theme which received the highest number of responses was *how classes are taught* (22%) whereas the theme with the lowest response ratio was *testing* (lower than 1%). Figure 13 shows the pie-chart distribution of the themes.

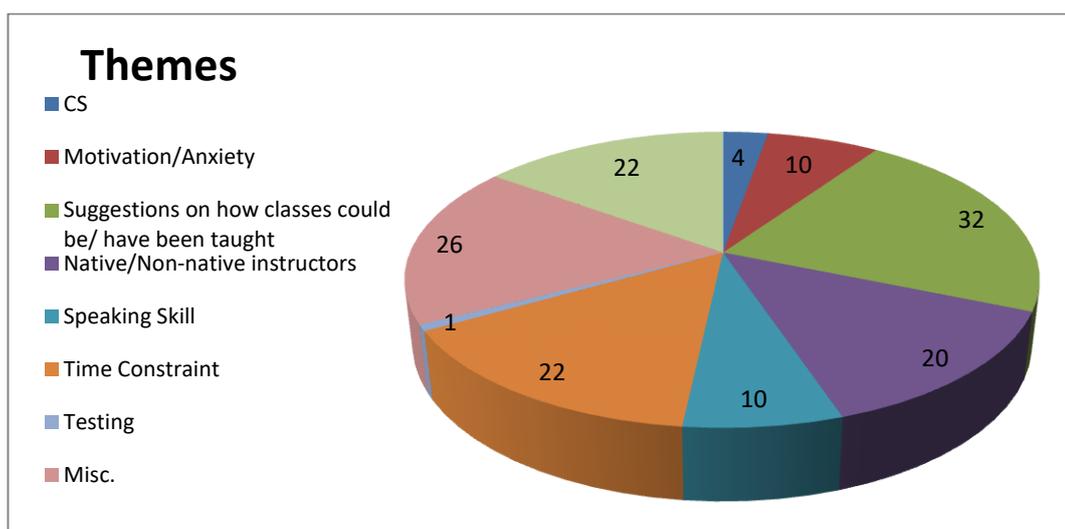


Figure 13. Distribution of the responses by the themes

To conclude, the thematic analysis of the responses indicate that only a small portion of students (3%) reflected their opinion on the significance of conversational strategy training whereas the majority of respondents (22%) preferred to comment on how speaking classes are carried out. Another theme which was mentioned in significant amount of comments was time constraint theme (15%). The most unpopular themes were *testing* (less than 1%), *motivation/ anxiety* and *speaking skill* (nearly 7% each) in student responses. It can be inferred from the data that emerged from open ended question that students do not see conversational strategy instruction as a vital concern when it comes to improving their speaking abilities.

Research Question 3: Students' use of conversation strategies in oral proficiency exams

This study also aimed to find out the extent to which students make use of conversation strategies during their oral exam performances. To that end, the frequency of conversation strategy teaching and recycling was counted as a result of content analysis of three books used as main teaching material in education programme of the institution. Similarly, frequency of students' conversation strategies use in final speaking exams was also determined through examining of video recordings of speaking exam performances of students. Table 13 displays the frequency of conversation strategies appearance in the books and students' conversation strategy use in proficiency speaking exam.

Table 13

Conversation strategy frequency in the books and in speaking exams

Category of conversation strategies	Number of times presented/recycled in the books	Frequency of students' conversation strategy use in speaking exams
Starting the conversation	4	117
Maintaining the conversation	55	170
Social interaction functions	43	334
Politeness	24	68
Practicality	15	62
Coping with problems	34	94

Table 13 (Cont'd)

<i>Conversation strategy frequency in the books and in speaking exams</i>		
Ending the conversations	9	16
Total	184	861

Content analysis of course books indicated that the most frequent strategies which are presented and recycled in the course books belonged to *social interactions functions* category.

A correlation test was conducted using SPSS to explore whether there is a relationship between the frequencies of conversation strategy teaching in class and use in the speaking exams. Firstly, descriptive statistics for the related variables were calculated and a normality test was conducted to find out if the variables were normally distributed. Result of the analysis revealed a skewness of .39 (SE=.79) and kurtosis of -1.123 (SE = 1.58) for frequency of occurrence in the course books and with skewness of 1.59 (SE = 0.79) and kurtosis of 2.91 (SE = 1.58) for frequency of student use in speaking exams (see Appendix G).

In light of skewness and kurtosis values, a non-parametric test was carried out to determine the correlation of the variables. The correlation was calculated using Spearman rank order correlation test and the results revealed a statistically significant relationship between conversation occurrence in course books and students' frequency of strategy use in final speaking exam. In other words, the variables frequency of conversation strategy appearance and students' conversation strategy use in final speaking exam demonstrated positive correlation ($r = .607, p = .148$). The results of correlation analysis indicate that the frequency of conversation strategies

presentation and recycling reflect to students' conversation strategy use in proficiency speaking exam to a moderate extent.

Research Question 4a: The relationship between EFL Learners' use of conversation strategies and their task completion scores

Speaking exam performances of students were evaluated by two assessors using a rubric developed by the Speaking Office of School of Foreign Languages in accordance with can-do statements given in Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The mentioned rubric consists of five primary criteria: Vocabulary Range, Grammatical Range & Accuracy, Task Completion, comprehension and Fluency (see Appendix E). The minimum score for each criterion that can be assigned by the assessors is 1 and maximum score is 4. The last set of questions in this study aimed to demonstrate the relationship between students' use of conversation strategies and their task completion scores first, and speaking exam overall scores next.

Prior to conducting the correlation analysis, descriptive statistics of students' frequency of strategy use and their task completion scores were calculated and normality of distribution of the variables was investigated. Normality test results showed that both variables had high significance values. This finding points out that variables were non-normally distributed; with a skewness of .87 (SE = .156) for total strategy use and -0.438 (SE = .156) for task completion scores, and kurtosis of .7 (SE = .061) for total strategy use and 0.37 (SE = .061) for task completion scores (see Appendix H.1).

The result coming from Shapiro-Wilk normality test confirmed the non-normality of the variables as the significance level was .000 for both students' strategy use and their task completion scores (see Appendix H.2).

As a result of descriptive statistics and normality tests, related variables demonstrated non-normality; therefore Spearman rank order correlation test was carried out to calculate the relationship between the variables. The result of this correlation test put forth a significant correlation between students' conversation strategy use and their speaking exam task completion scores ($r(243) = .403, p < .01$).

The results of correlation analysis point to a positive correlation between the two variables: students' conversation strategy use and their scores from task completion section of the proficiency speaking exam rubric. It can also be deduced that the strength of the correlation between the variables is moderate. In other words, students' use of conversation strategies in their oral proficiency performances is related to the scores they received from task completion criterion.

Research Question 4b: The relationship between EFL Learners' use of conversation strategies and their overall speaking proficiency scores

The second part of the final research question investigated the relationship between the frequency of students' conversation use in the proficiency speaking exam and the overall speaking performance scores they obtained.

In order to see the relationship between the variables, first, descriptive statistics were calculated to see the normality of the distribution. Normality test results indicated that the distribution of the variables was non-normal. Skewness value was .87 (SE = .156) for total strategy use and -.593 (SE = .156) for overall speaking performance scores; and kurtosis value was .705 (SE = .311) for total

strategy use and .083 (SE = .311) for overall speaking performance scores (see Appendix I.1). While skewness and kurtosis values reflect that there was a normal distribution, the result of Shapiro-Wilk normality test pointed to a non-normal distribution since the significance values for both total strategy use ($p = .000$) and overall speaking performance scores ($p = .001$) were significant at .01 level ($p < .01$) (see Appendix I.2).

As the data were non-normally distributed, a non-parametric test was conducted to see the extent of the correlation between the variables. Therefore, their correlation was examined using Spearman rank order correlation test. The results point out that there was a significant relationship between the variables ($r(188) = .427, p < .01$). The finding of this correlation test demonstrates that students' strategy use during their speaking performances contributed to the scores they received to a certain extent. Figure 14 below illustrates the strength of the correlation.

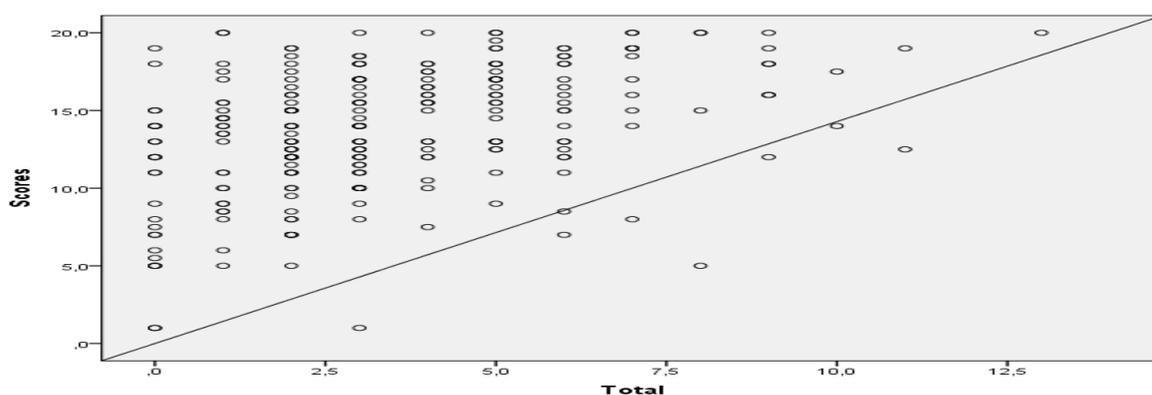


Figure 14. The correlation of total strategy use of the students and overall speaking performance scores

As can be seen in the Figure 14, students' conversation strategy use and the overall scores they received from their oral performance proficiency had a positive

correlation and proximity of the dots in the pattern indicates that the strength of the correlation is moderate. This finding may imply that students' use of conversation strategies in their oral performances is related to overall success of their mentioned performances.

Conclusion

This section has reported on data analysis and results of the study. The results of the study suggest that in almost one-fifth of the occasion student perceptions and teachers' reported practices differed from one another. When questionnaire items with statistically significant difference were examined, students' perception scores of whether conversation strategies had been taught in classes were higher than the teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies 8 times (89%); and teachers' mean scores for reported practices were higher than mean for student perception scores once (11%) in 20 items that showed a statistically significant difference. The items for which students' perception scores were higher than teachers' reported practices addressed the strategies that were least frequently presented in the course books; therefore teachers may not have reported covering these strategies to a wide extent in the classes. In contrast, the item for which teachers reported confidently about their practices addressed to a strategy which was recycled frequently and that may be the reason for the difference between teachers' reported practices and students' perceptions. One out of two items (50%) in starting the conversation category revealed statistically significant difference; which is the highest ratio among seven categories. The category with the lowest occurrence of significant difference was *being polite* (none out of 10 items, 0%) category. Results of the data analysis also indicated that there was a positive correlation between conversation strategy appearance in course books and students' conversation strategy

use in oral proficiency exams. Positive correlation was also found between the conversation strategy use in oral proficiency exams and task completion scores and overall scores students received from oral performances. The next chapter moves on to present an overview of the study, discuss findings, provide pedagogical implications, present the limitations of the study and give suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore if there are any differences or similarities between teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies and students' perceptions on whether these strategies were covered in in-class activities. Another purpose of the study was to see if students perceived conversational strategy instruction crucial for developing their speaking skill. The study also aimed to reveal the extent to which conversation strategies taught in language classes were utilized by EFL learners in spoken proficiency exams. The study also aimed to investigate, if any, the relationship between tertiary level English as a foreign language (EFL) students' use of conversation strategies in spoken proficiency exams they take and the scores they get in these exams. In this respect, the research questions in this study were:

1. Is there a difference between teachers' reported practices of teaching conversation strategies and students' perceptions on whether these strategies are taught or not?
2. What are students' perceptions on the necessity of teaching conversation strategies as part of classes that aim to promote speaking ability?
3. To what extent do tertiary level EFL students apply conversation strategies they are taught in the classroom in the oral exams?

4. To what extent does the use of conversation strategies impact:
 - a) students' task completion scores?
 - b) students' oral interview scores?

This chapter is comprised of four main sections. In the first section, findings of the research will be discussed in detail taking the relevant literature into the account. Secondly, pedagogical implications of the findings of this research will be presented. In the third section limitations of the study will be discussed and in the final section suggestions for further research will be introduced.

Findings and Discussion

Research Question 1: Is There a Difference Between Teachers' Reported Practices Of Teaching Conversation Strategies and Students' Perceptions on whether These Strategies are Taught or Not?

The results showed out of 50 items in students' and teachers' questionnaires, nine items showed statistically significant difference. In eight items (items #3 *using common topics to initiate a conversation (with a stranger)*, #4 *showing interest: showing surprise*, #13 *signaling the end of a conversation*, #28 *showing interest: other repetition*, #33 *showing interest: other repetition*, #35 *presenting surprising information*, #37 *explaining words through comparison/exemplification*, #44 *changing the topic*) students' perception scores on whether conversational strategies had been covered in class were +higher than teachers' reported practices scores (see Table 14).

Table 14

Means for Teachers' Reported Practices and Students' Perceptions for Statistically Different Items in relation to category of the conversation strategy represented

Item #	Operation	\bar{x}	T>S / S>T	Function addressed by the item	Number of times presented /recycled in the books
3	Using common topics to initiate a conversation (with a stranger)	T 3.6 S 4.4	S>T	Starting the conversation	2
4	Showing interest: Showing surprise	T 4.1 S 4.6	S>T	Maintaining the conversation	4
28	Showing interest: other repetition	T 3.63 S 4.15	S>T	Maintaining the conversation	2
33	Showing interest: other repetition	T 3.95 S 4.38	S>T	Maintaining the conversation	4
35	Presenting surprising information	T 3.89 S 4.46	S>T	Maintaining the conversation	2
44	Changing the topic	T 3.53 S 4.17	S>T	Social Interaction functions	2
50	Giving (different) opinions	T 3.89 S 2.44	T>S	Social Interaction functions	7
37	Explaining words through comparison/exemplification	T 3.68 S 4.33	S>T	Coping with problems	3
13	Signaling the end of a conversation	T 3.7 S 4.3	S>T	Ending the conversation	2

The difference in the mean scores indicate that teachers reported their teaching practices more cautiously in eight items whereas students did not think as highly about in-class strategy instruction when compared to what their teachers

reported for one item only. The items with statistical difference came from five categories: *starting the conversation* (item #3 *using common topics to initiate a conversation (with a stranger)*), *maintaining the conversation* (items #4 *showing interest: showing surprise*, #28 *showing interest: other repetition*, #33 *showing interest: other repetition*, #35 *presenting surprising information*), *social interaction functions* (items #44 *changing the topic*, #50 *giving (different) opinions*), *coping with problems* (item #37 *explaining words through comparison/exemplification*), and *ending the conversation* (item #13 *using signal word "anyway" to end the conversation*). The items showed no statistically significant difference in two categories: *being polite* and *being practical*. This particular finding may have resulted from several factors such as frequency of exposure to target communication strategy, whether target CS had been presented explicitly or implicitly and learners' preference of CS use in accordance with their proficiency level in L2.

The comparison between teachers' reported practices of conversation strategy teaching and students' perceptions on whether strategy instruction occurred in class will be discussed under the light of two different statistical findings of this research question: a) items in which student perception scores are higher than teachers' reported practices scores, and b) item where teachers' reported practices score is higher than students' perception scores.

The eight items which demonstrated significant difference between teacher and student scores rank among the least frequently presented communication strategies (see Table 13). As these strategies were not presented frequently within the syllabus, teachers possibly considered them not to be covered extensively. On the other hand, one explanation for students' high perception scores regarding whether aforementioned communication strategies have been dealt with in classroom

practices could be that regardless of non-frequent teaching of these strategies in speaking classes, learners probably transferred these strategies from L1, and therefore, did not perceive these strategies to be problematic. Several scholars (Tarone, 1981; Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989; Kellerman, 1991) assert that communication strategies develop in one's mother tongue; thus easily transferrable to target language. Owing to this phenomenon, students may have felt comfortable about these eight strategies whereas teachers probably did not score their teacher practices confidently because of the low frequency of appearance of the strategies.

Another underlying reason for the discrepancy perhaps rests on how communication strategies had been presented in the activities which aim to teach or practice them. Although the strategies for which student scores were higher than teachers' were not frequently presented in the course books, the strategies were introduced explicitly; and this fact may have created metacognitive awareness regarding the strategy instruction on students' side (Færch and Kasper, 1986 as cited in Dörnyei, 1995, p.63).

Teacher and student responses show that in four out of nine items (items #4 *trying to get similar information/ reflecting question*, #28 *showing interest: other repetition*, #33 *reacting to a story*, #35 *presenting surprising information*) in the *maintaining the conversation* category, which constitute the majority of items with statistically significant difference, teachers and students have different opinions. The strategies in this category aimed to help speakers keep the floor in the course of the conversation. The items with statistically significant difference represent strategies *trying to get similar information/ reflecting question*, *showing interest: other repetition*, *reacting to a story*, and *presenting surprising information*. In all items in

this category, students' perception scores were higher than teachers' reported practices scores. Teachers' reported practices regarding these strategies suggest that they were not covered in the classes comprehensively. This opinion may be a result of output produced by students in classroom activities. Possible abrupt ending in conversations in in-class activities could have created the notion that students do not know how to keep the conversations going and may have led teachers to rate their practices cautiously when student responses to these items suggest otherwise. The majority of student participants had the lowest level of target language proficiency; thus the results for maintaining the conversation category concurs with the findings of Doboia's (2001) suggesting that participants with low-level frequency tend to use less strategies to sustain a conversation and prefer to use more message avoidance strategies.

Similarly, one of the items (item #37) with higher student perception score addressed the conversational strategy: *explaining words through comparison/exemplification*. The reason for lower reported practices mean scores may have been due to the fact that teachers possibly did not observe the use of the strategy in in-class applications. Although Uztosun and Erten (2014) concluded that proficiency level was not a significant factor affecting strategy choices of speakers, Metcalfe and Noom-Ura's (2013) findings suggested that speakers with low-level proficiency, which constitutes the larger portion of the participants of this study, tended to use less approximation strategies. Given the fact that *explaining words through comparison/exemplification* is actually an approximation strategy, findings show parallelism for this study and that of Metcalfe and Noom-Ura (2013).

There can be another explanation specific to one item (item #13) which addressed the strategy *using signalling words to end a conversation*. According to

teacher reports, this strategy was rather problematic whereas students thought the strategy had been adequately taught in classroom. The reason why this discrepancy occurred may be the limited use of signallers whose main aim is to end the conversation in socially acceptable norms. In his dissertation with Columbian EFL learners, Triana (2009) proposed that speakers may also produce their own strategies to end a conversation rather than the target expressions presented within the teaching materials. For instance, instead of using conversation ender signallers like “anyway, I have to go” or “look, at the time, I need to be at (place)”, students may have preferred expressions such as “OK”, “finished” or silence to indicate that the conversation has reached the conclusion. However, the limited use of target expressions could have created a sense of dissatisfaction on teachers’ side whereas student might have felt content with their performance.

Social interaction functions was one other category with significantly different items; and surprisingly two items (items #44 *changing the topic* and #50 *giving (different) opinions*) demonstrated varying results in terms of mean scores (S>T for item #44 *changing the topic* and T>S for item #50 *giving (different) opinions*). Among the items with statistically significant difference, the only item for which teachers’ reported practices are higher than students’ perception scores is item #50 which addresses the strategy: *giving (different) opinions*. This particular strategy had appeared seven times in the course books, which is one of the most frequently recycled strategies according to the results of the content analysis, and the fact that it had appeared frequently may have created a sense of satisfaction for teachers in terms of covering the strategy comprehensively. From the students’ perspective, apart from the strategic aspect of *giving (different) opinions*, considerable amount of linguistic knowledge is also required to express one’s opinion or to contrast a given

opinion. As the majority of the students participating in this study were speakers with low-proficiency, they may not have felt content with their command of this particular strategy.

Research Question 2: What are students' perceptions on the necessity of teaching conversation strategies as part of classes that aim to promote speaking ability?

In the student questionnaire, the final item (item # 51) was an open ended question which intended to reveal the extent to which students see conversational strategy instruction as a primary concern when it comes to improving their speaking abilities. For this purpose students were asked to reply the question: *“In your opinion, what else could be done to improve your speaking abilities during the classes in which the activities to encourage you to speak are taught?”* The thematic analysis results indicate that out of 174 responses only four of them (%3) were related to conversation strategy teaching. The low number of student responses about conversation strategies may imply that students do not see it to be significant factor affecting their speaking skill improvement.

The results indicated that the themes students commented most frequently on were about how speaking classes are/should be designed (18%), constraint of time allocated for in-class speaking activities (12%), and whether native or non-native teachers should teach speaking classes (11%).

The results of the thematic analysis are somewhat concurrent with the previous studies which investigated the EFL learners' perceptions on speaking skill development (Nazara, 2011, Dinçer, 2017) suggesting time constraint or being not able to find enough time/ opportunities is one of the top concerns for the learners.

Likewise, the authors also concluded that although learners are motivated to be proficient speakers of the language, they perceive anxiety as a barrier hindering them from reaching their aims; as seven percent of the respondents of the current study.

Research Question 3: To what extent do tertiary level EFL students apply conversation strategies they are taught in the classroom in the oral exams?

The purpose of the third research question in the study was to reveal the extent of students' conversation strategy use in their oral proficiency exam. In order to see this, the frequency of conversation strategy appearance in the course books was compared with the number of utilization of the strategies in the oral proficiency exam.

As the results indicate, the frequency of strategy appearance in the books is almost directly proportionate to students' strategy use in the oral proficiency exam. However, two categories of CS constitute exception in this comparison between the frequencies: *starting the conversation* and *maintaining the conversation*. When the frequency of strategies presented in the course books and frequency of strategies used by students in oral proficiency performances are examined, it is observable that the more frequently a category of communication strategies appear in course books, the more frequently it is used in oral proficiency exams. However, starting the conversation and maintaining the conversation strategies are exception to this inclination.

Although the frequency of the strategies pertaining to *initiating a conversation* is the lowest in the course books, their use in the oral proficiency exam is exceptionally frequent. On the other hand, although strategies related to *keeping a conversation going* rank on the top of the frequency of appearance in the books list, they fail to

become the most used strategies in the speaking exam; leaving the first place to strategies that help execute *social interaction functions*. The finding about the category *initiating a conversation* might be a result of learners' transfer of sociopragmatic skills from their mother tongue to target language. As some scholars (Bongaerts & Poullisse, 1989; Bongaerts, Kellerman, & Bentlage, 1987; Canale & Swain, 1980; Paribakht, 1985, as cited in Dörnyei, 1995) argue, communication strategies can develop in L1 and are transferable to the target language. For the participants in this study this might be the case; students probably felt more comfortable employing the strategies to initiate a conversation as they were similar to what they had in their L1. The communicative strategies to maintain a conversation, however, depend both on pragmatic skills and on linguistic knowledge (Triana, 2009). Therefore, students' failed attempts due to lack of linguistic knowledge may have led to this exceptional situation in terms of the parallelism between how frequently strategies to maintain a conversation had been taught in class and the frequency of their occurrence in students' performances.

Research Question 4a: To what extent does the use of conversation strategies impact students' task completion scores?

One part of this study aimed to reveal the possibility of a relationship between the students' conversation strategy use and its effect on the scores they get from the evaluation rubric of the oral interviews they take in the final exam of the academic year. Since these strategies are the tools to take the conversation to its desired end (Kehe & Kehe, 1994), task completion and overall score bands of the rubric were taken into consideration.

The findings of the current study indicate that conversational strategy use of students in oral proficiency exams and their success in completing the conversational task they are assigned was moderately interrelated. In other words, the conversation strategies used by test-takers helped them achieve the task in the exam to a moderate extent. In the literature, scholars have delved into the relationship between conversation strategy use and its effect on the spoken tasks (Lam, 2009; Nakatani, 2010; Von Joo, Geluso, Benson, & Fischer, 2013). However, very few studies (Barkaoui, Brooks, Swain & Lapkin, 2013; Huang, 2013) attempted to understand the nature and place of communicational strategy use in oral proficiency exam achievement. The studies conducted by Barkaoui et al. (2013) and Huang (2013) both concluded that the frequency of conversational strategies did not affect the task performances directly; which is somewhat contradictory to the findings of the present study. However, it should be noted that the result of their studies had unsystematic results which were difficult to interpret; suggesting that the interrelationship between these two variables are too complex to be analyzed; therefore the discrepancy between the findings could possibly be explained by the elaborate mechanisms involved in the nature of conversation strategies and what constitutes task completion of an exam task.

Research Question 4b: To what extent does the use of conversation strategies impact students' oral interview scores?

As far as the relationship between conversation strategy use in the speaking proficiency exam and students' overall scores in the mentioned exam was concerned, students' use of conversation strategies are moderately related to the scores they get for their oral proficiency exam performances. This finding may be interpreted as the

use of conversation strategies in tasks help students attain higher scores when it comes to oral proficiency exams, albeit being a largely determinant factor.

This finding of the current study concurs with that of Huang's (2016) which concluded that use of communication strategies affected the oral communication scores of Taiwanese students in GEPTI-S, which is a nation-wide proficiency test. Another study which demonstrated parallelism with the findings of this study was Nakatani's (2005), which also suggested communication strategy training had some sort of relationship with oral exam scores.

The findings of the current study suggested that the frequency of conversation strategy use of conversation strategies in oral proficiency exams affected student performances in terms of *task completion* and *overall success*. As previously mentioned, the literature on the effects of conversational strategy use on oral proficiency exam performances is quite limited; and the results of the previous studies are contradictory. The difference in the findings may be explained by the fact that the process of conversation involves many complex mechanisms and the role of strategic competence in verbal transaction is difficult to isolate and evaluate.

To conclude, the findings of the study may shed light on our understanding of the role of strategic competence and the use of conversation strategies in spoken proficiency performances. A part of the study revealed that students' perceptions on and teachers' reported practices of conversational strategies revealed similarities; which may be an indicator of the fact that the study was conducted in a setting where conversational strategy teaching was a part of the syllabus. The present study also delved into the question whether students perceived conversation strategy teaching as a vital component of speaking classes. Findings indicated that students did not see

strategy instruction as a priority when it comes to improving their speaking abilities. Finally, the current study demonstrated that use of conversational strategies in oral proficiency exams and students' task completion and overall success in these performances are related. In accordance with these findings, it can be argued that conversational strategy instruction may be a significant factor affecting spoken performances of EFL learners.

Pedagogical Implications

The results of the study may bear possible implications for curriculum developers. As the study signifies a relationship between conversational strategy instruction and test performances, conversation strategy instruction might be emphasised in critical components of curriculum development or syllabus creation; such as material selection and assessment. Institutions might prefer teaching materials which allow students to employ conversation strategies, or adapt their programs in a way that they integrate strategy teaching into their practices. Since teaching and assessment are inseparable components of a curriculum (Rudman, 1989), testing conversation strategies in oral assessment methods might also encourage learners to utilize them more; so they might benefit from these strategies to perform better in the speaking exams.

One of the other stake-holders which this study may inform could be material developers. There are only a handful of text books which aims to include conversation strategies to improve learners' conversational skills (Triana, 2009). Both learners and teachers could benefit from more quality materials designed to promote strategic competence through activities via which learners might make use

of conversation strategies. Thus, material developers may make strategy instruction a part of their book or supplementary material designs.

The findings of the study might also have implications for instructors as they are the primary agents who might enable conversational strategy instruction in their teaching practices. They may focus on strategy training in their classes by actively practicing the strategies through activities or might raise students' awareness by highlighting the possible strategies that might be used in certain circumstances.

Limitations of the Study

The findings of the present study should be treated with caution due to several limitations. One of the limitations of the study was, due to time constraint and difficulty of scheduling a program with the teachers, researcher was unable to observe classroom practices of teachers. Teachers' observed classroom practices may have been a more reliable source of data than their reported practices.

Additionally, first research question of this study involved collecting data from students and teachers via a questionnaire designed by the researcher. Student participants could have the tendency to give a more positive response than their true beliefs; thinking that a more positive response would be favored by their teachers-in-charge or the researcher. This phenomenon, also known as response bias, may have affected the results of the study.

Lastly, an additional limitation of this study might be that the scoring process in the oral proficiency exam involved human-rater factor. In order to address research question four, the scores for task-completion and overall achievement bands

were taken into account. To avoid non-standardized rating, norming sessions were conducted for all raters; however, there is the possibility that raters could have scored the performances subjectively. As a result, the generalizability of the finding may be impaired due to non-standardized scoring.

Suggestions for Further Research

On the basis of the findings of this study, it is possible to provide several suggestions for prospective studies. One of the sources of data for the current study was reports from students and teachers on whether conversation strategies had been covered in the classroom or not. In order to ensure that the data comes from a more reliable source, it is advisable to observe in-class practices by either video recording or peer-observing the classes.

The current study explored the achievement/compensatory communication strategies students used in the oral proficiency exam and investigated the relationship between these strategies and oral proficiency exam performances. Further studies might be conducted using the conversation analysis conventions to see what type of message reduction/ abandonment strategies students employ during the speaking classes or speaking exams.

Further research may take the proficiency level of participants into consideration while determining the frequency and the type of the strategies used by students in classroom and exam room contexts. Finally, the findings of the study indicate that communication strategy use is a factor that may affect speaking exam performances. As the relationship between the type of strategies and oral proficiency

exam scores was not within the scope of this study, further studies may investigate the relationship between these variables.

Conclusion

This quasi-experimental study, conducted with 261 Turkish EFL students and 16 instructors at a state university in Turkey, investigated the teaching of conversational strategies in class, the extent to which learners perceived them significant, the extent to which students utilized these strategies in oral proficiency exams and whether the use of conversational strategies affected students' speaking performances in oral proficiency exam situations in terms of task completion and overall performance success. The findings revealed a consistency between student and teacher responses regarding whether strategy instruction occurred in class or not, except for nine items in the questionnaires. The items with statistically significant difference were from five main categories: *starting the conversation*, *maintaining the conversation*, *social interaction functions*, *coping with problems* and *ending the conversation*. Another finding of this study indicated that students did not perceive conversation strategy training as a primary component promoting their speaking abilities. Lastly, students' use of conversation strategies in oral proficiency exams and their success at completing the given task and overall success of spoken performance were found to be significantly related. These findings shed light on the potential impact of communication strategies in language teaching and oral assessment as they contribute to the ongoing debate in the literature about whether conversational strategy training should be a part of language instruction as regards to speaking skill. The results of the study favour conversational strategy instruction in

speaking classes. Since language instructors often seek ways to help students master their speaking skills which poses a difficulty (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1995), conversation strategy teaching might serve as a tool to remedy the situation. However, to the knowledge of the researcher, there are only a handful of studies which delve into the role and nature of the strategies that might be used to compensate deficiencies during a conversation. In conclusion, it is hoped that the findings of the study and their pedagogical implications discussed in this chapter can enhance the existing knowledge of the effects of conversational strategy teaching on speaking and help stakeholders gain insights into how to cope with the problems speakers encounter during the course of a conversation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Inventory of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997)

Table 1

Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples (Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b), and Indications Whether They Were Included in Any Other Taxonomies (T=Tarone, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok, 1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)

STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE	OTHER TAXONOMIES
1. Message abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	<i>It is a person er... who is responsible for a a house, for the block of house... I don't know... [laughter]</i>	T, F&K, W
2. Message reduction (topic avoidance)	Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic languagewise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources.	[Retrospective comment by the speaker:] <i>I was looking for "satisfied with a good job, pleasantly tired," and so on, but instead I accepted less.</i>	T, F&K, W
3. Message replacement	Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it.	[Retrospective comment after saying that the pipe was broken <i>in the middle</i> instead of "the screw thread was broken":] <i>I didn't know "screw thread" and well, I had to say something.</i>	F&K, W
4. Circumlocution (paraphrase)	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action.	<i>it becomes water</i> instead of "melt"	T, F&K, W, P; B: "description"; N: appr. "analytic strategies"
5. 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.	<i>plate</i> instead of "bowl"	T, W; B and P: "semantic contiguity"; F&K: "generalization"; N: appr. "holistic str."
6. Use of all-purpose words	Extending a general, "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking.	The overuse of <i>thing, stuff, make, do</i> , as well as words like <i>thingie, what-do-you-call-it</i> ; e.g.: <i>I can't can't work until you repair my ... thing.</i>	W: "smurfing"

APPENDIX A: Inventory of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) (Cont'd)

7. Word-coinage	Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.	[Retrospective comment after using <i>dejunktion</i> and <i>unjunktion</i> for "street clearing":] <i>I think I approached it in a very scientific way: from 'junk' I formed a noun and I tried to add the negative prefix "de-"; to "unjunk" is to 'clear the junk' and "unjunktion" is 'street clearing'.</i>	T, F&K, B, W; N: appr. "morphological creativity"
8. 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.	On Mickey's face we can see the... so he's he's he's wondering.	F&K; W: under "self-repair"
9. Literal translation (transfer)	Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2.	I'd made a big fault [translated from French]	T, W, N; F&K: under "interlingual transfer"; P and B: "transliteration"
10. Foreignizing	Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology.	reparate for "repair" [adjusting the German word 'reparieren']	B, W; F&K: under "interlingual transfer"; N: under "transfer"
11. Code switching (language switch)	Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.	Using the Latin <i>ferrum</i> for "iron".	T, F&K, B, W; N: under "transfer"
12. Use of similar-sounding words¹	Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item.	[Retrospective comment explaining why the speaker used <i>cap</i> instead of "pan":] <i>Because it was similar to the word which I wanted to say: "pan".</i>	
13. Mumbling¹	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.	And uh well Mickey Mouse looks surprise or sort of XXX [the 'sort of' marker indicates that the unintelligible part is not just a mere recording failure but a strategy].	
14. Omission¹	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said.	<i>then... er... the sun is is... hm sun is... and the Mickey Mouse... [Retrospective comment: I didn't know what 'shine' was.]</i>	
15. Retrieval	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.	<i>It's brake er... it's broken broked broke.</i>	F&K

APPENDIX A: Inventory of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) (Cont'd)

Table 1 (continued)

Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples (Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b), and Indications Whether They Were Included in Any Other Taxonomies (T=Tarone, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok, 1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)

STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE	OTHER TAXONOMIES
16a. Self-repair	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech.	<i>then the sun shines and the weather get be... gets better.</i>	W
16b. Other-repair	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.	Speaker:... <i>because our tip went wrong...</i> [...] Interlocutor: <i>Oh, you mean the tap.</i> S: <i>Tap, tap...</i>	
17. Self-rephrasing²	Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase.	<i>I don't know the material...what it's made of...</i>	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
18. Over-explicitness (waffling)³	Using more words to achieve a particular communicative goal than what is considered normal in similar L1 situations.	(This CS was not included in Dörnyei & Scott's, 1995a, 1995b, taxonomy)	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
19. Mime (nonlinguistic/paralinguistic strategies)	Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration.	[Retrospective comment:] <i>I was miming here, to put it out in front of the house, because I couldn't remember the word.</i>	T, F&K, B, P, W; N: under either "analytic" or "holistic strategies"
20. Use of fillers⁴	Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty.	Examples range from very short structures such as <i>well; you know; actually; okay</i> , to longer phrases such as <i>this is rather difficult to explain; well, actually, it's a good question.</i>	
21a. Self-repetition⁵	Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.	[Retrospective comment:] <i>I wanted to say that it was made of concrete but I didn't know 'concrete' and this is why "which was made, which was made" was said twice.</i>	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
21b. Other-repetition	Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.	Interlocutor: <i>And could you tell me the diameter of the pipe? The diameter.</i> Speaker: <i>The diameter? It's about er... maybe er... five centimeters.</i>	

APPENDIX A: Inventory of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) (Cont'd)

22. Feigning understanding ⁶	Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand.	Interlocutor: <i>Do you have the rubber washer?</i> Speaker: <i>The rubber washer? ... No I don't.</i> [Retrospective comment: <i>I didn't know the meaning of the word, and finally I managed to say I had no such thing.</i>]	
23. Verbal strategy markers ⁷	Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.	E.g.: (strategy markers in bold): (a) marking a circumlocution: <i>On the next picture... I don't really know what's it called in English... it's uh this kind of bird that... that can be found in a clock that strikes out or [laughs] comes out when the clock strikes;</i> (b) marking approximations: <i>it's some er... it's some kind of er... paper;</i> (c) marking foreignizing: <i>... a panel [with an English accent], I don't know whether there's a name in English or not [laughter] just it's a panel flat;</i> (d) marking literal translation: <i>it's er... a smaller medium flat and in, we call them blockhouse, but it's not it's not made of blocks;</i> (e) marking code switching: <i>the bird from the clocks come out and say "kakukk" or I don't know what;</i> see also the example for message abandonment.	
24a. Direct appeal for help	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge.	<i>it's a kind of old clock so when it strucks er... I don't know, one, two, or three 'clock then a bird is coming out. What's the name?</i>	T, F&K, W
24b. Indirect appeal for help	Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally.	<i>I don't know the name... [rising intonation, pause, eye contact]</i>	T, F&K, W
25. Asking for repetition	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.	<i>Pardon? What?</i>	
26. Asking for clarification	Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.	<i>What do you mean?, You saw what?</i> Also 'question repeats,' that is, echoing a word or a structure with a question intonation.	W
27. Asking for confirmation	Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly.	Repeating the trigger in a 'question repeat' or asking a full question, such as <i>You said...?, You mean...?, Do you mean...?</i>	W
28. 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.	E.g.: <i>Oh. It is then not the washing machine. Is it a sink?</i>	

APPENDIX A: Inventory of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) (Cont'd)

Table 1 (continued)

Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples (Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b), and Indications Whether They Were Included in Any Other Taxonomies (T=Tarone, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok, 1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)

STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE	OTHER TAXONOMIES
29. Expressing non-understanding	Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.	Interlocutor: <i>What is the diameter of the pipe?</i> Speaker: <i>The diameter?</i> I: <i>The diameter.</i> S: <i>I don't know this thing.</i> I: <i>How wide is the pipe?</i> Also, puzzled facial expressions, frowns and various types of mime and gestures.	
30. Interpretive summary	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly.	<i>So the pipe is broken, basically, and you don't know what to do with it, right?</i>	W
31. Comprehension check	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you.	<i>And what is the diameter of the pipe? The diameter. Do you know what the diameter is?</i>	W
32. Own-accuracy check	Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.	<i>I can see a huge snow... snowman? snowman in the garden.</i>	
33a. Response: repeat	Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other-repair).	See the example of other-repair.	
33b. Response: repair	Providing other-initiated self-repair.	Speaker: <i>The water was not able to get up and I...</i> Interlocutor: <i>Get up? Where?</i> S: <i>Get down.</i>	
33c. Response: rephrase	Rephrasing the trigger.	Interlocutor: <i>And do you happen to know if you have the rubber washer?</i> Speaker: <i>Pardon?</i> I: <i>The rubber washer... it's the thing which is in the pipe.</i>	
33d. Response: expand	Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context.	Interlocutor: <i>Do you know maybe er what the diameter of the pipe is?</i> Speaker: <i>Pardon?</i> I: <i>Diameter, this is er maybe you learnt mathematics and you sign er with th this part of things.</i>	
33e. Response: confirm	Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.	Interlocutor: <i>Uh, you mean under the sink, the pipe? For the...</i> Speaker: <i>Yes. Yes.</i>	

APPENDIX A: Inventory of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) (Cont'd)

33f. Response: Rejecting what the interlocutor has said or suggested Interlocutor: *Is it plastic?* Speaker: *No.*
reject without offering an alternative solution.

¹Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) first discussed these three strategies; they are stop-gap devices whose use is motivated by the assumption that the over-determined, redundant nature of language normally allows the listener to guess the incomplete or missing word from the context, much as in a cloze or a C-test. For this reason, these strategies are not merely instances of message reduction or abandonment. Dörnyei and Scott found few unambiguous examples of these strategies in their corpus but, for example, mumbling is very common in languages with complex verb conjugation systems, where the speaker often swallows the conjugation suffix about which he/she is uncertain.

²Tarone and Yule (1987) first identified this strategy. They assumed that it was used with non-native listeners for whom the speaker wants to make the task easier. In Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) investigation, however, the listener's (that is, the interviewer's) L2 competence was superior to the speaker's; that such strategies were still used points to their more general applicability. As the retrospection extract demonstrates, self-repetition is related to over-explicitness, stemming from speakers' uncertainty about whether their L2 language use expresses their meaning closely enough.

³Tarone and Yule (1987) first identified this strategy as a CS but Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) also discussed the language phenomenon; Edmondson and House (1991) call it "waffling", defining it as "excessive use of linguistic forms to fill a specific discourse 'slot' or 'move'" (p. 273); they suggested that it is caused by speakers' insecurity about their L2 ability as well as by not having access to standardized routines or phrases.

⁴Fillers make up a broad category, including words and phrases used to fill pauses, cover for hesitations, gain time, and provide smooth transformation in breakdowns. Rohde (1985) talked about the function of such gambits as "safe islands" (pp. 48–49) onto which the speaker can jump when experiencing problems, which very aptly describes a core feature of fillers. On the other hand, fillers also fulfill a number of subtle discourse roles (see Edmondson & House, 1981; Færch & Kasper, 1984b), some of which are definitely not problem-oriented; hence, it is difficult to tell the strategic and non-strategic uses apart.

⁵Tarone and Yule (1987) pointed out that research has paid little attention to a very common interlanguage phenomenon, the frequent repetitions of words or whole structures and clauses. They argue that repetitions are CSs used for two purposes: (a) to stall, and (b) to provide the listener with another chance to hear and process the information. Chen (1990) emphasized the "communication maintenance" function of repetition in Chinese students' use of English: "Only one avoidance strategy was used by one low-proficiency learner. The learners would rather carry on the communication task by repeating what they had said than avoid the communication task" (p. 174).

APPENDIX A: Inventory of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) (Cont'd)

Table 1 (continued)

Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples (Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b), and Indications Whether They Were Included in Any Other Taxonomies (T=Tarone, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok, 1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)

⁶Wong-Fillmore (1979) and Aston (1986) highlighted feigning understanding as an important communication maintenance strategy that allows the speaker to remain in the conversation regardless of a lack of understanding of what the other said.

⁷Discussing code switching, Harper (1985) distinguished two types, one where the speaker signals to the interlocutor that a CS is coming “as if to enclose the borrowed item in inverted commas” (p. 91), and another that “does not prepare the micro-context into which the borrowed item will be introduced” (p. 91). Similarly, Clark (1994) wrote about “editing terms” (e.g., “you know” and “I mean”, p. 249), which speakers use to prepare the interlocutor for a repair, and “hedges” (e.g., “kind of”, “sort of”, and “like”) they use to indicate that they are being less accurate and to “prevent interpreting certain words or phrases too precisely, too literally” (p. 250). This latter, broad conceptualization of “hedges” is analogous to Dörnyei and Scott’s (1995a, 1995b) conception of “strategy markers,” referring to any warning signals or “verbal inverted commas” whose function is to indicate to the interlocutor that a strategy is used (i.e., that a word/phrase does not carry the intended meaning perfectly), eliciting attentive cooperation and thereby helping to achieve shared meaning and integration of the less-than-perfect interlanguage structure into the L2.

APPENDIX B: A Snapshot of the Course Book

Lesson 6 *Do you go straight home?*

1 Conversation strategy *Asking questions in two ways*

A Can you complete the second question?
 A *What do you do after work? Do you _____ ?*
 B *Well, I usually go shopping and then go home.*

 Now listen. What does Lori do after class?



Adam So, what do you do after class?
Do you go straight home?
Lori Well, usually. Sometimes I meet a friend for dinner.
Adam Oh, where do you go? I mean, do you go somewhere nice?
Lori Do you know Fabio's? It's OK. I mean, the food's good, and it's cheap, but the service is terrible. Do you know it?
Adam Well, actually, I work there. I'm a server.

Notice how Adam asks questions in two ways. His questions are clear and not too direct. Find examples in the conversation.

"So, what do you do after class? Do you go straight home?"

B Match the first question to a good second question.

1. What do you do after class? _____	a. I mean, do you eat out?
2. How do you get home? _____	b. Do you go shopping a lot?
3. Do you ever feel tired after class? _____	c. Do you go out for coffee?
4. Do you work in the evening? _____	d. I mean, do you usually need a break?
5. How often do you go shopping? _____	e. Do you take the subway or the bus?
6. What do you do for lunch? _____	f. I mean, do you have a part-time job?

About you **C Pair work** Ask and answer the pairs of questions. Give your own answers.
"What do you do after class? Do you go out for coffee?" "Well, I usually . . ."

 SELF-STUDY AUDIO CD CD-ROM

APPENDIX C.1: Questionnaire on Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching Conversation Strategies

TEACHERS' REPORTED PRACTICES OF TEACHING CONVERSATION/ COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleague,

This questionnaire aims to measure the reported practices of teaching conversation/communication strategies of instructors currently working at Bülent Ecevit University School of Foreign Languages. As you are well-aware, these strategies constitute a part of the syllabus and they are presented in the C sections of each unit of the coursebook. The conversation strategies in this study refer to "actions speakers take to keep a conversation going to its desired conclusion" (Kehe & Kehe, 1994 in Triana, 2009) . Therefore, it is a broader term encompassing communication strategies which might be described as the strategies that "may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication" (Canale & Swain, 1980) within the scope of this study.

Section 1: Background Information

Name & Surname:

Participant Code: (Please leave blank)

Gender: a) Female b) Male	BA Degree: a) ELT b) English Language and Literature/ American Culture & Literature c) Translation and Interpretation d) Linguistics e) Other:.....
Last Degree: a) BA b) MA-continuing c) MA d) PhD.- Continuing e) PhD.	Teaching Experience: a) 1-3 year(s) b) 4-6 years c) 7-9 years d) 10-12 years e) 13-15 years f) 15+ years

APPENDIX C.1: Questionnaire on Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching
Conversation Strategies (Cont'd)

Section 2: Please indicate the frequency of the classroom practices mentioned below.

Whenever it's presented/ recycled in the classroom, I put emphasis on teaching...	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
1. the expressions that students can use to encourage their conversation partners to keep the conversation going.	1	2	3	4	5
2. the expressions to give advice or suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5
3. how to react to the stories that their conversation partners share.	1	2	3	4	5
4. know-how of maintaining the conversation efficiently by asking follow-up questions/ providing follow-up comments.	1	2	3	4	5
5. that students should use the signal word "anyway" to end a conversation in order not to end a conversation abruptly.	1	2	3	4	5
6. how to ask for help when students can't remember/ don't know the vocabulary item for a specific word.	1	2	3	4	5
7. that students can use the word "really" for stating the likes in a stronger or dislikes in a weaker manner.	1	2	3	4	5
8. that students can use practical expressions like "or something, things like that etc." to avoid listing similar things.	1	2	3	4	5
9. the expressions students can use to change the topic of the conversation.	1	2	3	4	5
10. how to thank appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
11. the expressions used for greetings.	1	2	3	4	5
12. that they can use common topics to initiate a conversation with strangers	1	2	3	4	5
13. the expression "How about you?" to help students maintain the conversation.	1	2	3	4	5
14. that students should use expressions like "I'm sorry" when they do not know the answer to a question they are asked/ when they can't help the speaker they are talking to.	1	2	3	4	5
15. the expressions used for saying goodbye.	1	2	3	4	5
16. the structure students can use to make offers or promises.	1	2	3	4	5
17. the expressions for showing surprise to look more interested in the conversation.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C.1: Questionnaire on Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching
Conversation Strategies (Cont'd)

Whenever it's presented/ recycled in the classroom, I put emphasis on teaching...	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
18. how to agree with what the people say by stating the points in common through the expressions "me too" or "me neither".	1	2	3	4	5
19. how to be a supportive listener by encouraging them to use echo questions like "did you?, have you?" etc.	1	2	3	4	5
20. the expressions to give (different) opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
21. how to end phone conversations.	1	2	3	4	5
22. the expressions to correct the wrong information other person provided.	1	2	3	4	5
23. how to reject offers in a friendly manner.	1	2	3	4	5
24. how to respond to good/bad news.	1	2	3	4	5
25. expressions used for responding to suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5
26. how to show interest to the conversation by partially or completely repeating what other person said.	1	2	3	4	5
27. that students should answer questions by providing more information than "yes" or "no".	1	2	3	4	5
28. the expressions to present surprising information.	1	2	3	4	5
29. that they should not end a conversation without signalling it first.	1	2	3	4	5
30. the expressions used for accepting offers.	1	2	3	4	5
31. the expressions that can be used to give contrasting ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
32. the expressions that can be used to gain time like well, um, er etc.	1	2	3	4	5
33. how to explain difficult things or concepts through comparison/ exemplification.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C.1: Questionnaire on Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching
Conversation Strategies (Cont'd)

Whenever it's presented/ recycled in the classroom, I put emphasis on teaching...	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
34. how students can correct themselves when they say things incorrectly.	1	2	3	4	5
35. how to provide appropriate responses on special occasions such as birthday or graduation.	1	2	3	4	5
36. the structure that students can use to emphasize and complain about a habit.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
37. I paid attention to teaching my students expressions and structures they can make use of to emphasize their feelings	1	2	3	4	5
38. My students are taught how they can demonstrate the positive side of a negative thing using "at least".	1	2	3	4	5
39. I taught how to agree to the other speakers' opinions in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5
40. My students learned that it would be polite to let the other person decide (what to eat, where to go etc.) and how they can leave the decision up to their conversation partners.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I taught my students to rephrase their statements using "I mean" in order not to be too direct.	1	2	3	4	5
42. My students learned they can use "or..." at the end of questions to sound less direct.	1	2	3	4	5
43. How to ask for favors politely is covered in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5

**APPENDIX C.1: Questionnaire on Teachers' Reported Practices of Teaching
Conversation Strategies (Cont'd)**

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
44. My students learned how to check the information they heard using echo questions. (E.g: I'm sorry, did you say Market Street?)	1	2	3	4	5
45. I taught how to deal with interruptions and restart conversations after interruptions in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5
46. My students learned how to provide a lacking word or name when their conversation partners ask for help to remember/ learn the missing lexical item.	1	2	3	4	5
47. How to respond to requests is taught in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5
48. My students learned that they can use "just" to soften the things they say.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I taught my students that they can use vague responses like "I don't know, maybe" when they are not sure or undecided.	1	2	3	4	5
50. In the classes, students learned how to agree with their conversation partners by stating common points.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX C.2: Questionnaire Of Students' Perceptions on Strategy

Instruction in Classroom Activities Turkish/ English

ÖĞRENCİLERİN SINIF İÇERİSİNDE KARŞILIKLI KONUŞMA STRATEJİLERİNİN ÖĞRETİLMESİNE YÖNELİK ALGIYI BELİRLEME ANKETİ

Değerli Öğrenci Arkadaşlar,

Bu çalışma Bilkent Üniversitesi Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Yüksek Lisans programında yürütülmektedir. Bu anket, öğrencilerin müfredatta yer alan karşılıklı konuşma stratejilerinin (conversation strategies) ne ölçüde öğretildiğini düşündüklerine yönelik algıyı belirlemeyi amaçlar. Bu ankette bahsi geçen karşılıklı konuşma stratejileri, *konuşma esnasında konuşmacıların tecrübe edebileceği problemlerle başa çıkmak için başvurdukları stratejilerin yanısıra, belli bir dil fonksiyonunu (örn: ricada bulunmak, dinlediğini göstermek, konuyu değiştirmek vs.) gerçekleştirerek konuşmaya akıcılık kazandıran stratejiler (Dörnyei & Thurell, 1994)* olarak kabul edilecektir. Bu çalışmadaki cevaplarınız ve demografik bilgileriniz sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacak, üçüncü kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Çalışma yürütülürken gizlilik esaslarına saygılı olunacaktır. Bu anketi doldurup yetkili kişiye teslim ettiğinizde, sağladığınız bilgilerin araştırma amaçlı kullanılmasına izin vermiş olursunuz.

Bölüm 1: Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma/katılmama seviyenizi bildiriniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Ders içerisinde, selamlamanın nasıl yapılacağıın üzerinde duruldu.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Karşı taraftan benzer bilgiler edinmek için kullanılabileceğimiz ifadelerle(örn. How about you?) ilgili yeterince alıştırmalı/aktivite yapıldı.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tanımadığımız insanlarla konuşma başlatmak için kullanılabilecek ifadelerin öğretimine sınıf içerisinde yer verildi.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Karşıdaki konuşmacının verdiği bilgilere şaşırdığımızı/ ilgi gösterdiğimizi belli etmek için kullanacağımız ifadeleri (wow, really vs.) öğrendik.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Karşımızdaki konuşmacıyı daha fazla konuşmaya teşvik edecek/ diyalogun devamını sağlayacak stratejilerin (really/ you're kidding+ ilave sorular) üzerinde duruldu.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Tavsiye/ öneri vermek için kullanılabilecek ifadelerle ilgili alıştırmalar yaptık.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Nazikçe teşekkür etme ifadeleri ders içerisinde öğretildi.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Vereceğimiz cevap konusunda emin olmadığımızda kullanılabileceğimiz ifadelerin (maybe, I don't know) öğretildiği aktiviteler yaptık.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Duraksarken ve düşünmek için zaman kazanırken kullanılabilecek pratik ifadeler derste öğretilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C.2: Questionnaire Of Students' Perceptions on Strategy

Instruction in Classroom Activities Turkish/ English (Cont'd)

10. Karşımızdaki kişiyle ortak noktamız olduğunda bunu nasıl ifade edeceğimiz (me too, me neither vs.) ders içerisinde öğretildi.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Sınıf içi aktivitelerde, konuşma esnasında nezaket icabı daha dolaylı sorular(örn: Would you like to eat out or...?) ve cümleler kullanabileceğimizi öğrendik.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Öneride bulunurken ve söz verirken ne gibi ifadeler (örn: I'll buy the drinks) kullanmamız gerektiğini öğrendik.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Konuşmayı birden sonlandırmamam gerektiği ve sonlandıracağımın sinyalini vereceğim ifade (anyway) ders içerisinde öğretilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Telefon konuşmalarını nasıl sonlandıracağımızın üstünde duruldu.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Konuşma esnasında bir kelimenin anlamını/ yazılışını bilmediğim zaman karşımdaki kişiden nasıl yardım isteyeceğimi öğrendim.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Karşımdaki insana, sorduğu bir soruyla ilgili yardımcı olamayacağımı düşündüğümde bunu ona nasıl açıklayacağım derslerde öğretildi.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Konuşmanın sürmesi için ilave sorular sorulmasına sınıf içi aktivitelerinde önem gösterildi.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Karşımızdaki konuşmacıya veda ederken kullanabileceğim ifadelerin öğretimine ders içerisinde yer verilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Konuşma esnasında söylediğimiz şeyin/ verdiğimiz bilginin doğruluğunu karşımdaki kişiden teyit etmesini isterken kullanacağımız ifadeler sınıf içerisinde öğretilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Karşımdakine iyi bir dinleyici olduğumu göstermek için kullanabileceğim sözlü sinyaller sınıfta öğretildi.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Beğeni ifade eden olumlu cümlelerimi nasıl güçlendireceğim ve beğeni bildiren olumsuz cümleleri nasıl yumuşatacağımla ilgili stratejilere sınıf içi aktivitelerinde yer verilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
22. İyi ve kötü haberler aldığımızda hangi ifadelerle tepki verebileceğim öğretildi.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Karşımdaki konuşmacı yanlış bir şey söylediğinde onu nasıl düzelteceğim konusunda yeterli alıştırmalar/aktivite yapıldı.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Telefon konuşmaları kesintiye uğramak durumunda kaldığında ve kesilen görüşmeyi devam ettirmek için kullanılacak ifadelerle aktivitelerde yer verilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Karşımızdaki konuşmacı bir ismi/ nesneyi hatırlayamadığında, hatırlatmak için kullanabileceğim ifadeleri öğrendik.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Yapılan teklifleri/ verilen tavsiyeleri nazikçe nasıl reddedeceğimiz derste detaylı bir şekilde ele alındı.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Söylemlerimi/yorumlarımı nasıl yumuşatabileceğime dair ifadelerin geçtiği aktivitelere sınıf içerisinde yer verilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Karşımdakinin konuşmasına ilgi gösterdiğimi belirtmek için onun konuşmasından bir kısmı tekrar etme ve ardından konuşmayı devam ettirecek sorular sorma stratejisi ile ilgili yeterli miktarda alıştırmalar yaptık.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Konuşmayı nasıl sonlandırabileceğimizle ilgili ipuçlarına derslerde yeterince değinilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C.2: Questionnaire Of Students' Perceptions on Strategy

Instruction in Classroom Activities Turkish/ English (Cont'd)

30. Birinden ricada bulunmak için kullanabileceğim ifadelerle derste yer verilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Benden ricada bulunulduğunda bu ricalara nasıl cevap verebileceğim sınıfta öğretildi.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Karşımızdaki kişiye katılmak ve ortak noktalarımız olduğunu göstermek için kullanabileceğimiz ifadeler öğretildi.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Karşımızdaki konuşmacı başından geçen bir olayı anlattığında ilgi gösterdiğimiz belli etmek için ne gibi ifadeler(ör: Did you? Have you?) kullanılabileceğimizi derslerde öğrendik.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Ders içerisinde; bize bir soru sorulduğunda, evet ve hayırdan daha fazlasını söylememiz gerektiği, ve konuşmanın sürmesi için ilave bilgi vermemiz gerektiği noktalarına önem verildi.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Kendim hakkında şaşırtıcı/ farklı bir bilgi verirken kullanacağım ifadeleri (örn: actually) sınıf içi aktivitelerde öğrendim.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Daha nazik olmak için söylediğim şeyi farklı bir biçimde tekrar ifade edebileceğim dersin hocası tarafından öğretilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Tarif etmesi güç şeyleri örnekleme/ kıyaslama yoluyla açıklayabileceğim ifadelerin(kind of & kind of like) öğretimine ders içi aktivitelerde yer verilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Yanlış söylediğim şeyleri düzeltmek için kullanabileceğim kalıplar (well, wait a minute, actually vs.) öğretildi.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Daha önce söylenilenlere tezatlık oluşturacak bir fikri nasıl bildireceğim sınıf içerisinde öğretilmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Derslerde benzer şeyleri uzun uzun listelemek yerine kullanabileceğim pratik ifadelerin(or something, things like that vs.) üzerinde hocamız yeterince durmuştur.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Tavsiye ve önerilere nasıl cevap vermem gerektiğine sınıf içi aktivitelerde odaklanıldı.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Teklifleri kabul ederken ne gibi yapılar kullanabileceğimi öğrendiğimi düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Doğum günü, mezuniyet haberi gibi özel durumlarda ne gibi tepkiler verilebileceği konusu derslerde ele alınmıştır.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Konuyu nasıl değiştirebileceğim derslerde işlenmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Birinin bir alışkanlığını vurgulamak ya da bu alışkanlıktan şikâyetçi olduğumu belirtmek için kullanabileceğim yapı, sınıf içi aktivitelerde ele alınmıştır.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Bir kişinin /durumun olumsuz yanlarından bahsettikten sonra olumlu bir yönü de olduğunu belirtmek için kullanacağım ifadeyi sınıfta öğrendim.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Bir yer/ kişi/ durum hakkındaki hislerimi vurgulamak için başvurabileceğim yapıyı öğrendiğimi düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Birinin düşüncesine katıldığımı belirtmek için kullanacağım kalıplar ders içerisinde işlenmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Tercih karşıdaki konuşmacıya bırakmak için kullanacağım ifadeler kapsamlı bir şekilde ele alınmıştır.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Düşüncelerimi belirtirken ya da farklı düşündüğümü ifade ederken kullanacağım kalıplar detaylı olarak ele alındı.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C.2: Questionnaire Of Students' Perceptions on Strategy**Instruction in Classroom Activities Turkish/ English (Cont'd)**

Bölüm 2: Sizce konuşmaya yönelik aktivitelerin yapıldığı dersler esnasında konuşma becerilerinizi geliştirmek için başka neler yapılabilir? Belirtiniz.

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Bölüm 3: Katılımcı Hakkında Bilgi

a. Yaş: 17-19 20-22 23-25 26-26+

b. Cinsiyet: Erkek Kız

c. Bölüm:

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

APPENDIX C.2: Questionnaire Of Students' Perceptions on Strategy

Instruction in Classroom Activities Turkish/ English (Cont'd)

QUESTIONNAIRE OF DETERMINING STUDENT PERCEPTIONS ON TEACHING OF CONVERSATION STRATEGIES IN CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Dear students,

This study is conducted at İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University MA Teaching English as a Foreign Language programme. This survey aims to investigate students' perceptions on the extent to which conversation strategies, which constitutes a portion of the curriculum, were taught. The conversation strategies mentioned in this study refers to *the strategies speakers in a conversation resort to as well as accomplishing a conversation function in a fluent manner* (Dörnyei & Thurell, 1994) (e.g. making a request, showing that you are listening, changing the topic etc.). Your responses and demographic information in this study will only be used for research purposes and will not be shared with third parties. When you complete and hand this questionnaire to the authorized person, you will have granted permission to use the information you provided for research purposes.

Part 1: Please indicate your level of agreement to the statements below.

	Completely disagree	disagree	Not sure	Agree	Completely agree
1. During the classes, there was a focus on how to greet people.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Sufficient activities/exercises were done about how to get similar information from the person we are talking to (e.g. How about you?)	1	2	3	4	5
3. The expressions for initiating a conversation with strangers were covered in in-class activities.	1	2	3	4	5
4. We were taught the expressions (wow, really etc.) to show surprise/ interest to what other speakers say.	1	2	3	4	5
5. There was a focus on the strategies to encourage the other speaker to talk more/ keep the conversation going.	1	2	3	4	5
6. We did practice on the expressions to give suggestions/ advice.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The expressions to show gratitude in a kind manner was presented in in-class activities.	1	2	3	4	5
8. We had activities in which we practiced on the expressions we could use when we are not sure about our response.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Expressions to stall time while hesitating or buying time to think were covered in the classes.	1	2	3	4	5
10. In the classes, we focused on how to express common points with the person we are talking to (me too, me neither etc.).	1	2	3	4	5
11. We learned in the classes that to be more polite we can resort to indirect questions.	1	2	3	4	5
12. We were instructed about the type of expression we can use for suggestions and promises.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C.2: Questionnaire Of Students' Perceptions on Strategy

Instruction in Classroom Activities Turkish/ English (Cont'd)

13. The expression to signal the end of a conversation (anyway) was presented in class.	1	2	3	4	5
14. We were instructed on how to end phone conversations.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I learned how to appeal for help when I don't know the meaning/ spelling of a word.	1	2	3	4	5
16. In the in-class activities, there was a focus on how I would explain somebody that I cannot help him/her about his question.	1	2	3	4	5
17. There was an emphasis on follow-up questions to keep the conversation going.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The expressions to say goodbye were covered in classes.	1	2	3	4	5
19. The expressions to ask for verification about the things we say in conversation was taught in the classes.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Verbal signals to show I am a good listener were covered in class.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Strategies to enhance positive sentences and to mitigate negative sentences about likes and dislikes were focused on in the classes.	1	2	3	4	5
22. The expressions to respond to good and bad news were covered by our teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Adequate practice on how to correct the other speaker was made in the classes.	1	2	3	4	5
24. We learned about the expressions that we can use to continue an interrupted phone call.	1	2	3	4	5
25. The expressions to remind other speaker a name/ an object that he/ she cannot remember were covered.	1	2	3	4	5
26. We were instructed on how to refuse an offer or suggestion politely.	1	2	3	4	5
27. The activities to teach the expressions to soften my comments were done in class.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Sufficient exercises were done on the strategy about repeating part of other person's speech and asking a follow up question to show interest.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Tips on how to end a conversation were taught adequately in in-class activities.	1	2	3	4	5
30. The expressions to make a request were covered in the classes.	1	2	3	4	5
31. In the class, I was instructed on how to respond to a request.	1	2	3	4	5
32. The expressions to agree with somebody and show that we have things in common were taught.	1	2	3	4	5
33. We learned about the expressions to show interest to the story/ experience other person is telling.	1	2	3	4	5
34. We were taught that we need to say more than yes or no and give extra information to sustain a conversation in in-class activities.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I learned the expression to present surprising information about myself in in-class activities.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Restating the thing I said to be more polite was taught by the teacher-in-charge.	1	2	3	4	5
37. The expressions I can use to describe by exemplification/ comparison were covered in in-class activities.	1	2	3	4	5
38. The chunks I can use to correct my own speech were taught.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I learned how to contrast an idea in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C.2: Questionnaire Of Students' Perceptions on Strategy

Instruction in Classroom Activities Turkish/ English (Cont'd)

40. Practical expressions to avoid listing were focused on adequately.	1	2	3	4	5
41. There was focus on how we should respond to suggestions and advice.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I think we learned about the expressions to accept offers.	1	2	3	4	5
43. How to respond to special occasions were dealt with in in-class activities.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I learned about how to change the topic.	1	2	3	4	5
45. The expression that shows how to complain about a bad habit were covered in classroom activities.	1	2	3	4	5
46. I learned about the phrase that expresses a positive side of a negative thing.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I believe I learned the structure to emphasise my feelings about a place/ person/ situation.	1	2	3	4	5
48. The expressions to agree with somebody were covered in the classes.	1	2	3	4	5
49. The expressions used to leave the choice to other speaker were focused on.	1	2	3	4	5
50. The expressions to give (different) opinions were covered extensively.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2: In your opinion, what else could be done to improve your speaking abilities during the classes in which the activities to encourage you to speak are taught? Please specify.

Part 3: Personal Information

a. Age: 17-19 20-22 23-25 26-26+

b. Gender: Erkek Kız

c. Department:

APPENDIX D: Content Analysis for the Frequency of Conversation Strategies
Occurrence in the Course Books

Function	Operation	Number of times presented/recycled
Starting the conversation	Greetings	2
	Using common topics to initiate a conversation (with a stranger)	2
Maintaining the conversation	Trying to get similar information/ asking a similar question	4
	Showing interest: Showing surprise	11
	Showing interest: Encouraging people to talk	9
	Showing interest: Asking followup Qs/ providing follow up comments	19
	Showing interest: other repetition	2
	Reacting to a story	4
	Saying more than yes/no: giving additional information	3
	Presenting surprising information	2
	Being a supportive listener	1
Social Interaction functions	Asking for advice	2
	Giving suggestions/ advice	5
	Responding to suggestions	4
	Making offers and Promises	1
	Agreeing: accepting offers	2
	Agreeing: stating the points in common	4
	Providing appropriate responses to special occasions	2
	Changing the topic	2
	Emphasizing/complaining about a habit	4
	Showing positive side of a negative thing	2
	Emphasizing feelings	2
	Giving (different) opinions	7
	Agreeing to opinions	4
	Letting other person to decide	1
Giving a contrasting idea	1	

**APPENDIX D: Content Analysis for the Frequency of Conversation Strategies
Occurrence in the Course Books (Cont'd)**

Being Polite	Thanking	2
	Apologizing	1
	Self-rephasing (for not being too direct)	4
	Using "or" at the end of questions to be less direct	2
	Saying "no" in a friendly fashion	4
	Using "I guess" to be less direct	1
	Asking for favors politely	3
	Responding to requests	3
	Using "just" to soften a statement	2
	Softening comments	2
Being Practical in Conversation	Using vague responses	3
	or something/ or anything	2
	Using vague expressions	3
	using appropriate responses for good/bad news	5
	"really" for message enhancement/ mitigation	2
Coping with Problems	Appealing for help	4
	Use of fillers	5
	Self-rephasing	3
	Explaining words through comparison/exemplification	3
	Other repair	1
	Self repair: Correcting things you say	4
	Asking for confirmation: checking information	5
	Asking for confirmation: echo questions	3
	Dealing with interruptions/restarting conversations	2
	Response: Providing lacking word/name	4
Ending the conversation	Saying good-bye	4
	Using signal word "anyway" to end the conversation	2
	Ending phone conversations	3

APPENDIX E: Speaking Exam Evaluation Rubric

B /C & D GROUPS FINAL SPEAKING EXAMINATION

Evaluation Sheet for the Assessor

ST'S NAME:

DATE: / 06 /2013

F2:

CLASS:/.....

	Fluency & Pronunciation		Vocabulary Range		Grammatical Range & Accuracy		Task Completion		Comprehension		TOTAL: (Assessor 1)		TOTAL: (Assessor 2)		AVERAGE:	
GRADE	5	5	5	5	5	25	25	25

	Fluency & Pronunciation	Vocabulary Range	Grammatical Range & Accuracy	Task Completion	Comprehension
A2 5	<i>Adequate oral production</i> Cannot respond without noticeable pauses and may speak slowly, with frequent repetition and self-correction Uses a limited range of pronunciation features	<i>Adequate range</i> Is able to talk about familiar topics but can only convey basic meaning on unfamiliar topics and makes frequent errors in word choice Rarely attempts paraphrase	<i>Adequate range</i> Produces basic sentence forms and some correct simple sentences but subordinate structures are rare Errors are frequent and may lead to misunderstandings	Both tasks dealt with comprehensively & relevantly with appropriate details	Student understands most everything said, yet repetition & clarification necessary
3	<i>Limited oral production</i> Speaks with long pauses. Has limited ability to link simple sentences Mispronunciations are frequent and cause some difficulty for the listener	<i>Limited range</i> Uses simple vocabulary to convey personal information Has insufficient vocabulary for less familiar topics	<i>Limited range</i> Attempts basic sentence forms but with limited success, or relies on apparently memorized utterances. Makes numerous errors except in memorized expressions.	Moderate success in at least one task & limited success in the other task, some irrelevant data/ideas	Student has difficulty in understanding what is said & requires frequent repetition
1	<i>Very limited oral production</i> Pauses lengthily before most words Little communication possible Mispronunciations are frequent	<i>Little knowledge of English Vocabulary</i> Communication impaired from inadequate vocabulary	<i>Little knowledge of sentence construction rules, does not communicate</i> Cannot produce basic sentence forms	Limited success in both tasks, very few details; no effort to complete both tasks. Both tasks include irrelevant data.	Student barely understands instructions and simple utterances

**APPENDIX F: Group Statistics of Student and Teacher Responses According
To Independent Sample T-Test Results**

	Participant	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q1	Teacher	19	4.26	.872	.200
	Student	261	4.35	1.007	.062
Q2	Teacher	19	4.26	1.046	.240
	Student	261	4.47	.914	.057
Q3	Teacher	19	3.63	.761	.175
	Student	261	4.41	.914	.057
Q4	Teacher	19	4.11	.875	.201
	Student	261	4.67	.798	.049
Q5	Teacher	19	4.11	.658	.151
	Student	261	4.44	.929	.057
Q6	Teacher	19	4.26	.872	.200
	Student	261	4.39	.925	.057
Q7	Teacher	19	4.37	.831	.191
	Student	261	4.48	.922	.057
Q8	Teacher	19	4.47	.612	.140
	Student	261	4.59	.839	.052
Q9	Teacher	19	4.26	.733	.168
	Student	261	4.27	1.029	.064
Q10	Teacher	19	4.11	.737	.169
	Student	261	4.41	.979	.061
Q11	Teacher	19	3.84	.602	.138
	Student	261	4.27	.927	.057
Q12	Teacher	19	4.11	.737	.169
	Student	260	4.14	.996	.062
Q13	Teacher	19	3.79	1.134	.260
	Student	261	4.35	.987	.061
Q14	Teacher	19	3.89	.875	.201
	Student	261	4.30	.958	.059
Q15	Teacher	19	3.74	.991	.227
	Student	261	4.12	1.045	.065
Q16	Teacher	19	4.11	.809	.186
	Student	261	4.04	1.001	.062
Q17	Teacher	19	4.32	.749	.172
	Student	261	4.28	.978	.061
Q18	Teacher	19	4.32	.671	.154
	Student	261	4.41	.906	.056
Q19	Teacher	19	4.05	.705	.162
	Student	260	4.05	1.001	.062
Q20	Teacher	19	3.63	.895	.205
	Student	261	4.10	1.061	.066
Q21	Teacher	19	4.26	.562	.129
	Student	261	4.12	1.015	.063
Q22	Teacher	19	4.00	.816	.187
	Student	261	4.28	.973	.060
Q23	Teacher	19	3.63	.761	.175
	Student	261	3.85	1.094	.068
Q24	Teacher	19	4.21	.855	.196
	Student	261	4.37	.930	.058
Q25	Teacher	19	3.79	.918	.211
	Student	261	3.97	1.028	.064

**APPENDIX F: Group Statistics of Student and Teacher Responses According
To Independent Sample T-Test Results (Cont'd)**

Q26	Teacher	19	4.16	.688	.158
	Student	261	4.10	1.061	.066
Q27	Teacher	19	3.74	1.147	.263
	Student	261	4.10	1.068	.066
Q28	Teacher	19	3.63	.831	.191
	Student	261	4.15	1.021	.063
Q29	Teacher	19	3.79	.976	.224
	Student	261	4.16	.988	.061
Q30	Teacher	19	4.47	.612	.140
	Student	261	4.38	.975	.060
Q31	Teacher	19	4.42	.607	.139
	Student	261	4.28	.966	.060
Q32	Teacher	19	4.00	.667	.153
	Student	261	4.21	1.003	.062
Q33	Teacher	19	3.95	.621	.143
	Student	261	4.38	.897	.056
Q34	Teacher	19	4.68	.671	.154
	Student	261	4.36	1.012	.063
Q35	Teacher	19	3.89	.809	.186
	Student	261	4.46	.830	.051
Q36	Teacher	19	4.32	.820	.188
	Student	260	4.18	1.026	.064
Q37	Teacher	19	3.68	.885	.203
	Student	261	4.33	1.003	.062
Q38	Teacher	19	3.89	.737	.169
	Student	261	4.31	1.008	.062
Q39	Teacher	19	3.84	.602	.138
	Student	261	4.00	1.060	.066
Q40	Teacher	19	4.00	1.054	.242
	Student	261	4.24	.963	.060
Q41	Teacher	19	4.00	.882	.202
	Student	261	4.24	1.019	.063
Q42	Teacher	19	3.84	.688	.158
	Student	261	4.08	.977	.060
Q43	Teacher	19	4.37	.831	.191
	Student	261	4.20	.993	.061
Q44	Teacher	19	3.53	.772	.177
	Student	260	4.17	.954	.059
Q45	Teacher	19	3.74	.653	.150
	Student	261	4.07	1.070	.066
Q46	Teacher	19	4.37	.761	.175
	Student	261	4.17	1.039	.064
Q47	Teacher	19	4.11	.459	.105
	Student	261	4.14	1.007	.062
Q48	Teacher	19	4.47	.513	.118
	Student	261	4.35	.927	.057
Q49	Teacher	19	4.11	.809	.186
	Student	261	4.10	1.064	.066
Q50	Teacher	19	3.89	.809	.186
	Student	261	2.44	1.371	.085

APPENDIX G: Descriptive Statistics of Conversation Strategies

Teaching/Recycling And Conversation Strategy Use in Final Speaking Exams

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
freqinthebook	7	26,29	7,057	18,670	,399	,794	-1,123	1,587
freqofssuse	7	123,00	39,582	104,723	1,596	,794	2,910	1,587
Valid N (listwise)	7							

APPENDIX H.1: Descriptive Statistics of Conversation Strategies Use in Final Speaking Exams And Task Completion Scores of Students

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis			
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Total	243	0	3,43	,161	2,504	,870	,156	,705	,311
TaskCompScore	243	,0	2,772	,0611	,9525	-,438	,156	-,377	,311
Valid N (listwise)	243								

APPENDIX H.2: Normality Test Results of Conversation Strategies Use in Final Speaking Exams and Task Completion Scores Of Students

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
TaskCompScore	,187	243	,000	,909	243	,000
Total	,169	243	,000	,931	243	,000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

APPENDIX I.1: Descriptive Statistics Of Conversation Strategies Use in Final Speaking Exams and Overall Speaking Performance Scores Of Students

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimu	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis			
		m		Deviation					
	Statisti	Statisti	Statisti	Std.	Statistic	Statisti	Std.	Statisti	Std.
	c	c	c	Error		c	Error	c	Error
Total	243	0	3,43	,161	2,504	,870	,156	,705	,311
Scores	243	1,0	13,708	,2598	4,0492	-,593	,156	,083	,311
Valid N (listwise)	243								

APPENDIX I.2: Normality Test Results Of Conversation Strategies Use in Final Speaking Exams and Overall Speaking Performance Scores of Students

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total	,169	243	,000	,931	243	,000
Scores	,078	243	,001	,964	243	,000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction