

Univerzita Karlova v Praze

Filozofická fakulta

Ústav anglického jazyka a didaktiky



DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

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Verbal Communication Strategies in English as a Foreign Language

Verbální komunikační strategie v angličtině jako cizím jazyce

Praha 2018

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Ráda bych tímto poděkovala PhDr. Tomáši Gráfovi, Ph.D. za odborné vedení, vytrvalou podporu a ochotu při poskytování cenných rad.

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Tereza Červenková

Souhlasím se zapůjčením diplomové práce ke studijním účelům. / I have no objections to this MA thesis being borrowed and used for study purposes.

Abstract

It is desirable that language learners develop their strategic competence, which allows them to communicate the intended meaning when facing breakdowns in communication. One of the manifestations of strategic competence is the use of communication strategies. The present thesis aims to observe the use of communication strategies by Czech learners of English. It focuses on the types of communication strategies used in learner language and on the relationship between their use and proficiency, fluency and task types. The data were extracted from 14 transcripts of interviews with students of English philology recorded for the purposes of the multinational learner corpus of advanced spoken English LINDSEI (2010). The proficiency of the recorded subjects ranged from B2- to C2. 319 instances of communication strategies extracted from the transcripts were categorized on the basis of an adapted taxonomy, forming two main categories: compensatory strategies (55 instances), which compensate the lack of linguistic resources, and indirect strategies (264 instances), which enhance the effectiveness of communication and keep the channel of communication open. Compensatory strategies were further divided into analytic (36), holistic (3), linguistic (6) and cooperative strategies (10). Analytic strategies were the most favoured type of compensatory strategies, appearing across all levels of proficiency, which suggests that the subjects preferred compensatory strategies that allow the highest propositional precision. Two categories emerged from the data that proved difficult to categorize within the taxonomy of communication strategies, i.e. self-repairs and self-rephrases. While the subjects' proficiency did not seem to affect the use of indirect strategies, the results showed that with increasing levels of proficiency, the use of compensatory strategies decreased. The comparison of the frequency across tasks was considered inconclusive as the difference between the use of communication strategies in the least and the most controlled task was negligible, which was out of keeping with previous research. No relation was found between the subjects' fluency scores and their communication-strategy counts, although it is suggested that while the use of communication strategies may improve productive fluency, some indirect strategies can negatively affect perceptive fluency. The varied results of the present theses and selected studies concerned with communication strategies were accredited to the narrower scope of language proficiency in this study and the nature of the interview tasks, which were considered less controlled and represented more authentic communication, giving a more reliable evidence of communication strategies that language learners use in real-life communicative situations.

Key words: strategic competence, communication strategies, compensatory strategies, analytic strategies, proficiency, fluency

Abstrakt

Pro studenty jazyka je žádoucí rozvinutá strategická kompetence, která jim umožňuje vyjádřit zamýšlené sdělení v situacích, kdy čelí selhání komunikace. Jedním z projevů strategické kompetence je užívání komunikačních strategií. Tato práce se zabývá užíváním komunikačních strategií českými studenty angličtiny jako druhého jazyka. Zaměřuje se na typy komunikačních strategií, které se objevují v žákovském jazyce, a na vztah mezi užíváním komunikačních strategií a úrovní pokročilosti, plynulostí projevu a typu úlohy. Data pro tuto práci byla získána z přepisů 14 rozhovorů se studenty anglické filologie, které byly nahrány za účelem rozšiřování mezinárodního žákovského korpusu pokročilé mluvené angličtiny LINDSEI (2010). Úrovně pokročilosti subjektů se pohybovaly v rozmezí B2- až C2. Z přepisů bylo získáno 319 příkladů komunikačních strategií, které byly rozřazeny do kategorií na základě upravené taxonomie. Vytvořily dvě hlavní skupiny: kompenzační strategie (55 příkladů), které kompenzují nedostatek lingvistických prostředků, a nepřímé strategie (264 příkladů), které zvyšují efektivitu komunikace a udržují komunikační kanál otevřený. Kompenzační strategie se dále dělily na analytické (36), holistické (3), lingvistické (6) a kooperační (10). Analytické strategie byly nejvíc preferované a objevovaly se u všech subjektů, což napovídá, že subjekty přednostně volily strategie, které umožňovaly nejvyšší propoziční přesnost. V datech se objevily dvě skupiny strategií, které bylo složité zařadit v rámci použité taxonomie: tzv. vlastní opravy a vlastní parafráze. Zatímco úrovně pokročilosti neovlivnily použití nepřímých strategií, výsledky ukázaly, že s rostoucí úrovní pokročilosti se snižuje frekvence užívání kompenzačních strategií. Porovnání četnosti komunikačních strategií v jednotlivých úlohách bylo neprůkazné, jelikož rozdíly v jejich použití v nejvíce a nejméně kontrolované úloze byly zanedbatelné, což je v rozporu s předchozím výzkumem. Neprokázalo se, že by typ úlohy měl vliv na počet nebo výběr typu komunikačních strategií. Také se nenašel vztah mezi skórem plynulosti projevu a počtem komunikačních strategií, přestože, jak se zdá, produktivní plynulost může být použitím komunikačních strategií vylepšena, zatímco některé nepřímé strategie mohou negativně ovlivnit percepční plynulost. Výsledky prezentované v této práci se v některých případech lišily od výsledků předchozích výzkumů. Tyto nesrovnalosti jsou připisovány zejména užšímu rozsahu úrovní pokročilosti v této práci a charakteru jednotlivých úloh, které se zdají méně kontrolované a více reprezentují autentickou komunikaci, a proto lépe vypovídají o skutečném užívání komunikačních strategií v žákovském jazyce v reálných komunikačních situacích.

Klíčová slova: strategická kompetence, komunikační strategie, kompenzační strategie, analytické strategie, pokročilost, plynulost

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR — Common European Framework of Reference

CS — communication strategy / strategies

CZ followed by number — numeric speaker identification in LINDSEI_CZ

L1 — mother tongue, first language

L2 — second/foreign language learnt

LINDSEI — Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage

LINDSEI_CZ — Czech subcorpus of Louvain International Database of Spoken English
Interlanguage

phw — per hundred words

1. INTRODUCTION

Being an English teacher of teenage and adult learners, I always ask newcomers in my classes why they have decided to enrol for the course and what they want to achieve by attending it, as I believe that the learners' goals and expectations to some extent influence the outcome of our collective efforts and the success of the language learning process. The answer that I hear the most often is that they simply want to be able to communicate in English with less effort; that they want to be understood by others and not to feel ashamed for failing once again to put what is on their mind into words in a clear, comprehensive way. In order to help my students achieve their goals, I always look for better ways to promote accuracy and fluency in spoken English and to provide language learners with more problem-solving devices that they can effectively use in communication. This resulted in my interest in communication strategies, i.e. strategies that enhance the effectiveness of communication, allow learners to meet their communicative goals and help prevent breakdowns in situations when the language learner lacks desired linguistic structures.

This thesis focuses on the use of selected verbal communication strategies in speech produced by Czech learners of English. The theoretical part explains the concept of communicative competence, focusing on the shift from the form-based to function-based descriptions of language. Furthermore, it provides an overview of the definitions of communication strategies, which vary based on the researchers' linguistic approaches and give rise to multiple categorization systems. Selected representatives of these taxonomies are discussed and compared. The theoretical part also focuses on learner language, i.e. on the rules and processes underlining its linguistic system, fluency in learner language and the use of communication strategies in this system.

The practical part of the present thesis is concerned with an analysis of 319 instances of communication strategies produced by upper-intermediate to proficient learners. These instances were extracted from transcripts of interviews recorded for LINDSEI_CZ (2015), the Czech subcorpus of the multinational learner corpus of advanced spoken English LINDSEI (2010). The research observes the strategy types appearing used in the interviews, placing them within a communication-strategy taxonomy that has been adapted to accommodate for the phenomena emerging from the data. The thesis also examines the relationship between the use of communication strategies and the task type, the levels of proficiency of the subjects and their fluency and compares the results with selected studies that are based on data collected in special pre-designed tasks encouraging the use of communication strategies.

2. COMPETENCES AND COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Conversation can be characterised as a “highly organized activity” (Dörnyei, 1994:40) and failure to follow its organization may lead to its breakdown. Maintaining the flow of conversation is especially difficult for non-native speakers, who may feel restricted from expressing themselves due to various difficulties that have emerged in communication. The crisis in communication arises when speakers’ “language structures are inadequate to convey the individual thought” (Tarone, 1977:195). To overcome such breakdowns in communication, learners may resort to using *communication strategies*¹, which are verbal or non-verbal tools that allow speakers to carry on with their communicative goals. The use of CS in language teaching and learning has been a frequent research topic addressed by many researchers interested in communicative competence.

2.1 *Communicative Competence*

Two terms reoccur in discussions concerning second language acquisition — *competence* and *performance*. These terms were introduced by Chomsky (1965) in connection to his theory of *linguistic competence*. Chomsky used these terms to distinguish between a speaker’s knowledge of the linguistic system (*competence*), and the actual use of the system in real-life situations (*performance*). *Competence* refers to the rules of the grammar of a specific language as they are internalised by its speakers, whereas *performance* is concerned with “the psychological factors that are involved in the perception and production of speech” (Canale & Swain, 1980:3), including perceptual parsing strategies, memory limitations, etc. However, Chomsky admitted that performance does not directly reflect competence (Canale & Swain, 1980:3), which means that not everything the speaker produces is in accordance with the linguistic system of the target language. As Chomsky’s theory of linguistic competence did not provide a plausible explanation why there may be obvious inconsistencies between competence and performance, other linguists began to explore how context influences meaning. Hymes was opposed to Chomsky’s structuralist notion of performance as a mere reflection of the internalised grammar rules. He objected to generative grammar as he realised that communication relies on not only linguistic knowledge but also social knowledge. In reaction to Chomsky, Hymes (1972) proposed the term *communicative competence* (Canale and Swain, 1980:4), taking into consideration social and psychological context that affected speakers’

¹ Hereafter referred to as CS.

performance in communication. The introduction of *communicative competence* gave rise to the innovative communicative approach, which saw the importance of focusing on communication skills in foreign language teaching. Hymes' *communicative competence* consisted of two sub-types: *grammatical competence*, which is most closely associated with Chomsky's *linguistic competence*, and *sociolinguistic competence*, which concerns the rules of language use in particular contexts.

Hymes' view of *communicative competence* was well received by other linguists and inspired many sociolinguistic researchers. Canale and Swain (1980) extended Hymes' theory by adding another competence subtype to his *communicative competence* — *strategic competence*². *Strategic competence* is the ability to communicate the intended meaning when facing breakdowns in communication, which may occur due to insufficiency of one of the competences. The speaker then uses “*verbal and non-verbal communication strategies*” (Canale & Swain, 1980:31) to compensate for this breakdown. The development of *strategic competence* also enhances speakers' fluency and conversational skills (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991:1), allowing them to express themselves more clearly when their language knowledge is not sufficient or when they encounter other difficulties in communication. As Dörnyei & Thurrell explain, *strategic competence* is relevant in both L1 and L2, because breakdowns in communication regularly happen in any language system (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991:2). Canale and Swain (1980) state that while *grammatical competence* is acquired during foreign language learning, *sociolinguistic competence* and *strategic competence* are “acquired through experience in communicative use of the first or dominant language” (Canale & Swain, 1980:29) to be transferred to the use of the foreign language. In relation to this claim, Dörnyei says that speakers can be equipped with a “repertoire of applicable communication strategies, regardless of their level of proficiency” (Dörnyei, 1995:60).

2.2 *Communication Strategies*

Speakers employ CS to handle discrepancies between their “linguistic resources and communicative intentions” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:174). As mentioned in the previous section, CS appear in both mother tongue and foreign language, but it is believed that they are used differently in each of the languages. While native speakers use CS rather to enhance the effectiveness of communication than to overcome resource deficit³, language learners often use

² The term was provided by A.S. Palmer (1978) (Canale & Swain, 1980:1).

³ It should be mentioned that native speakers may also experience resource deficits in their mother tongue. However, the situations in which they need to resort to using CS are not as frequent as in learner language.

them to fill in the gaps in their linguistic knowledge. Learners' deficiencies in the linguistic system of the target language suggest that resorting to CS is very frequent in learner language and takes up a good deal of time in their communication (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:174).

The notion of strategies used by learners to bridge the gap between their knowledge of the linguistic system of the target language and the intended meaning became the focus of much research at the beginning of the 1970s. No unified taxonomy of CS has been introduced yet, and it is also difficult to find a universal definition of this phenomenon. Different systems of categorization provided by different researchers characterize CS in their own specific ways. The following sections will discuss the history of CS research, approaches to conceptualizing CS, features of CS definitions and their taxonomies.

2.2.1 *History of Communication-strategy Research*

The term *communication strategy* was coined by Selinker (1972) in his paper on *interlanguage*, which discussed strategies in second language communication as one of the central processes in language learning (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:175). At the same time, Savignon (1972) described the same phenomena, calling it *coping strategies* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:175). The first definition of CS was provided by Tarone et al. (1997), who also presented the first available taxonomy based on this definition, dividing CS into *avoidance strategies*, *paraphrase*, *conscious transfer*, *appeal for assistance* and *mime* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:175, 196).

After 1980, CS became more scrutinized by researchers, who compiled studies mostly concerning definitions and taxonomies of CS and their teachability. Canale and Swain (1980, 1983) introduced their notion of *strategic competence* as a part of *communicative competence* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:176). In the second half of the 1980s, the researchers from the Nijmegen University, also known as the Nijmegen Group, carried out an empirical project that revealed more about the use of CS and whose results challenged some of the previous approaches and taxonomies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:176).

2.2.2 *Linguistic Approaches to Conceptualizing Communication Strategies*

The first traditional definitions of CS described them as tools that filled the gaps in the speaker's L2 proficiency and dealt with production problems at the planning stage, excluding other problem-solving devices such as meaning-negotiation and repair mechanisms (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:177).

By adopting a discourse analytical perspective and an interactional approach, Tarone (1980) attempted to expand her first definition of CS and erase the boundary that was proposed by the traditional view, providing a definition that brought CS, meaning-negotiation and repair mechanisms closer together and that moved away from a strictly linguistic form. She described CS from an interactional point of view as a “mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:177).

Dörnyei (1995) considered insufficient processing time to be one of the most significant reasons for gaps in communication, which was the reason for his extending the definition of CS beyond meaning-related devices by including *stalling strategies* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:179), which are devices that are used to gain more processing time. Other researchers, including Tarone (1980), objected to this extension, as they considered stalling strategies to belong with *production strategies* rather than CS (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:179). Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) went even further in extending the definition by adding all strategies aimed at overcoming any language-related problems that speakers may encounter in communication.

Canale (1983) extended the definition from problem-solving devices to devices that help “enhance the effectiveness of communication” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:179). His view was shared by Bialystok (1990), who viewed conversation strategies as “a plan of action to accomplish a communication goal” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:179).

2.2.3 *Common features of communication-strategy definitions*

Based on the approaches to conceptualizing CS mentioned above, there are two common criteria that are used to help define CS: *problem-orientedness* and *consciousness*. However, these criteria lack explicitness, which is why they do not allow the researchers to establish one universal CS definition (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:182).

Problem-orientedness refers to the speaker’s attempts at overcoming trouble spots in communication that were created by “a mismatch between communicative intention and linguistic resources” (Váradi, 1992:437). In other words, CS are used by speakers only when they encounter a linguistic problem that may interrupt the flow of communication (Bialystok, 1990:3). Dörnyei and Scott (1997: 183) emphasized that the term *problem in communication* must be specified for the purposes of defining CS more accurately. Initially, the notion of problem-orientedness took into account only resource deficits that prevented speakers from expressing the intended concepts, but several researchers pointed out that there are more types of problems that may arise during communication, extending the term *communication strategy*

to include the following problems: *own-performance problems*, *other-performance problems* and *processing time pressure* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:183). When speakers themselves realize that they lack the ability to word their thoughts or that they have made a mistake, they are aware of an *own-performance problem*. Such problems can be handled with self-repairs, self-rephrasing or self-editing. *Other-performance problems* arise when the second party is not understood, and they can be overcome by using meaning negotiation strategies. *Processing time pressure* is caused by the speaker's need for "more time to process and plan L2 speech than would be naturally available in fluent communication" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:183). To gain more time to process and plan, speakers often use fillers, hesitation devices, or self-repetitions.

Researchers agree that CS are used consciously in order to achieve a certain goal (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:184). However, some object that the term *consciousness* is too vague for the purposes of defining CS and suggest that it be replaced by a more suitable term, such as *awareness* or *intentionality*. *Awareness* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:185) relates to the issue of *problem-orientedness*. To be labelled CS, devices applied by speakers must be used to overcome a breakdown in communication of which the speaker is aware. Speakers should also be aware that the devices they use to bridge the gap in their knowledge are in fact only strategies, which means that they are less than perfect (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:185) and do not equal the most acceptable and accurate L2 concept. *Intentionality* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:185) separates some CS from others. Speakers use some CS based on a conscious decision, while in the case of other CS, including stalling strategies (filled pauses, repetitions etc.), speakers are aware of their problems in communication and their need for devices that will help them resolve the problems, but they rarely use them intentionally.

2.3 *Communication-strategy Taxonomies*

The differences in CS definitions are most prominent when the existing CS taxonomies are compared. Researchers offer various taxonomy systems that reflect their approaches to the phenomenon, i.e. what each specific approach considers to be CS. With respect to Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2, the taxonomies present a scale starting with the Nijmegen Group and Poulisse (1993) and their narrow definition of CS as lexical-compensatory strategies, and ending with Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) and their wide concept of CS used for general problem-management (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:195). However, if we disregard the scopes of the individual approaches and the variation in terminology, we can notice a "core group of specific strategies that appear consistently across the taxonomies" (Bialystok, 1990:61).

Tarone (1977), Færch and Kasper (1983b) (see Table 1) and Willems (1987) recognize two basic CS types (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:195): *reduction strategies* and *achievement strategies*. *Reduction strategies* (also Tarone’s (1977) *avoidance strategies*) are used to “tailor one’s message to one’s resources by altering, reducing, or completely abandoning the original content” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:195). By applying *achievement strategies*, the speaker attempts to “convey the intended message in spite of the linguistic deficiencies by extending or manipulating the available language system” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:195). Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) also recognize this CS duality, although implicitly (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:195) (see Table 2). The remaining taxonomies acknowledge only achievement strategies.

Table 1: Færch and Kasper’s (1983b) Reduction and achievement strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:196)

FORMAL REDUCTION	Phonological			
	Morphological			
	Syntactic			
FUNCTIONAL REDUCTION	Actional reduction			
	Modal reduction			
	Reduction of propositional content	Topic avoidance		
		Message abandonment		
Meaning replacement				
ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES	Compensatory strategies	Code switching		
		Interlingual transfer		
		Inter-/intralingual transfer		
		IL based strategies	Generalizing	
			Paraphrase	
			Word coinage	
	Restructuring			
	Cooperative strategies			
	Non-linguistic strategies			
	Retrieval strategies			

Other possible categorization of CS was offered by Bialystok (1983), Færch and Kasper (1983b), Paribakht (1985), Tarone (1977) and Willems (1987), who based them on different properties of the language devices (e.g. the role of L1 in the use of the device). However, some researchers thought that such categories lacked the description of the underlying psychological motives (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:198), which led to an introduction of new, revisited taxonomies.

Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) based their taxonomy of “*problem-solving strategies*” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:198) on the manner of problem management, which gave rise to three

categories: *direct*, *indirect*, and *interactional strategies* (see Table 2). *Direct strategies* include alternatives that are capable of compensating for the lack of knowledge. On the other hand, *indirect strategies* are aimed not at solving problems in communication, but rather at creating conditions that would prevent such problems (e.g. fillers, feigning understanding, or hedging) (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:198). *Interactional strategies* involve two interlocutors who cooperate to overcome a problem in communication (e.g. an appeal for help or a request for clarification) (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:175).

Table 2: Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) Taxonomy of communication strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997: 197)

DIRECT STRATEGIES	Resource deficit-related strategies	Message abandonment
		Message reduction
		Message replacement
		Circumlocution
		Approximation
		Use of all-purpose words
		Word-coinage
		Restructuring
		Literal translation
		Foreignizing
		Code switching
		Use of similar sounding words
		Mumbling
		Omission
	Retrieval	
Own-performance problem-related strategies	Self-rephrasing	
	Self-repair	
	Other repair	
INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES	Resource deficit-related strategies	Appeals for help
	Own-performance problem-related strategies	Comprehension check
		Own-accuracy check
	Other-performance problem-related strategies	Asking for repetition
		Asking for clarification
		Guessing
		Expressing nonunderstanding
		Interpretive summary
	Responses	

INDIRECT STRATEGIES	Processing time pressure-related strategies	Use of fillers Repetitions
	Own-performance problem-related strategies	Verbal strategy markers
	Other-performance problem-related strategies	Feigning understanding

The Nijmegen Group and Bialystok (Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987) objected to the previous taxonomies as they felt that they did not have a practical application because they were not linked with theories of language use and development (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:199). They also criticized the previous taxonomies for their focus on detail to the detriment of generalizations. According to their approach, a useful taxonomy “should be informed by what is currently known about language processing, cognition and problem-solving behaviour”⁴ (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:199). This prompted the formation of a taxonomy that would be parsimonious, independent of speaker variables, and, most importantly, psychologically plausible (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:199). The Nijmegen Group divided CS into two categories: *conceptual* and *linguistic* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:200) (see Table 3). *Conceptual strategies* help speakers adjust the concept so that they can express it through their linguistic knowledge. They are further divided into *analytic strategies*, which involve listing some of the properties of the intended concept, and *holistic strategies*, allowing the speaker to substitute the concept by a related concept, e.g. a subordinate or superordinate word (Poulisse, 1989:58). *Linguistic strategies* allow speakers to manipulate their “linguistic knowledge through either morphological creativity or transfer” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:200). To extend the scope of this category and include non-verbal CS, Kellerman (1991) proposed the term *code strategies* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:200). To approximate the Nijmegen Group taxonomy to the previously mentioned systems, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) mention that *conceptual strategies* include circumlocution, while *linguistic strategies* include literal translation, foreignizing, etc. (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:200).

Table 3: The Nijmegen Group’s conceptual and linguistic strategies (based on Poulisse, 1987, and Kellerman, 1991) (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997: 197)

CONCEPTUAL STRATEGIES	Analytic
	Holistic
LINGUISTIC/CODE STRATEGIES	Morphological creativity
	Transfer

⁴ Kellerman and Bialystok in press.

Bialystok's (1990) approach was similar to the Nijmegen Group, her taxonomy featuring similar characteristics. She based her taxonomy on her cognitive theory of language processing (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:200), dividing CS into *analysis-based strategies*, which make explicit the relational defining features of the intended concept (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:200), and *control-based strategies*, which keep the original concept but manipulate the means of expression.

Poullisse (1993) criticised the Nijmegen Group's and Bialystok's approaches to CS taxonomy mentioned above for their disregard of "the processes involved in speech production as outlined by the L2 adaptation of Levelt's (1989) well-known model of L1 processing" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:201). She objected that some of the categories that were offered by those taxonomies were, from a process-oriented point of view, very similar and thus their division was redundant. In reaction to the Nijmegen Group's and Bialystok's taxonomies, Poullisse (1993) offered three CS categories: *substitution strategies*, *substitution-plus strategies*, and *reconceptualization strategies* (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:201). In *substitution strategies*, speakers use a new lexical item whose features are not all identical with the features of the intended lexical item. *Substitution-plus strategies* are similar, but also contain "out-of-the-ordinary application of L1 or L2 morphological and/or phonological encoding procedures" (Poullisse, 1993:180). *Reconceptualization strategies* allow speakers to adjust the "preverbal message" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:202). However, Poullisse's three-way model was reproached by Kellerman and Bialystok (in press) for its ambiguity when it comes to categorizing specific instances of CS, such as definition-like structures and lists of category members (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:202).

It is evident that CS taxonomies were strongly influenced by the linguists' approaches to language analysis and their differences show how extensive the topic of CS is. The approaches gave rise to multiple systems of categorization, which upon observation reveal a common core of CS that repeatedly appear in the use of a foreign language system.

2.4 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The shift from Chomsky's (1965) structuralist perspective to Hymes' (1972) communicative approach and Canale and Swain's (1980) theory of strategic competence as described in Section 2.1 encouraged the development of communicative language teaching. It became clear that the successes of language learners could not be measured solely by their knowledge of the linguistic system of the target language and therefore, the researchers focused on the competences that enabled learners to arrive at their communicative goals. This resulted in an attempt to

summarize what learners at different stages of language learning should aspire to achieve in order to communicate efficiently, which gave rise to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), reflecting the functional, usage-based and task-based approaches to language learning.

The CEFR is a guideline that provides a comprehensive description of the learners' achievements in L2 learning. It attempts to "handle the great complexity of human language by breaking language competence down into separate components" (ibid.:1). The CEFR was designed by the Council of Europe to encourage and intensify language learning and teaching and to promote plurilingualism that would lead to greater mobility within the European Union, better access to information, more intensive personal interaction, improved working relations and deeper mutual understanding (ibid., 5). The Intergovernmental Symposium held in November 1991 suggested that the development of such a framework would "promote and facilitate co-operation among educational institutions in different countries" and "provide a sound basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications" (ibid., 5).

To meet these functions, such a framework needs to be comprehensive, transparent and coherent (ibid., 7). A comprehensive framework should specify language knowledge, skills and use in as much detail as possible. A transparent framework is "clearly formulated and explicit, available and readily comprehensible to users" (ibid., 7). A coherent framework does not contain internal contradictions. The framework should also be flexible so that there is no pressure to groom a unitary educational system and allow different educational systems to refer to it freely and without many adjustments. The Council of Europe further describes a suitable Common European Framework as multi-purpose, open to further extension and refinement, dynamic, user-friendly, and non-dogmatic, i.e. "not irrevocably and exclusively attached to any one of a number of competing linguistic or educational theories or practices" (ibid., 8).

To create a "comprehensive, transparent and coherent frame of reference" (ibid., 9), the Council of Europe adopted an action-oriented approach to language use and learning. This approach considers language users as social agents who use language to carry out tasks "in a given set of circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular field of action" (ibid., 9). Language use and learning feature a number of domains that shape them. These domains that are relevant to the purposes of the CEFR are a) *competences*, which can be divided into *general competences* not specific to language (e.g. knowledge of the world, sociocultural knowledge, practical skills etc.) and *communicative language competences*; b) *context*, i.e. the situational factors; c) *language activities* referring to the exercise of communicative language competences; d) *language processes*, which are neurological and physiological events involved

in speech production and reception; e) *text* as a sequence of language activity with the purpose of carrying out a task; f) *domain* referring to sectors of social life (for the purposes of language learning and teaching specified as the *educational, occupational, public* and *personal domains*); g) *strategies*, which are “organised, purposeful and regulated” (ibid., 10) lines of action chosen to carry out a task; and h) *tasks*, i.e. purposeful actions needed to be carried out to achieve a given result.

Communicative language teaching focuses on learners’ *communicative language competences* as they are believed to constitute an important part of the knowledge of language use. *Communicative language competences* consist of *linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence* and *pragmatic competence* (ibid., 108). *Linguistic competence* with subcategories such as *lexical competence* or *grammatical competence* is the knowledge of a language as a formal system, while *sociolinguistic competence* is “the knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use” (ibid., 118), including the knowledge of e.g. linguistic markers for social dimensions, politeness conventions or register differences. *Pragmatic competence* is concerned with a) organisation, structure and arrangement of messages (*discourse competence*), b) performing communicative functions (*functional competence*) and c) sequencing according to interactional and transactional schemata (*design competence*) (ibid., 123). *Functional competence* allows language learners to carry out specific functions in communication, the functional success of learners in communication resulting in improved fluency and propositional precision⁵, which are both desirable achievements in learner language (ibid., 128). *Functional competence* contains communication repairs, compensations and other tools that can be termed CS on the basis of previous sections of the present thesis, enabling language users to “re-establish communication and clear up misunderstanding when necessary,” (ibid., 85).

The CEFR explains CS as “a means the language user exploits to mobilise and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfil the demands of communication in context” (ibid., 57), pointing out that they are not merely a “disability model [...] making up for a language deficit or miscommunication” (ibid., 57) but can be used even by native speakers to “maximise effectiveness” (ibid., 57) and meet communicative demands. The category of CS as described by the CEFR that is the most relevant to this thesis is *production strategies* that compensate for deficiencies (see Figure 1), including strategies such as *message adjustment, avoidance strategies, achievement strategies* or *self-correction*.

⁵ The CEFR defines propositional precision as “the ability to formulate thoughts and propositions so as to make one’s meaning clear” (ibid., 128).

Figure 1: CEFR: Illustrative scales for compensating strategies (ibid., 64)

	COMPENSATING
C2	Can substitute an equivalent term for a word he/she can't recall so smoothly that it is scarcely noticeable.
C1	As B2+
B2	Can use circumlocution and paraphrase to cover gaps in vocabulary and structure.
B1	Can define the features of something concrete for which he/she can't remember the word. Can convey meaning by qualifying a word meaning something similar (e.g. a truck for people = bus).
	Can use a simple word meaning something similar to the concept he/she wants to convey and invites 'correction'. Can foreignise a mother tongue word and ask for confirmation.
A2	Can use an inadequate word from his/her repertoire and use gesture to clarify what he/she wants to say.
	Can identify what he/she means by pointing to it (e.g. 'I'd like this, please').
A1	No descriptor available

The CEFR offers four approaches to acknowledging CS in language classrooms. It suggests that CS can be:

- [...] a) assumed to be transferable from the learner's L1 usage or facilitated;
- b) [approached] by creating situation and setting tasks (e.g. role play and simulations) which require the operation of planning, execution, evaluation and repair strategies;
- c) as b), but using awareness-raising techniques (e.g. recording and analysis of roleplays and simulations);
- d) as b), but encouraging or requiring learners to focus on and follow explicit strategic procedures as the need arises. (ibid., 147)

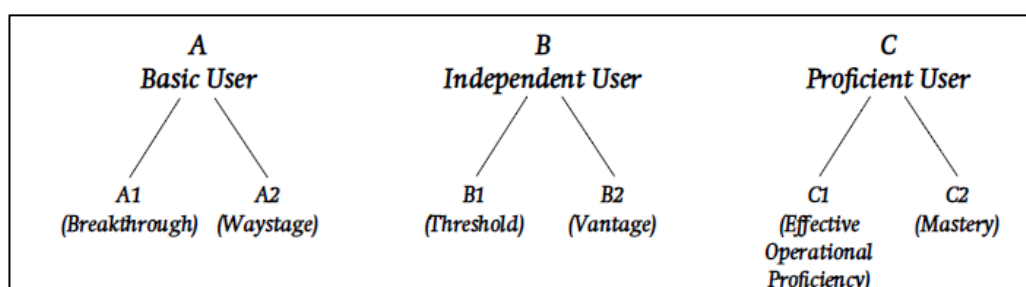
The CEFR then invites language teachers to consider how to implement relevant CS and activities into their classes to encourage learning. The fact that the CEFR contains notes on learners' ability to bridge gaps in their knowledge of the target language and maximise effectiveness in communication by manipulating accessible CS suggests that the use of CS in learner language is widely recognized as beneficial. Language teachers should not overlook the potential of CS in learner language and should work with their learners' strategic competence to help them achieve improved fluency and prepositional precision.

Figure 2: CEFR: Illustrative scales for propositional precision (ibid., 129)

PROPOSITIONAL PRECISION	
C2	Can convey finer shades of meaning precisely by using, with reasonable accuracy, a wide range of qualifying devices (e.g. adverbs expressing degree, clauses expressing limitations). Can give emphasis, differentiate and eliminate ambiguity.
C1	Can qualify opinions and statements precisely in relation to degrees of, for example, certainty/uncertainty, belief/doubt, likelihood, etc.
B2	Can pass on detailed information reliably.
B1	Can explain the main points in an idea or problem with reasonable precision.
	Can convey simple, straightforward information of immediate relevance, getting across which point he/she feels is most important. Can express the main point he/she wants to make comprehensibly.
A2	Can communicate what he/she wants to say in a simple and direct exchange of limited information on familiar and routine matters, but in other situations he/she generally has to compromise the message.
A1	No descriptor available

The domains that fall under competences in the framework add a horizontal dimension to the vertical dimension of levels of language proficiency, specifying “parameters of communicative activity and communicative language competence” (ibid., 16) for each of the levels. The two dimensions form a profiling grid that serves as an overview of the CEFR. The vertical dimension consists of six broad levels of proficiency covering the usual scale of language learning across Europe: *Breakthrough*, *Waystage*, *Threshold*, *Vantage*, *Effective operational proficiency* and *Mastery* (ibid., 23), *Breakthrough* being the lowest level of proficiency and *Mastery* the highest level. To adhere to the classic division into *basic (elementary)*, *intermediate* and *advanced* and to avoid inconvenient translations, the scheme adopted a “hyper-text branching principle” (ibid., 23) (see Figure 3), which also uses letter-number markings from *A1* to *C2* to distinguish the levels of proficiency. The branching approach boasts great flexibility, which allows it to accommodate to the needs of different institutions and the required degree of detail by dividing the criterion levels *A1* to *C2* into plus levels (*A1+*, *A1-* or *A1.1*, *A1.2*).

Figure 3: Hyper-text Branching Principle (ibid., 32)



There are different formats of presenting the language proficiencies and the common reference points based on the purposes for which the presentation is created. While some proficiency-level grids may only provide a single holistic paragraph that briefly describes the specific level on a global scale (see Appendix 2), other formats may use a more detailed and selective description of proficiency levels and competences (see Appendix 3).

To be able to collect data for research, language teaching and learning researchers often rely on levels of proficiency of their subjects. However, researchers must ask themselves how to decide whether their means of establishing the subject's proficiency are reliable and whether the results emerging from their arbitrary rules of division are valid for comparison with other studies. To overcome this obstacle in data collection, they often seek a widely accepted, unified taxonomy of language proficiency levels. Such taxonomy is offered by the aforementioned CEFR, providing the researchers with a comprehensible description of the levels of proficiency and competences that need to be met to achieve a certain level. This framework is well-recognized in the language teaching and learning community not only in Europe, which makes it a suitable starting point for data collection in research.

3. LEARNER LANGUAGE

As Tarone and Swierzbin (2009:11) explain, linguistic forms taught to L2 learners may not correspond with the linguistic forms that are learnt as learners' 'built-in syllabus' (Corder, 1967) and the syllabus followed by their language teacher may diverge. This "mismatch between language teaching and language learning" (Tarone & Swierzbin, 2009:11) gives rise to a specific type of language, i.e. *learner language*. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) define learner language as the "oral or written language produced by learners"(Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005:4).

3.1 *Interlanguage*

The linguistic system underlying the production of learner language is called *interlanguage* (Selinker, 1972) and is used by language learners who try to express meanings in a language that they are learning (Tarone & Swierzbin, 2009:12). Selinker (1972:210) claims that interlanguage can be observed only in "meaningful performance situations" in which a learner "attempts to express meanings, which he may already have, in a language which he is in the process of learning." Such situations do not include form-focused exercises, drill exercises or memorized speech as these replicate a language with a linguistic system that may not be identical to the learner's interlanguage and therefore, the language conveyed in these situations is not relevant to the theories of second language acquisition.

Researchers claim that interlanguage is governed by a set of rules which differ from rules of both the learners' mother tongue and the target language (Tarone & Swierzbin, 2009:12). Selinker (1972) draws attention to the difference between a child's L1 acquisition and a learner's L2 learning, saying that while L1 acquisition results in a linguistic system identical to the linguistic system of the target language, L2 learning provides the learner with a linguistic system that eventually stops developing and fossilizes, permanently differing from the target language (Tarone & Swierzbin, 2009:12). Selinker (1972:215) points out that "fossilizable structures tend to remain as potential performance, re-emerging in the productive performance of an interlanguage even when seemingly eradicated." The reappearance of these structures, which are considered erroneous in the target language, usually occurs when the learner is stressed or anxious (Selinker, 1972:215). The theories of second-language acquisition also recognize this phenomenon as *backsliding*.

According to Selinker (1972:217), the rules of a learner's interlanguage are shaped by five processes that are central to L2 learning and which produce *fossilized interlanguage competences*. These processes are *language transfer*, *transfer-of-training*, *overgeneralization*

of target-language linguistic material⁶, *strategies of second-language learning* and *strategies of second-language communication* (Selinker, 1972:215). *Language transfer* refers to situations in which learners use their knowledge of their mother tongue or other language they have mastered to express meanings in the target language. *Transfer-of-training* is the influence of instruction and training provided by second-language teachers and the tools they use in teaching. *Overgeneralization of target-language linguistic material* refers to extension of the application of linguistic rules beyond environments where they usually apply. Selinker (1972) points out that *strategies of second-language learning* are probably in some measure culture-bound and that they and their use can't be reliably described. Selinker's learning strategies include e.g. reduction of the target language to a simpler system (Selinker, 1972:219). The last process that shapes a learner's interlanguage is *strategies of second-language communication*.

3.2 Communication Strategies in Learner Language

*Strategies of second-language communication*⁷ are used by learners to overcome "roadblocks to effective communication" (Tarone & Swierzbin, 2009:72) that are usually caused by gaps in their linguistic system. Coulter (1968:7ff) describes that past experiences also influence learners' choice of CS, allowing them to adjust the use of their linguistic system to prevent breakdowns in communication that they might have encountered in previous communication.

The information provided in Sections 2.2 and 2.3 suggests that CS are not represented in the same way in learners' interlanguage and their L1. As discussed in Section 2.2, researchers focusing on CS offer multiple definitions of what a CS is. From the scope of definitions offered by the researchers, it can be assumed that CS in the narrowest sense consist only of the so-called *compensation* (also *compensatory*) *strategies* (Littlemore, 2012). Canale (1983) offers the most extended definition, claiming that CS "enhance the effectiveness of communication" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:179). Tarone and Swierzbin (2009) explain that CS are "mutual attempts of two communicators to agree on a meaning in situations where they do not share the required language forms" (Tarone & Swierzbin, 2009:73). Tarone and Swierzbin's (ibid.) definition refers to compensatory strategies rather than the broad scope of CS as defined by Canale (1983), emphasizing the deficiency in learners' linguistic systems and their attempts at overcoming linguistic difficulties. In contrast, CS as defined by Canale may appear even outside

⁶ CS researchers consider language transfer and overgeneralization of the target-language linguistic material to fall under CS, e.g. Poulisse (1989), who refers to them as *linguistic strategies*.

⁷ It may be pointed out that the term *strategies of second-language communication* is inaccurate, as it seems that there are no L2 specific CS (Poulisse, 1989) since CS are believed to be acquired through experience L1 (Canale & Swain, 1980:29) (see Section 2.1).

situations of grammatical or lexical gaps. Based on the difference between communication and compensatory strategies, it can be assumed that while CS as devices enhancing the effectivity of communication may appear in the speakers' both L1 and learner language, compensatory strategies are mostly reserved for their learner language, as there usually are very few gaps in their knowledge of their L1 compared to their learner language. However, it can be objected that certain slips may occur even in the use of L1, , e.g. when the speakers cannot retrieve a word from their memory, and in such cases, they may opt for a compensatory strategy.

Tarone and Swierzbin (2009) discuss whether the use of CS is beneficial for L2 acquisition or whether they hinder it. They compare various uses of CS to decide whether all of them contribute to L2 acquisition and if so, what is likely to be acquired through the use of CS (Tarone & Swierzbin, 2009:73). They conclude that by participating in interactions in which they use CS, learners may obtain feedback from other interlocutors that may fill some gaps in their missing linguistic knowledge, receiving language input, which is crucial for L2 acquisition (Tarone & Swierzbin, 2009:78).

3.3 Success in Learner Language

Selinker (1972:229) claims that successful L2 learning is mostly “the reorganization of linguistic material of interlanguage to identify with a particular target language”. However, he points out that only a small percentage of learners achieve native-like competence and explains that these learners have not acquired their competence through explanation and instruction, but they have reactivated *latent language structure* (Selinker, 1972:230). *Latent language structure* (Lenneberg, 1967) is “an already formulated arrangement in the brain” and “the biological counterpart to universal grammar” (Selinker, 1972:230) that turns into realized structures of a particular grammar in infancy and develops based on maturation stages. However, only very little is known about activation of *latent language structure*, which prevents researchers interested in L2 learning from introducing a clear set of rules that would help language learners achieve native-like competence more easily. Nevertheless, success in L2 learning can be defined less loosely than achieving native-like competence as some learners may be equally satisfied with achieving communicative competence (Selinker, 1972:223).

Other researchers⁸ suggest that learners wish to be successful in different aspects of L2 use, such as *accuracy*, *complexity* or *fluency* (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005:139). According to Skehan (1996b:23), *accuracy* shows how well the learner produces his or her interlanguage in

⁸ Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) mention Skehan (1998a) and Robinson (2001).

relation to the rule system of the target language. *Complexity* refers to the degree of elaboration of their interlanguage. Skehan (ibid.) suggests that learners who seek complexity either aim at the upper limit of their interlanguage or focus on using a wide range of different structures. In both of these cases, complex structures are not yet internalised by the learner and he or she willingly takes risks and experiments with the structures in order to achieve higher complexity (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005:139).

3.4 Fluency in Learner Language

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:139) define *fluency* as “the production of language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation.” They also point out that by focusing on *fluency*, learners prioritize meaning over form, in contrast to focusing on *accuracy* and *complexity*, which are based on form.

Skehan (1998b) divides fluency into *breakdown fluency* and *repair fluency*, which corresponds to two kinds of fluency measures provided by Wiese (1984) and Lennon (1990). These measures are *temporal variables* and *hesitation phenomena* (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005:156). *Temporal variables* include *speech rate*, which usually denotes the number of syllables per a specific unit of time, *number of pauses*, both filled and unfilled and *pause length*. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:156) state that *speech rate* features two temporal aspects: *online planning time* and *rate of articulation*. They also point out that according to their statistical evidence, the speech rates of language learners and native speakers differ significantly, decreasing with lower levels of proficiency. Furthermore, they explain that *number of pauses* and *pause length* “provide an indication of the extent to which learners need to disengage from speaking in order to plan their spoken message” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005:156). Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:158) claim that the individual temporal variables are not useful for measuring fluency when observed separately as they do not relate to the same temporal aspect. Therefore, the level of learners’ fluency should not be determined based on one of the temporal variables only. On the other hand, studies have shown that individual variables of *hesitation phenomena*, which comprise of *false starts*, *repetitions*, *reformulations*, and *replacements* (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005:157), are strongly related, which means that a single variable can provide a valid measure. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) also state that measures of both *temporal variables* and *hesitation phenomena* point in the same direction, as more fluent learners achieve faster speech rates and speak with fewer and shorter pauses, while making fewer false starts, repetitions, reformulations and replacements compared to less fluent speakers.

4. RESEARCH IN COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

With the growing influence of English as a lingua franca and communicative approaches to language teaching, the researchers have moved away from attempting to introduce the most suitable universal taxonomy of CS to observing the use of CS in learner language and their relationship to L1, proficiency, task types and more.

4.1 Poulisse (1989)

Poulisse (1989) carried out research of the use of compensatory strategies by Dutch learners of English. She collected her data in four tasks ranging from strictly controlled to fairly natural from 15 subjects of three proficiency levels, i.e. low, intermediate and advanced, which were established based on the years of study, school achievements and a general language proficiency test. Task 1 was a concrete picture description task and was the most controlled, eliciting 40 short descriptions of pre-selected images. Task 2 was an abstract figure description task, in which the subjects were asked to describe a figure that did not have a conventional name in either Dutch or English, eliciting CS in both L1 and L2. Task 3 was a story re-tell task, in which the subjects listened to a recording of a story in L1 that was adapted by increasing the number of expected lexical difficulties and then were asked to re-tell it. Task 4 was an oral interview that served to elicit the most spontaneous, natural data. For Tasks 3 and 4, retrospective comments were collected from the subjects immediately after they were performed.

Poulisse (ibid.) focused her analysis on comparing the use of CS in different tasks types, at different levels of proficiency and in L1 and L2. The results showed that the task type strongly influenced the subjects' choice of CS, as they favoured analytic strategies in the most controlled Task 1 and holistic and language transfer strategies in less controlled Tasks 3 and 4. Poulisse (ibid.) claimed that the choices of CS types were affected by *the cooperative principle* and *the principle of economy*, the subjects believing that they could save time and energy by not formulating their message explicitly, "because speech participants assume each other to be cooperative" (ibid., 64), always trying to "balance between effort and effect" (ibid., 188). The results also showed that there was an inverse correlation between CS counts and the levels of proficiency, the less proficient subjects having produced more CS, which corresponded to their "more limited command of the L2 vocabulary" (ibid., 142). The subjects' proficiency also seemed to affect the choice of the CS type, the less proficient subjects choosing holistic strategies over analytic strategies. Poulisse (ibid.) believes that this phenomenon is the result of the less proficient subjects' lack of sufficient linguistic tools for suitable approximation of the

intended concept by e.g. circumlocution. Based on the comparison of the use of CS in the subjects' L1 and L2, Poullisse (ibid.) concluded that learners use the same set of CS in both languages and that there are no L2-specific strategies, claiming that CS do not need to be taught explicitly in language classrooms as the learners are very likely to adopt them implicitly even from their L1 but she believes that some instruction on CS can lead to positive attitudinal changes and improved communication skills (ibid., 191).

4.2 Ng Wai-yee (1995)

Ng Wai-yee (1995) explored the relationship between the learners' choice of CS and their level of proficiency and the task type. She collected data from four subjects whose native languages were Cantonese and Mandarin. The subjects formed two proficiency groups: upper-intermediate and lower-intermediate. The proficiency levels were determined by university exams (upper-intermediate) and high-school language-enhancement courses (lower-intermediate). The data were elicited in two tasks, which were designed to encourage the subjects to "communicate lexical items which were beyond the range of their total vocabulary, of a hypothetical nature, and difficult to retrieve" (ibid., 100). Task 1 was a one-way task, in which the subjects were asked to describe in detail a cartoon drawing without receiving any feedback from the interviewer. Task 2 was a problem-solving two-way task, in which the subjects belonging to the same proficiency group were asked to navigate each other in a map.

Ng Wai-yee (ibid.) based her analysis of the data on Færch and Kasper's (1983b) typology of reduction and achievement strategies (see Table 2 in Section 2.3). She anticipated that Task 1 would give the subjects "more flexibility in choosing what information to pass on" (ibid., 98), allowing them to reduce situations in which they might need to employ CS. By contrast, the communication between the subjects in Task 2 was expected to contain more instances of CS. The results of the research were in agreement with Ng Wai-yee's (ibid.) theories, showing that in Task 1, the subjects were more likely to employ reduction strategies⁹, which allowed them to avoid a breakdown in communication and the need to use an achievement strategy¹⁰. Task 2 saw a decrease in reduction strategies, as the subject used predominantly achievement strategies. Ng Wai-yee (ibid.) speculated that this was the result of

⁹ *Reduction strategies* is a term used by Færch and Kasper (1983b) for tools that are used to "tailor one's message to one's resources by altering, reducing, or completely abandoning the original content". Tarone (1977) uses the term *avoidance strategies* for the same concept. (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:195). See Section 2.3.

¹⁰ *Achievement strategies* are tools that allow the speaker to overcome "linguistic deficiencies by extending or manipulating the available language system" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:195). Achievement strategies correspond to the term *compensatory strategies* used by Poullisse (1989) or Littlemore (2012). See Section 2.3 and 3.2.

their negotiation of meaning, as the subjects felt the need to clarify vague messages. It needs to be noted that Ng Wai-yee's (ibid.) Task 2 was carried out by two English learners, which could increase the number of CS used as there might have been more need for meaning negotiation than in studies in which the tasks were carried out by a learner and a native speaker or a speaker with native-like proficiency. Ng Wai-yee (ibid.) also anticipated that less advanced subjects would produce a greater amount of negotiation of meaning with a tendency to prefer reduction strategies to achievement strategies. Her research did not offer a definitive conclusion as the ratios between reduction and achievement strategies were similar for both groups and therefore not significant enough to draw any reliable conclusion. This could be credited to the small size of the data sample that was available to Ng Wai-yee's (1995) research.

4.3 *Zambelli (2006)*

Zambelli's (2006) research focused on the use of lexical-compensatory strategies in oral performance of learners of English. She observed six native speakers of Spanish, whose proficiency levels ranged from pre-intermediate to advanced, the proficiency levels being established based on the years of study and study achievements. She elicited the data in two oral tasks performed in one session. The tasks were adopted from Poulisse (1990), Task 1 being a controlled story re-tell task, prompting the learners to re-tell a story which they had listened to in Spanish, and Task 2 being a less controlled oral interview on both simple and complex familiar topics, which aimed at collecting more spontaneous data.

Firstly, Zambelli (ibid.) observed the relationship between the subjects' proficiency levels and the number and type of CS used, which showed that the higher the proficiency level, the less CS were used in both tasks (ibid., 28). Secondly, she focused on how the task type affected the frequency of CS. The data suggested that in Task 1, which was more controlled, the subjects used more CS than in the less controlled task, as they had less freedom to construct their oral discourse (ibid., 31). Thirdly, Zambelli (ibid.) observed the relationship between the proficiency level and the type of strategy used. She did not arrive at a straightforward conclusion as she considered her data too weak but claims that the most favoured type across all proficiency levels is language transfer. She also observed the relationship between the task and the type of CS used, suggesting that transfer strategies were the most frequent type in both tasks, followed by holistic strategies, which "allow the speaker to refer to a concept by using the word for a related concept" (ibid., 19).

All of the studies mentioned above worked with data elicited in tasks that were specifically designed to encourage the subjects to use CS. The question that needs to be asked

is whether the data collected from such tasks are a good representative of authentic use of CS in real-life communicative situations. Is it plausible that language learners would use as many instances of CS of as many different types in everyday communication? If not, could language teachers benefit more from research based on data that would be elicited without prompting the subjects to use CS and let them occur as freely as in uncontrolled speech? These questions are yet to be answered as it is evident that such research would need to be based on a large amount of data as it is expected that the use CS would be less frequent outside pre-designed CS-focused tasks.

5. DATA AND METHOD

As seen in the previous section, researchers focusing on CS in learner language usually use specially designed tasks to elicit language that is rich in CS. Unlike Poulisse (1989), Ng Wai-ye (1995) and Zambelli (2006) mentioned in Chapter 4, the present study is corpus driven, observing CS in extracts from a learner corpus, which were not elicited and collected specifically for the purposes of CS research. This may prove important when it comes to the analysis of the collected data.

5.1 LINDSEI

Granger (2004:124) characterizes learner corpora as “electronic collections of spoken or written texts produced by foreign language learners.” Learner corpora provide an insight into the language use of L2 learners, allowing linguists and language teachers to explore the “processes which are involved in the production of written and spoken texts in L2” (Gráf, 2017:22).

The data for the present study were collected from the multinational learner corpus of advanced spoken English LINDSEI (the Louvain International Database of Learner English), which offers orthographic transcriptions of recorded spontaneous spoken texts produced by advanced learners of English. The corpus was started by Sylviane Granger at the Université catholique de Louvain especially for pedagogical purposes. Version One (2010) of LINDSEI contained approximately one million words in 554 interviews and 130 hours of recorded material. Version Two (2018) will be expanded by nine subcorpora, reaching 1,000 interviews and approximately 250 hours of recordings (Gráf, 2017:24).

LINDSEI is divided into subcorpora on the basis of the learners’ L1. Each subcorpus comprises of a minimum of fifty transcriptions of approximately fifteen-minute recordings. Each of the recordings contains three tasks that are identical for all recordings across LINDSEI. The Czech subcorpus LINDSEI_CZ (2015), which is the source of data for this thesis, comprises of 50 interviews with 3rd- and 4th-year students of English philology carried out by two of their teachers, whose acquaintance with the students was believed to help maintain a natural flow of communication (Gráf, 2017:26).

5.1.1 Tasks

Task 1 is a monologue on a chosen topic. The speakers are invited to choose from three topics (*an experience which has affected you; a journey which has affected you; or a memorable film*

or play), which are believed to encourage the use of the past tenses and the present perfect, and are given two to three minutes to think about what they want to say. It is expected that the monologue will take a minimum of three minutes. Task 2 is a free conversation with the interviewer on topics such as the speaker's history of studying English, plans for the future, hobbies and interests, etc., eliciting a variety of tenses. Tasks 1 and 2 are less controlled than Task 3, which is a story reconstruction based on a set of four pictures without hearing or reading an accompanying story. This controlled improvisatory task tests the speaker's "ability to construct a coherent, logical text including linking devices and a variety of prepositions" (Gráf, 2017:25).

5.1.2 Transcription of Recordings

The recordings of the interviews are orthographically transcribed without any punctuation. Full marks appear in the transcripts to indicate unfilled pauses in speech. To represent the spoken text as accurately as possible, the transcripts retain non-standard and contracted forms used by the speakers, as well as a number of phonetic features, such as syllable or vowel lengthening and stressed articles. Prosodic features including whispering, laughing, etc. and non-verbal vocal sounds are also recorded. The speakers' turns are marked <A>, for the interviewers and , for the subjects. Occurring overlaps in speech are also marked using a tag, i.e. <overlap>, </overlap>. The transcripts are anonymized in the corpus (Gráf, 2017:25).

The interviews recorded for LINDSEI_CZ were transcribed by the speakers themselves as a part of courses in SLA and ELT methodology, following the rules outlined by the Louvain transcription manual¹¹. The transcriptions were later edited by the coordinator to ensure consistent quality (Gráf, 2017:28).

5.1.3 Speakers and Metadata

All speakers selected for LINDSEI are expected to be advanced learners of English. The requirement is that they are English philology students in their 3rd or 4th year of study as it is believed that all such students should be at the required level of proficiency. Therefore, the subjects' levels of proficiency are defined institutionally. However, Gráf (2017:30) suggests that there may be deviations across the corpus from the expected proficiency as the speakers' levels of proficiency are not tested prior to the interviews. He points out that the inconsistencies

¹¹ The Louvain transcription manual available at <<https://www.uclouvain.be/en-307849.html>>.

in the speakers' proficiency make the corpus, which was primarily defined as advanced, into a multi-level corpus. In 2016, Gráf and Huang received a Taiwanese government grant for a project whose aim was to carry out a post-hoc, perceptive proficiency rating in LINDSEI_CZ and LINDSEI_TW. Two professional IELTS examiners evaluated the recordings in accordance with the levels of the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), rating lexical range, accuracy, fluency¹², phonological control, coherence and overall impression. The results showed that 12 of the 50 Czech speakers and 39 of the 50 Taiwanese speakers were at B2 level, which categorizes them as upper-intermediate learners rather than advanced learners and raises a question whether LINDSEI fulfils its aim to be an advanced English corpus (Gráf, 2017:30).

Before recording the interviews, the speakers completed a questionnaire designed to collect learner variables as they are believed to influence the process of language acquisition. Gráf (2017) lists all the variables which were elicited from the speakers:

Social and language-acquisition-related variables such as name, age, gender, nationality, language background (parent's L1s language(s) spoken at home, other languages spoken by the student), length of study of English at various levels of education, and lengths of stays in English-speaking countries. (Gráf, 2017:26).

As Gráf (2017:28) explains, it is desirable to achieve a balanced structure of data when compiling a learner corpus. However, when building LINDSEI_CZ, it was impossible to maintain balance of all learner variables as the majority of the Department of English Linguistics at the Faculty of Arts, the Charles University are female; therefore, the final ratio of females to males is 43:7. The home language of all the speakers was Czech. 25 speakers were able to speak German, followed by French (14 speakers) and Spanish (7 speakers) and 4 other languages. The average age of the speakers in LINDSEI_CZ is 22.5 years (SD = 1.6). Before entering their university studies, the speakers had studied for an average of 9.9 years (SD = 2.6). At the time of the interview, they had completed an average of 3.4 years (SD = 0.9) of their studies. On average, the speakers spent 1.2 months in English-speaking countries, which suggests that the speakers learnt English mostly in institutional settings.

¹² Fluency ratings carried out by the IELTS examiners were used for the analysis of the relationship between CS and fluency in Section 6.6.

5.2 *Data Selected for Research*

The data in this thesis were collected from 14 transcripts of interviews recorded for LINDSEI_CZ at the Department of English Linguistics and ELT Methodology, the Faculty of Arts, Charles University, Prague.

5.2.1 *Speakers and Metadata*

As LINDSEI_CZ is rated for proficiency (see Section 5.1.3), the only parameter for the selection of the 14 transcripts was that there would be two samples of each available level of proficiency, i.e. B2-, B2, B2+, C1-, C1, C1+ and C2, creating three broader levels of proficiency that are more suitable for possible comparison: *upper-intermediate* (B2: 6 speakers:), *advanced* (C1: 6 speakers) and *proficient* (C2: 2 speakers). It is evident from this division that the three levels are not represented equally in the sample as there are only two speakers in the Czech subcorpus whose performance was rated as C2. It follows from the data collected from the questionnaires that all subjects are native Czech speakers, one subject coming from a bilingual family, in which Finnish is also used as a home language. The majority of the subjects mentioned German as their L2 (10), followed by French (2), Spanish (1) and Russian (1). The ratio of females to males is 10:4. The average age of the subjects is 22.9 years (SD = 1.7). They had studied English for an average of 9.2 years (SD = 3) before enrolling to study English philology at university. At the time of the interview, they had completed an average of 3.7 years (SD = 1.1) of their studies.

5.2.2 *Processing of Data*

The instances were extracted from the transcripts manually as there is no unifying feature to all CS in which this research takes interest that would allow a more systematic means of extraction. As seen in Section 2.3, there are many approaches to categorizing CS, which provide a wide range of CS types. Upon the first inspection of the transcripts, it was decided that only some types of CS would be considered for this research.

5.2.2.1 *Communication Strategies Omitted from the Data*

The research does not include hesitation phenomena, including filled pauses, repetitions or false starts, as these are the focus of many pausology studies. This thesis being inspired by the author's interest in finding tools for her language students to reach their communicative goals in the target language, some types of CS reappearing in the transcripts were not considered desirable for language learners, e.g. categories that are termed *avoidance* or *reduction*

strategies. By using these CS, speakers avoid, abandon or reduce their original message, possibly causing a decrease in propositional precision (see Section 2.4), which is the opposite of what language learners should strive to do. The purpose of this thesis is to observe CS in learner language whose application would allow language learners to carry on with their communicative goals and share the intended messages rather than reducing or abandoning them. Moreover, these types of CS are typical of lower levels of language proficiency and although they do occur even in learner language at higher levels of proficiency, this thesis focuses on CS more related to the levels of proficiency of the subjects (see Section 5.2.1). Furthermore, unlike other studies focusing on CS, the data in this research are not supported by retrospective commentary provided by the subjects so it is difficult to make conclusions about CS that are not represented by any lexical form in the transcript, including avoidance and reduction strategies.

5.2.2.2 Data Adjustment

Some researchers focusing on CS suggest using an adjustment formula before analysing collected data as the transcripts are not equally long, which could affect the absolute strategy count. The purpose of the adjustment formula is to normalize the number of instances within a specific unit to allow more reliable comparison. Zambelli (2006) used an adjustment formula¹³ to obtain a relative strategy count, which enabled her to compare CS counts of different subjects. However, it is questionable whether relative CS counts obtained by an adjustment formula are reliable. As the inspection of the extracted data revealed, the number of words within one instance of a CS varies considerably. While some CS may be realized by a single word, others can stretch over an entire sentence and sometimes it is impossible to say where one CS finishes and another one starts. It is believed that the varying lengths and fluid borderlines between some CS would affect relative CS counts provided by the adjustment formula. Nevertheless, as one of the aims of this thesis is to observe the relationship between CS and the levels of proficiency (see Section 6.4), it was necessary to introduce some kind of normalisation of the CS counts that would allow basic comparison, as the interviews varied in length and the three groups of the levels of proficiency are not represented equally in the data (see Section 5.2.1). Research in fluency and pausology often relies on data normalised per 100 words. Therefore, this method was adopted in the present study, establishing the CS count per 100 *unpruned words* (Lennon, 1991). The available adjusted data should be accepted as a guide

¹³ Zambelli's (2006,26) adjustment formula: $Sc=(Ns*WcMax)/Wc$. Sc: Strategy count; Ns: Number of strategies used; WcMax: Maximum word count; Wc: Actual word count.

for data comparison, but the aforementioned shortcomings of the adjustment method in relation to the varying lengths of CS need to be borne in mind.

5.2.2.3 Taxonomy

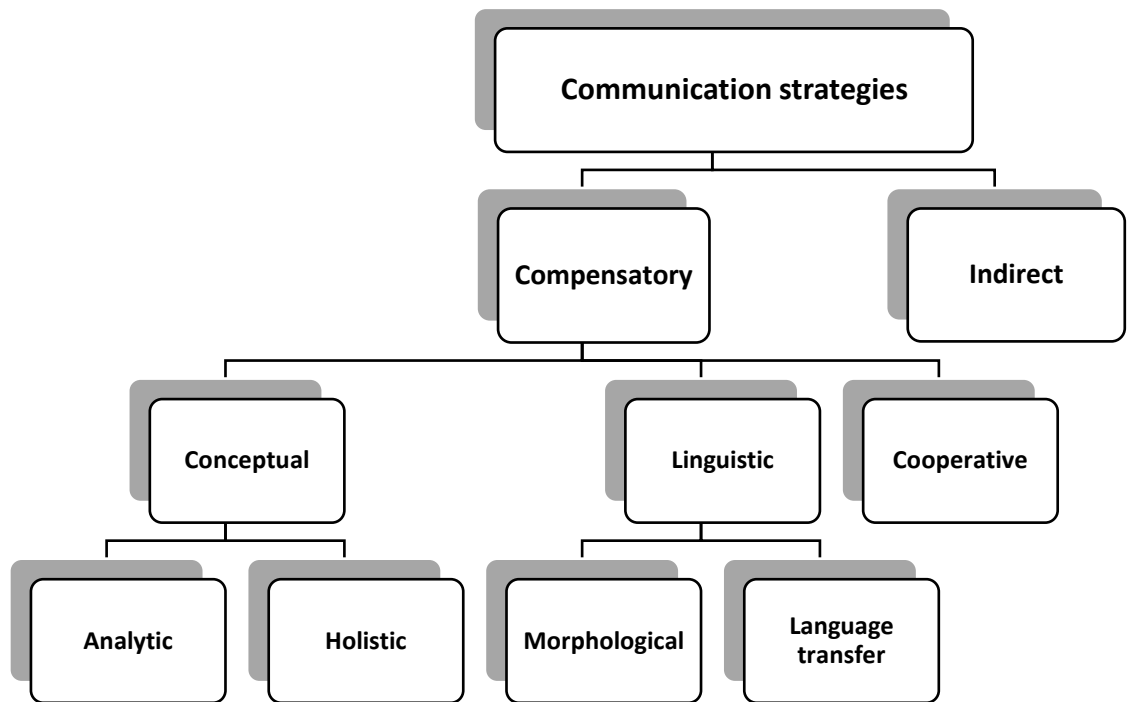
It was desirable to categorize the instances of CS extracted from the transcripts to allow data analysis and generalizations. For the purposes of the present study, some of the available taxonomies were revised, forming a new system of CS categories that would accommodate to the data collected from the transcripts. The taxonomy in this research draws from taxonomies provided by the Nijmegen Group (based on Poulisse, 1987, and Kellerman, 1991), Færch and Kasper (1983b) and Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b). It was decided against adopting only one of these systems as they did not seem to provide satisfactory classification of the CS extracted for this research. The combination of these three systems was chosen because they share a core group of CS types, although they may term them differently, each providing a unique insight into the problematic area of CS categorization by offering categories that the other two systems may be overlooking but that seem to be present among the instances collected for this thesis.

The Nijmegen Group's taxonomy (see Table 3) is widely used as a basis for research in CS. However, it works with only a narrow definition of CS as lexical-compensatory strategies (see Section 2.3), which may prove unsatisfactory in this research as it is expected that language learners, as well as native speakers, make use of CS in order to communicate their messages with propositional precision even outside situations in which they experience lexical difficulties. Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy (see Table 2) includes useful classification on the highest level of CS categories and fills the gaps that arise from the narrowness of the Nijmegen Group's lexical-compensatory approach. It also seems to include all subcategories on the lowest level, but their system lacks a suitable intermediate level, which results in significant fragmentation of the data, making any comparison and generalization difficult. Færch and Kasper's (1983b) taxonomy (see Table 1) shares many subcategories on the lowest level with Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy, while providing convenient superordinate categories and terminology that may shed more light into the categories used for the purposes of this thesis.

The taxonomy of CS in this research (see Figure 4) is based on the traditional approach to CS, according to which they are used "when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought" (Tarone, 1977:195), as well as on its extension provided by Canale (1983), who defined CS in a broader sense as devices enhancing the effectiveness of

communication (see Section 2.2.2). This broad approach to CS makes the Nijmegen Group's taxonomy unsuitable as a sole example for this research. The duality arising from the two accepted definitions suggests two highest categories of CS: *compensatory strategies* (based on Færch and Kasper (1983b)) and *indirect strategies* (based on Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b)). *Compensatory strategies* correspond to Tarone's (1977) traditional approach, compensating for the deficiencies in the learner's knowledge of the linguistic system of the target language (see Sections 2.3 and 3.2), while *indirect strategies* are in accordance with Canale's (1983) extended definition, facilitating "the conveyance of meaning indirectly by creating the conditions for achieving mutual understanding" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b:198). Despite some researchers' not acknowledging *indirect strategies* as CS, the author of this thesis agrees with Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b), who explain that the significant role of *indirect strategies* in problem-management makes them a valid subcategory of CS (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b:198). *Compensatory strategies* are further divided into *conceptual*, *linguistic* and *cooperative strategies*. This intermediate level of CS categories is inspired by the Nijmegen Group (Poulisse, 1987; Kellerman, 1991) and expanded by a third category of *cooperative strategies* taken from Færch and Kasper (1983b). Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) included a similar term in their taxonomy, i.e. *interactional strategies*, but they considered them a separate category at the same level as direct and *indirect strategies*. *Cooperative strategies* help learners communicate their linguistic difficulties to other interlocutors, encouraging them to explicitly or implicitly substitute the missing pieces of the learners' knowledge. Enabling retrieval of linguistic items is the reason for classifying *cooperative strategies* under *compensatory strategies* in this thesis. *Conceptual strategies*, which allow adjustments of the concept (see Sections 2.3, 4.1 and 4.3), are further divided into *analytic* and *holistic strategies* (together with their subcategories based on Poulisse, 1987; Kellerman, 1991). *Analytic strategies*, including description-like structures, help the learner express the intended concept by listing its properties, while by employing *holistic strategies*, the learner substitutes the missing item by using a related concept. *Linguistic strategies* enable learners to manipulate their linguistic knowledge of both the target language and their L1 and consist of two subcategories: *morphological strategies*, i.e. word-coinage, and *language transfer*.

Figure 4: Adjusted taxonomy of communication strategies



6. DATA ANALYSIS

This research is based on 319 instances of CS (see Table 4 for the breakdown of the different CS types), which were extracted from transcripts of interviews of 14 learners of English (see Section 5.2). The number of instances is not as extensive as in studies by Poulisse (1989) or Zambelli (2006) as they used pre-designed tasks, which put greater demands on the subjects' linguistic knowledge and therefore increased the subjects' need to use CS, while the tasks used for the purposes of LINDSEI were not focused on collecting CS. The instances were divided into two main categories: *compensatory strategies* (55 instances) and *indirect strategies* (214 + 50¹⁴ instances).

Table 4: Instances of communication strategies identified in the present dataset

		COMPENSATORY				COOP	INDIR	TOTAL
		CONCEPTUAL		LINGUISTIC				
Proficiency	Speaker	ANA ¹⁵	HOL	TRANS	MORPH			
B2-	CZ015	3	0	1	0	1	11 (+7) ¹⁶	23 (7.2%)
	CZ004	4	1	1	0	4	10 (+5)	25 (7.8%)
B2	CZ018	1	0	0	0	0	11 (+2)	14 (4.4%)
	CZ017	4	1	1	0	0	13 (+6)	25 (7.8%)
B2+	CZ025	3	0	0	0	2	10 (+1)	16 (5.0%)
	CZ014	1	0	0	0	0	3 (+8)	12 (3.8%)
C1-	CZ022	3	0	0	0	0	10 (+3)	16 (5.0%)
	CZ009	2	0	0	1	0	20 (+5)	28 (8.8%)
C1	CZ003	1	1	0	0	0	4 (+3)	9 (2.8%)
	CZ035	4	0	1	0	2	10	17 (5.3%)
C1+	CZ020	2	0	0	0	0	54 (+4)	60 (18.8%)
	CZ002	2	0	0	0	0	30 (+3)	35 (11.0%)
C2	CZ019	1	0	0	0	0	5	6 (1.9%)
	CZ012	5	0	1	0	1	23 (+3)	33 (10.4%)
	Total	36 (11.3%)	3 (0.9%)	5 (1.6%)	1 (0.3%)	10 (3.1%)	214 (+50) (67.1% + 15.7%)	319 (100%)

¹⁴ Two groups of the total of 50 instances whose categorization proved problematic emerged from the data. They were termed self-repairs and self-rephrases. The process of their categorization under indirect strategies is discussed in Section 6.3.

¹⁵ ANA = analytic strategies, HOL = holistic strategies, TRANS = language transfer strategies, MORPH = morphological strategies, COOP = cooperative strategies, INDIR = indirect strategies

¹⁶ The values in brackets represent self-repairs and self-rephrases. See Footnote 13

6.1 Compensatory Strategies

55 of the 319 instances were categorized as compensatory strategies. These instances were identified upon inspecting the transcripts as having been used by the subjects in order to compensate for a missing piece in their knowledge of the linguistic system of English (see Section 5.2.2), with regard to the criteria of identifying compensatory strategies proposed by Poulisse (1989). Therefore, only such instances were labelled as compensatory strategies which were considered to have been used intentionally by the subject upon encountering a linguistic problem which was lexical in nature, and in which the originally intended concept was known¹⁷ (Poulisse (1989, 89). Instances of CS that were evaluated as providing the subjects with tools to achieve certain communicative goals but that were not a reaction to a lexical problem and in which it was impossible to decide whether the intended and the realized concept were identical, were labelled *indirect strategies* and will be discussed in following sections. The category of compensatory strategies was further divided into three subcategories: *conceptual strategies* (39 instances), *linguistic strategies* (6) and *cooperative strategies* (10).

6.1.1 Conceptual Strategies

39 of the 55 instances of compensatory strategies belong to the subcategory of *conceptual strategies* (see Section 5.2.2). By employing a conceptual strategy, learners adjust the concept so that they are capable of expressing it with the use of the linguistic structures that are available to them in their learner language. If the concept is expressed by listing its properties, the subject has used an *analytic strategy*. The data include 36 instances of analytic strategies across all subjects. The collected instances can be divided into two groups based on the realization of the strategy. The first group consists of 29 analytic strategies that are realized by definition-like utterances (Poulisse, 1989:107), which enable the subjects to define the intended concept without using the corresponding word or phrase, as seen in Examples (1) and (2):

- (1) *she . didn't appear . so (er) we had to stay with (er) . (erm) . <lip sound> . (erm) . I can't remember the word (erm) . she wasn't on the list¹⁸ . (CZ004_12, B2-)*
- (2) *(er) got me in in his home and . gave something on it like . . to stop the bleeding . (CZ017_9, B2)*

¹⁷ As explained in Section 5.2.2, there are no retrospective commentaries available for the transcripts of the interviews, which means that the subjects' originally intended concepts were established based on contextual cues, knowledge of the world, sociocultural knowledge etc.

¹⁸ The subject is talking about a replacement host mother.

7 instances include an *analytic strategy* realized by a noun that is characteristic for its vagueness and a modification of this noun, which lists some of the properties of the intended concept. These instances are represented by Examples (3) and (4):

(3) . and (eh) my host mother Tommie she was (eh) she also worked for the city . some administration stuff (CZ022_8, C1-)

(4) oh no . I'm not a: . sport sport.. doing person (CZ035_10, C1)

The popularity of analytic strategies in the data suggests that the subjects aimed at the highest propositional precision possible, which is most successfully achieved by the definition-like structures on analytic strategies.

If the learner uses a concept that is related to the intended meaning, he or she is using the second subcategory of conceptual strategies, i.e. a *holistic strategy*. This subcategory was scarce in the data, including only 3 instances:

(5) and also . (er) Czech parks are . sometimes . dirty you can see (erm) . I don't know (erm) . ha= han= . handkerchief.(CZ004_8, B2-)

(6) he . (er) got me in in his home and . gave something on it like . to stop the bleeding . like (eh) .. (er) clear sheet or something like that (CZ017_10, B2)

(7) yeah yeah yeah .. well (em) I think that she well she's definitely <laughs> .. for want of the better word (erm) photo-shopped¹⁹ <laughs> (CZ003_8, C1)

In Example (5), the subject probably wanted to communicate the concept of *litter* or *rubbish* but failed to retrieve the intended expression, which led to the use of the hyponym *handkerchief*. Example (6) contains an instance of a *holistic strategy* based on the similarity of appearance of the two concepts. In Example (7), the semantic relationship underlying the *holistic strategy* is partial synonymy. The subject might have been looking for a word like *beautified*, which would be more suitable when describing a painting, but retrieved the word *photo-shopped*. The subject was aware that the expression was inaccurate, which is why it was accompanied by the indirect strategy *for want of the better word* and laughter to let the recipient know about the inaccuracy.

The theory concerning the low frequency²⁰ of holistic strategies is that the subjects' relatively advanced proficiency enabled them to use more demanding multi-word descriptive analytic strategies, which may allow more properties of the intended concept to be expressed,

¹⁹ The subject is talking about a painting.

²⁰ It must also be noted that less striking instances of holistic strategies might have escaped the attention of this analysis as sometimes the intended concept and the concept realized by a holistic strategy cannot be differentiated without the subject's feedback.

promoting more propositional precision than holistic strategies. Moreover, the task characteristics may affect the frequency of holistic strategies. Zambelli's (2006) results show that analytic strategies tend to be more frequent than holistic strategies in less controlled tasks (Zambelli, 2006:33). In this research, it would presuppose that holistic strategies would appear more often in Task 3 with the story reconstruction. However, unlike the specially designed story reconstruction task in Zambelli's (2006) study, Task 3 required fairly simple vocabulary which did not pose a serious challenge to the subjects, which may be the reason why they did not use as many CS as the subjects in her study.

6.1.2 Linguistic Strategies

The category of compensatory strategies further includes 6 instances of *linguistic strategies*, which are achieved by learners' manipulating their linguistic knowledge, more specifically their "knowledge of the syntactic, morphological and phonological rules that apply in the L1, some knowledge of these rules in the L2 [...], and knowledge of similarities and dissimilarities between the L1 and the L2" (Poulisse, 1989:60). By this manipulation, a substitution is provided for the missing piece of lexis without altering the intended concept. Linguistic strategies can be subdivided into *morphological strategies* and *language transfer strategies*.

Morphological strategies are represented by only one instance in the data. This solitary instance concerns the subject's knowledge of the rules of word formation:

- (8) *she is . yeah she is smiling . and: she has . har<?> (eh) hairdress (eh) her= hairstyle some haircut some nice haircut (CZ009_26, C1-)*

In Example (8), the subject created the coinage *hairdress* for the concept of *hairstyle* by overgeneralizing the rules of the use of the word-forming suffix *-er*, which derives a noun from a noun. This instance is evidence of the subject's awareness of some of the morphological rules in the target language.

Language transfer strategies appear in 5 instances. 4 of them contain code-switching in which the missing L2 word is substituted by an L1 word:

- (9) *. so (er) in the British Museum I I've seen . (em) .. <foreign> sřinga </foreign> I'm not sure how to (CZ004_5, B2-)*

- (10) *I don't how know wh= what it's called actually . in English I'm not I'm not sure how it's called in Czech <foreign> anfás </foreign> maybe <foreign> anfás </foreign> I think yeah (CZ035_17, C1)*

- (11) (er) an= an= and (er) even the . crab-like things I can't remember the word at the moment . (er) like (er) . langustas an= an= and (er) shrimp (CZ012_17, C2)
- (12) it was the thing that made the connection between us and we also liked the the[i:] approach that . we . (em) were preparing for the final exam for the <foreign> maturita </foreign> (CZ015_15, B2-)

In the examples above, the subjects relied on their L1 as they were aware that the interviewers had full or partial knowledge of Czech, as applying a language transfer strategy based on a language system that is not shared by both parties would be unproductive. In Examples (9) and (10), the subjects drew attention to their use of L1 vocabulary by also including *cooperative strategies* such as *I don't how know wh= what it's called actually*, letting the interviewers know that they cannot provide the corresponding word in the target language. In Example (12), the subject used the L1 word to specify the previous noun phrase *final exam* as she may conclude there was no other accurate expression in the target language, believing that the interviewer's sociocultural knowledge would ensure understanding.

In Examples (11) and (12), the L1 words were assimilated into the linguistic system of the target language by applying its morphological rules. The noun *langustas* in Example (11) features the regular plural ending *-s*, while the noun *maturita* is preceded by the definite article.

While the other three L1 words used by the subjects to substitute an L2 word were marked by the tag <foreign> in the transcript, the word *langustas* in Example (11) was not. As the transcription was carried out by the subject himself, it may suggest that he had not been aware of using language transfer in this instance, erroneously considering the word *langusta* to belong to L2 vocabulary. It raises the question whether Example (11) should be considered a CS at all, since it would not meet the criterion of consciousness (see Section 2.2.3). However, it is difficult to decide without the subject's commentary whether the lack of the tag is a transcription error resulting from not following the transcription guidelines or, indeed, a sign that this instance should not be categorized as a CS.

The data contain one instance of faux amis, i.e. words from two languages that bear formal resemblance, but their meanings differ:

- (13) (eh) . it had a very short knot²¹ or something which you (er) which you w= by which you (er) like set it off . (CZ017_4, B2)

²¹ The subject is talking about pyrotechnics.

In Example (13), the subject relied on the formal similarity of the English noun *knot* and the Czech noun *knot*. It could be objected that this is simply an erroneous use of vocabulary, but it needs to be noted that by immediately specifying the noun *knot* with a description that corresponds with the noun *fuse*, the subject lets the interviewer know that his choice of the noun *knot* might have been incorrect. This observation leads us to believe that this instance of faux amis is indeed a CS.

In the data, linguistic strategies were distributed across all three proficiency groups, i.e. upper-intermediate (3 instances, i.e. 0.024 strategy per hundred words²²), advanced (2 instances, i.e. 0.017 strategy phw) and proficient (1 instance, 0.018 strategy phw). The difference between the upper-intermediate and advanced group seem to support Zambelli's (2006) findings that the higher the level of proficiency of the subjects, the lower the linguistic strategy count (Zambelli, 2006:30, 31). However, the results arising from the low strategy counts are considered too weak to provide valid conclusions. With regard to Zambelli's (ibid.) findings, the low frequency of linguistic strategies in the data may be attributed to the high levels of proficiency of the subjects, as the thesis does not investigate the use CS of elementary to intermediate learners, whose interlanguage is expected to contain more linguistic strategies.

6.1.3 Cooperative Strategies

The last category of CS that are classified as compensatory strategies are *cooperative strategies*. They concern situations in which learners cannot retrieve the right word in the target language for the intended concept, turning to other interlocutors for help with the retrieval, either directly or indirectly. There are 10 instances of cooperative strategies in the data, all of them asking for help indirectly. 9 instances appear together with another compensatory strategy. 6 of them are used with an analytic strategy, e.g. Example (11) or the following examples:

(14) *and . she's posing for him . (eh) very stiffly . and like half profile I think I don't how know wh= what it's called actually . in English (CZ035_15, C1)*

(15) *and then then she stops and and . (em) . like grabs . little little of . I don't know a ball of the of the snow . it's an imagi= imaginary one . (CZ015_8, B2-)*

One instance appears next to a holistic strategy, in which the intended concept *litter* or *rubbish* was substituted with the hyponym *handkerchief*, as seen in Example (5). 2 of the cooperative

²² Henceforth phw

strategies are joined by a linguistic strategy, more specifically code-switching, as seen in Examples (9) and (10).

Only one instance is not accompanied by another compensatory strategy, but the case is considered specific as the subject retrieves the correct word herself after using the cooperative strategy:

(16) *and I also wanted to see (erm) how to say it (erm) the dome²³ (CZ025_10, B2+)*

It would be possible for learners to use cooperative strategies without accompanying them with other compensatory strategies. However, the instances in Examples (9), (10), (11), (14) and (15) show that the second compensatory strategy allows learners to approximate the intended concept more accurately to other interlocutors. The interlocutors can say the word or the phrase that they think the learner has in mind out loud²⁴, as happened in 3 instances; they can also let the learner continue speaking or use only backchannels to indicate that despite the apparent problem on the learner's side they are still following the conversation²⁵ without any major issues, which appeared in 6 instances; or ask the learner for clarification if needed.

There were other instances in the data that could also be categorized as cooperative strategies if they were to be evaluated based on their form. However, upon inspection, it became clear that those instances were not used by the subject as compensatory strategies, but rather as strategy markers or stalling strategies. This would classify them as indirect strategies, so they will be discussed in the section below.

6.2 Indirect Strategies

214 instances were identified as *indirect strategies*, which makes this category 3.89 times more frequent than compensatory strategies. Unlike compensatory strategies, as Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) explain, indirect strategies “do not provide alternative meaning structures” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b:198) but help the interlocutors carry on, preventing

²³ This instance could also be considered a stalling strategy, allowing the subject to gain more processing time but it is difficult to decide without the speaker's commentary which of the two motives led her to use this strategy.

²⁴ [...] so (er) in the British Museum I I've seen . (em) .. <foreign> sfinga </foreign> I'm not sure how to

<A> the sphinx

 sphinx yeah sphinx (eh) . and . (eh) mu= mummies (eh) (CZ004, B2-)

²⁵ and you have this . huge . huge (erm) . (er) how to say it . a hole in in the roof

<A> yeah

 and and the light really goes down <overlap /> it's it's beautiful (CZ025, B2+)

breakdowns in communication and pointing out the problematic parts that “require extra effort to understand” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b:198). Indirect strategies are usually overlooked by CS research, partly because they are not recognized as CS by all researchers, and also because they are more likely to be the focus of research in the field of pragmatics or discourse analysis. To divide indirect strategies that emerged from the data proved to be a demanding task as they come in many forms and each form can have multiple functions. Therefore, this thesis will comment on the functions of indirect strategies that can be observed in the data.

Learners can use indirect strategies as fillers to buy more processing time, i.e. as *stalling strategies*, as seen in Examples (17) and (18):

(17) (eh) the picture . (em) . she . seems quite ... s= like . I dunno <starts laughing> she's got she's got <stops laughing> a weird expression . (CZ022_9, C1-)

(18) (er) so (er) the pronunciation . big improvement in that in this course here . (er) really grateful to the teachers here that that that (er) . you know tutored me (CZ012_29, C2)

In Example (17), the combination of the particle *like* with the false start, rewording and frequent pausing suggests that the subject was trying to gain more processing time to express herself in the most accurate way. However, as the data showed, such fillers may sometimes turn into parasitic-like words within the learner’s speech, emerging as often 37 times within one transcript²⁶. It is likely that any particle serving as a stalling strategy has the potential to develop into a parasitic expression, such as *I mean*, which appeared 20 times in one transcript²⁷. Example (18) features a filler structure *you know*. This structure can meet different functions in discourse, e.g. encourage backchanneling from the interlocutors to make sure that they are following the conversation, but in this instance, it seems that this filler gives the subject more time to retrieve the word *tutored*. This presupposition is supported by the use of the filled pause and the pause preceding the indirect strategy.

The next function of indirect strategies is to enable learners to indicate that what they are saying may not be accurate and it should not be understood too literally (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:194). The inaccuracy may or may not be related to their linguistic knowledge:

(19) and . <lip sound> . each week . every student got a special like award . for doing something good (CZ020_19, C1+)

²⁶ Subject CZ020, C1+.

²⁷ Subject CZ002, C1+.

- (20) . yes .. (erm) . not that . it would be . let's say (erm) . sad for the from the adults' perspective (CZ015_10, B2-)
- (21) yeah yeah yeah .. well (em) I think that she well she's definitely <laughs> .. for want of the better word (erm) photo-shopped (CZ003_7, C1)
- (22) she invited her friends to see it . so she could you know kind of boast with that (CZ009_24, C1-)

Example (19) suggests that the subject was not sure of the expression that should be used for the concept, so she used the closes word she could think of, marking the uncertainty with the hedge *like*. On the other hand, Examples (20), (21) and (22) were not used because of the subjects' uncertainty about lexis of the target language, but rather because they found the concept itself problematic, using the indirect strategies to imply that the concepts may not be completely accurate and other concepts could also be suitable in their situation. A similar goal can be reached by including general extenders, such as:

- (23) (er) she . thought that it was about a man who was really . proud and (em) . <lip sound> . brave and all that stuff (CZ015_3, B2-)
- (24) (er) so I guess (er) . the the story is that of vanity . and pride . and . what-not (CZ002_35, C1+)

The general extenders appearing in Examples (23) and (24) are introduced to keep the proverbial door open for the recipients' imagination as the subjects seem to find it difficult to express themselves. General extenders represented in the data were often preceded by a list of expressions, as seen in the examples above, which is in accordance with the presupposition that the subjects did not know precisely what to say. In some instances, the subjects used indirect strategies that showed their uncertainty more overtly:

- (25) . (eh) the picture . (em) . she . seems quite ... s= like . I dunno <starts laughing> she's got she's got <stops laughing> a weird expression . (CZ022_10, C1-)
- (26) (er) but: . also . it felt it felt like (er) one of the few things that I actually can do . as opposed to: for example I don't know some technical stuff . (CZ035_6, C1)

Examples (25) and (26) resemble *cooperation strategies* discussed in Section 6.1.3 but the examples above were not used to enable the retrieval of a missing piece of lexis, as seen in e.g. Examples (14) and (15). They were used to let the interlocutors know that the subjects were having a hard time finding the concept they would find the most relevant.

Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) also work with the term *strategy markers*, claiming that they work as “verbal inverted commas” which indicate the presence of CS, “eliciting attentive cooperation” from the interlocutors (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:194). Such strategy markers appear in clusters with other CS:

(27) . *because you need to keep constant track of how deep I mean . what's what's your depth where you are . (CZ012_25, C2)*

(28) *he (er) got me in in his home and . gave something on it like . to stop the bleeding . like (eh) .. (er) clear sheet or something like that and he he did call his son (CZ017_11, B2)*

Example (27) shows the strategy marker *I mean* following a false start, indicating that the subject will not be carrying on with the intended construction and will use a paraphrase. In Example (28), the strategy marker *or something like that* follows an instance of an analytic strategy realized by the definition-like structure *like clear sheet*, suggesting that the substitution of the intended concept by the analytic strategy was not fully satisfactory.

The last function of indirect strategies that will be discussed in this thesis on the basis of the collected data is asking the interlocutors for *clarification, confirmation* or *repetition*. To ensure that communication does not break down due to a misunderstanding, learners use certain forms of indirect strategies to elicit confirmation from the interlocutors or to make them repeat or clarify what has been said. Instances of such indirect strategies appear in the following examples:

(29) *<A> <overlap /> how come she looks pretty in the picture what's the difference between the picture and her . or the picture and the original picture *

* ..(er) I I'm sorry I I didn't *

<A< . what's the difference (CZ004_25, B2-)

(30) * okay so the artist did something wrong apparently . oh did he .. did he draw something bad . maybe . (CZ022_11, C1-)*

(31) *and . oh . she wants . oh yeah she wants different hair .. I don't get the story <laughs> okay so the the <overlap /> woman *

<A> <overlap /> you're getting there (CZ022_12, C1-)

(32) *<A> what is your dream country where would you like to go *

* like visit (CZ020_42, C1+)*

Example (29) features an unfinished utterance that indicates the subject's lack of understanding and prompts the interviewer to repeat the question. The interviewer reacts by repeating only the most crucial part of the previous utterance to ensure understanding. In Example (30), the subject is thinking out loud, speculating about the story behind the images presented to her, and asks for confirmation of her interpretation. However, as the interviewer does not react to the question, she continues by overtly expressing that she has trouble interpreting the story, asking for clarification and receiving encouragement from the interviewer rather than straightforward clarification, as seen in Example (31). Example (32) also contains an instance of an appeal for clarification, realized by a fragmented utterance.

This section has provided an overview of functions of indirect strategies, which form the largest category of CS in this thesis. It becomes apparent that the topic of indirect strategies in learner language is extensive and the functions of indirect strategies in communication would deserve special attention. The high frequency of indirect strategies in the data suggests that it may be beneficial to focus on their use in learner language to learn more about learners' attempts to maximize the effectiveness of their communication as compensatory strategies alone do not ensure that learners will arrive at their communicative goals successfully.

6.3 *Problematic Categories*

The data contains specific CS types that are difficult to classify within the taxonomy explained in Section 5.2.2. The types include *self-repairs* and *self-rephrasing*. The following section aims to analyse the instances of these types, compare the findings with their categorization by researchers mentioned in Section 2.3 and suggest possible changes in categorization.

6.3.1 *Self-repairs*

A group of 28 instances emerged from the data that were classified as *self-repairs*, appearing across all levels of proficiency. The represented self-repairs deal with either grammatical mistakes or misused vocabulary, as seen in Examples (33) and (34):

(33) *so she started screaming and was very angry with the painter . (erm) . and make made him . (er) to repaint . the paint= . the portrait . (CZ015_21, B2-)*

(34) *(eh) .. I think (eh) . mostly being on my own was was (em) was the the biggest issue probably and and it has learned it has taught me a lot (CZ022_1, C1-)*

While self-repairs are recognized as direct CS²⁸ by Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) and as achievement strategies by Willems (1987), which would undoubtedly place them into the category of compensatory strategies, not all the instances seem to fit into this category. To clarify the categorization of self-repairs, learners' reasons for using them in speech should be observed. Given their classification by the previously mentioned studies, it would be expected that self-repairs help fill in lexical gaps. Consider the following example that appeared in the data:

(35) I . I (er) thankfully . hold it holded it . (er) quite firmly in my hand so it exploded and it (eh) didn't . (er) (CZ017_7, B2)

Disregarding whether or not the subject was successful in carrying out the self-repair, it does not seem that the use of such a repair is a compensatory strategy in the sense in which it has been defined in this thesis. A compensatory strategy would provide a substitute for a missing piece of vocabulary if the learner encountered a linguistic problem that was lexical in nature²⁹ (Poullisse, 1989:89). In Examples (33) and (35), the self-repairs concern a grammatical mistake without any piece of lexis missing, failing to be in agreement with Poullisse's (1989) criteria of identifying compensatory strategies. This failure applies to all 15 instances with grammatical self-repairs. Therefore, such instances should not be included in the category of *compensatory strategies*. Vocabulary self-repairs do concern a linguistic problem that is lexical in nature, but their nature is different from e.g. conceptual or linguistic strategies as the latter two, unlike vocabulary self-repairs, fulfil the role of compensatory strategies as substituents for missing lexical items. As seen in Example (34), in the case of vocabulary self-repairs, there are no missing lexical items, which would also make them unsuitable for categorization under compensatory strategies. Before attempting to place self-repairs within the CS taxonomy described in Section 5.2.2, the reasons for their use in learner language should be investigated. The best possible way would be to ask the subjects directly upon concluding the interviews, but no commentary is available to this research.

One assumption is that learners know that they have used an unsuitable or erroneous word or structure, which may interfere with their attempt at communicating the concept and possibly cause a breakdown in communication:

²⁸ Direct strategies are defined by Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b) as problem-solving devices providing “an alternative, manageable, and self-contained means of getting the (sometimes modified) meaning across” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b:198). Terms corresponding to direct strategies are achievement strategies or compensatory strategies.

²⁹ See Section 6.1 for the description of the criteria of identifying compensatory strategies proposed by Poullisse (1989).

(36) *(eh) man and wife . <lip sound> and the man . actually realizes he doesn't love his hu= wife . (CZ014_6, B2+)*

(37) *it's very very complex game . a play and it's (eh) interesting that . (er) . it's quite long so . (CZ014_3, B2+)*

Although the word that is repaired in Example (20) is incomplete, it is assumed to be the noun *husband* based on the context. It is possible that not repairing the word *husband* may lead to the interlocutor's confusion and to misunderstanding of the shared message. The same reasoning applies to Example (37). However, it cannot be stated that all self-repairs are crucial for meeting the communicative goal. In the following examples, interlocutors would probably have no problems with receiving the intended message without the self-repair:

(38) *. the movie was about . seven hours long as well so . but I really like it . I really liked it . (CZ014_4, B2+)*

(39) *(eh) she looks pretty . on at the picture . in the picture (eh) . in the portrait (CZ004_24, B2-)*

Since Example (38) is grammatical self-repair and Example (39) deals with prepositions³⁰, which are considered a borderline between grammar and lexis, it suggests that grammatical mistakes are less likely to interfere with the intended meaning and learners do not need to worry about repairing them to prevent a breakdown in communication as much as they should about misused vocabulary. It is believed that by carrying out self-repairs, as mistakes may be considered face-threatening acts, the subjects attempted to maintain a positive face and show that they were able to use the linguistic system of the target language properly despite their slip, especially since the interviewers of the subjects were also their lecturers.

The above comparison between Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) and Willems's (1987) understanding of self-repairs, Poulisse's (1989) criteria for identifying compensatory strategies and examples selected from the CS instances confirms that assigning a place to self-repairs within the taxonomy is problematic. The analysis of instances containing self-repairs suggests that the two main reasons for self-repairs, i.e. learners' attempts at not losing face and preventing a breakdown in communication, are in accordance with Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) definition of indirect strategies, as they claim that indirect strategies create conditions

³⁰ In the data, self-repairs concerning prepositions are classified as vocabulary self-repairs. The total of 11 vocabulary self-repairs include 3 preposition self-repairs.

“preventing breakdowns and keeping the communication channel open” (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997:198). Therefore, self-repairs are categorized under indirect strategies in this thesis.

6.3.2 *Self-rephrasing*

There are 22 instances of *self-rephrasing* in the data. In 18 of them, the subjects use a single word as a paraphrase for a different single word:

(40) *it seems to me well obviously the setting seems to be that that there's a . a girl or a woman or a lady being painted by by a painter . (er) (CZ012_33, C2)*

3 instances include a multi-word paraphrase of a single word, such as Example (41):

(41) *I always liked pyrotechnics . the stuff which explodes . and (er) (CZ017_2, B2)*

While some self-rephrases may resemble self-repairs, it is obvious that in self-repairs, the first realization of the intended concept has been used erroneously and the learners feel the need to correct themselves. On the other hand, self-rephrases contain a word or a phrase that the learner evaluates as insufficient or inaccurate for expressing the intended concept, attempting to specify and clarify it by using a paraphrase. Upon inspecting instances such as Example (42), a parallel can be drawn between self-rephrasing and holistic strategies:

(42) *I wouldn't want to repaint the picture .. because I think (eh) .. as a as a as a painter as an artist you should (eh) portray the reality as it is (CZ022_15, C1-)*

In Example (42), the nouns *painter* and *artist* are related concepts in the hyponymous semantic relationship. Substituting a concept with a superordinate, subordinate, coordinate or synonymous word is considered a holistic strategy by Poulisse (1989) (see Section 5.2.2). All the instances of one-word self-paraphrases are based on one of the mentioned semantic relationships, classifying for the category of holistic strategies, but any multi-word paraphrase would, based on Poulisse (1989), belong to the category of analytic strategies. However, the prerequisite for both holistic and analytic strategies is an unfilled gap in the linguistic system, which is not the case in either of the examples above. If the same approach as with self-repairs is adopted, the observation of the reasons for the use of self-rephrasing suggests the possibility of classifying self-rephrasing also as indirect strategies.

Indirect strategies are tools enhancing the effectiveness of communication, as mentioned in the previous section. Self-rephrases indeed resemble self-repairs in the learner's efforts to specify the expressed concept in order to prevent a misunderstanding. Moreover, some of the instances suggest that self-rephrases could belong to *stalling strategies*:

(43) *there is a girl who wants to be . actually wants to be . (er) painted by this (er) . <lip sound> . or portrayed by the by the paint= painter . and (er) (CZ017_23, B2)*

11 of the 22 instances of self-rephrasing appeared in Task 3, i.e. the story reconstruction based on a set of four pictures (see Section 5.1.1), which corresponds with this task being the most controlled task of the interview, not giving the subjects as much freedom in their choice of concepts as the previous tasks. Therefore, they employed stalling strategies to buy more time. Stalling strategies belong to *processing time pressure-related strategies*, classified by Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) under indirect strategies (see Table 2), which is in accordance with the findings mentioned in the previous paragraph, supporting the classification of *self-repairs* as *indirect strategies* in this thesis.

6.4 Communication Strategies and Proficiency

Both Poulisse's (1989) and Zambelli's (2006) studies suggested that there is an inverse correlation between the subjects' level of proficiency and the number of CS used. The following table with the overview of the word counts, total CS counts per subject and CS counts phw (see Section 5.2.2.2) per each of the three proficiency levels, i.e. upper-intermediate (B2), advanced (C1) and proficient (C2), offers data that are not in accordance with Poulisse (1989) and Zambelli (2006):

Table 5: Communication strategies across levels of proficiency

Proficiency	Speaker	Word count	Total CS	CS phw
B2-	CZ015	1977	23	0.94
	CZ004	2315	25	
B2	CZ018	1820	14	
	CZ017	2123	25	
B2+	CZ025	2232	16	
	CZ014	1794	12	
C1-	CZ022	1817	16	1.36
	CZ009	2178	28	
C1	CZ003	1648	9	
	CZ035	1839	17	
C1+	CZ020	2423	60	
	CZ002	2197	35	
C2	CZ019	2454	6	0.71
	CZ012	3045	33	

The values in the last column in Table 5 do not suggest an inverse relationship between the levels of proficiency and the frequency of occurrence of CS. It was evaluated whether the values of CZ020, whose possibly parasitic use of a specific indirect strategy was discussed in Section 6.2, could be affecting the results with the high frequency of CS, raising the strategy count phw at the advanced level. However, if CZ020 was excluded from the statistics, the strategy count phw at the advanced level would still be higher than the counts at the upper-intermediate and proficient level (1.08 strategy phw). Nevertheless, neither Poulisse (1989) nor Zambelli (2006) included indirect strategies into their studies. To allow a more accurate comparison with their results, the data were divided into two groups, i.e. compensatory strategies and indirect strategies:

Table 6: Compensatory and indirect strategies across levels of proficiency

Proficiency	Speaker	Word count	COMP	COMP phw	INDIR	INDIR phw
B2-	CZ015	1977	5	0.23	18	0.71
	CZ004	2315	10		15	
B2	CZ018	1820	1		13	
	CZ017	2123	6		19	
B2+	CZ025	2232	5		11	
	CZ014	1794	1		11	
C1-	CZ022	1817	3	0.16	13	1.2
	CZ009	2178	3		25	
C1	CZ003	1648	2		7	
	CZ035	1839	7		10	
C1+	CZ020	2423	2		58	
	CZ002	2197	2		33	
C2	CZ019	2454	1	0.15	5	0.56
	CZ012	3045	7		26	

It can be seen in Table 6 that the frequency of indirect strategies across the three levels is in keeping with Table 5. This would suggest that the use of indirect strategies is affected by personal preferences of each learner rather than his or her proficiency. However, the frequency of compensatory strategies does seem to slightly decrease with the rising level of proficiency, as the upper-intermediate group used approximately 0.23 compensatory strategies phw, while the advanced group used 0.16 and the proficient group used 0.15 compensatory strategies phw. The inverse correlation between the use of compensatory strategies and the level of proficiency shown in Table 6 corresponds with the claim that with rising proficiency, learners encounter fewer problems in communication that are linguistic in their nature, which means that they do not need to apply as many compensatory strategies. Nonetheless, it should be taken into

consideration that the differences between the values in Table 6 are very small and the data sample available to this research is relatively limited; therefore, it can serve as a motivation for further, more extensive research concerned with natural speech in which the use of CS is not motivated by the task design.

The frequency of individual subtypes of compensatory strategies across the levels of proficiency shows that all three proficiency groups prefer analytic strategies:

Table 7: Analytic strategies across levels of proficiency

Proficiency	Subject	Word count	ANA	ANA phw
B2-	CZ015	1977	3	0.13
	CZ004	2315	4	
B2	CZ018	1820	1	
	CZ017	2123	4	
B2+	CZ025	2232	3	
	CZ014	1794	1	
C1-	CZ022	1817	3	0.12
	CZ009	2178	2	
C1	CZ003	1648	1	
	CZ035	1839	4	
C1+	CZ020	2423	2	
	CZ002	2197	2	
C2	CZ019	2454	1	0.11
	CZ012	3045	5	

The inverse relationship between analytic strategies and the level of proficiency emerging from Table 7 is in accordance with the data in Table 6. The same applies to holistic strategies, their frequency also decreasing with rising proficiency:

Table 8: Holistic, linguistic and cooperative strategies across levels of proficiency

Proficiency	Subject	HOL	HOL phw	LING	LING phw	COOP	COOP phw
B2-	CZ015	0	0.02	1	0.02	1	0.06
	CZ004	1		1		4	
B2	CZ018	0		0		0	
	CZ017	1		1		0	
B2+	CZ025	0		0		2	
	CZ014	0		0		0	
C1-	CZ022	0	0.01	0	0.02	0	0.02
	CZ009	0		1		0	
C1	CZ003	1		0		0	
	CZ035	0		1		2	
C1+	CZ020	0		0		0	
	CZ002	0		0		0	
C2	CZ019	0	0	0	0.02	0	0.02
	CZ012	0		1		1	

As shown in Table 8, cooperative strategies were also more frequent at the lowest proficiency available. It may suggest that less proficient learners are more open to expressing their struggles overtly and asking other interlocutors for help. Linguistic strategies are the only subcategory of compensatory strategies that appeared at the same frequency across all three proficiency groups. However, holistic, linguistic and cooperative strategies appeared only sporadically in the data, which, as mentioned above, means that the conclusions drawn from the table above should serve as a guide for further research.

6.5 Communication Strategies and Task Type

Zambelli (2006) claimed that the task type also affected the number of strategies used, the more controlled the task, the more CS the subject used (see Section 4.3). The results in this research suggest the same phenomena, although they are much less conclusive, as the difference between the least and most controlled task is negligible. Task 1 with the monologue, which is considered the least controlled, contained 1.23 CS phw (171 instances), while the most controlled Task 3 contained 1.39 CS phw (58 instances). It must be pointed out that the level of control in Zambelli's (2006) story re-tell task was much higher than in the story re-tell task presented in the interviews for LINDSEI_CZ (2015), in which the upper-intermediate to proficient subjects had relative freedom in re-telling the story, the images depicting ordinary objects that made few demands on the subjects' linguistic knowledge.

Poulisse (1989) observed the relationship between the task type and the compensatory strategy type, suggesting that the most favoured strategy type in the most controlled Task 1 was analytic strategies, while her less controlled Tasks 3 and 4 contained more holistic and language transfer strategies. The research in this thesis shows that all three tasks included more indirect strategies, not included in Poulisse's (ibid.) research, than any other type. As regards compensatory strategies, analytic strategies were the most common type in all three tasks.

Table 9: Holistic, analytic and linguistic compensatory strategies across task types

	HOL	ANA	LING
TASK 1	2	21	4
TASK 2	0	13	0
TASK 3	1	2	2
TOTAL	3	36	6

The ratios of holistic to analytic to linguistic strategies are 1:10.5:4 for Task 1, 0:13:0 for Task 2 and 0.5:1:1 for Task 3. The high contrast between holistic and analytic strategies in Tasks 1 and 2 and the low contrast in Task 3 go against Poulisse's (ibid.) claim that, based on the cooperative principle and the principle of economy (see Section 4.1), learners allow themselves to formulate their message less explicitly in less controlled tasks, favouring holistic and linguistic strategies to analytic strategies.

Interesting results emerged from the comparison of the use of cooperative strategies across the tasks. 8 instances of cooperative strategies were produced in Task 1, while Task 2 did not contain any instance of cooperative strategies and Task 3 included 2 instances³¹. In Task 2, which was an interview on familiar topics, the subjects apparently did not feel the need to overtly comment on their lack of linguistic knowledge by employing cooperation strategies as they relied on the cooperative principle and therefore could afford less explicitness. In Task 3, there was a picture story placed on the table in front of the subject and the interviewer, which allowed the subjects to follow the economy principle and use less accurate expressions as they expected the interlocutor to rely on the pictures in case of a possible misunderstanding. However, in Task 1, the subjects were expected to carry out a monologue on a selected topic with as few interventions by the interviewer as possible, which forced them to be more explicit and also emphasize any parts of their message that required more attention to be understood by using cooperative strategies if necessary.

³¹ Both produced by one subject in one utterance and concerning one linguistic problem.

The only strategy type that was more frequent in Task 3 than in the two remaining tasks was self-rephrasing, discussed separately in Section 6.3.2 as a problematic strategy type. It appeared in 11 instances in Task 3, 7 instances in Task 1 and 4 instances in Task 2, despite the shorter duration of Task 3. As proposed in Section 6.3.2, instances of self-rephrasing seem to have been used as stalling strategies in Task 3 as the subjects were presented with unfamiliar pictures and were asked to describe them without any preparation, which demanded more processing time, as seen in Example (44):

(44) *so she . sat there for another .. h= hour . and the the painter . (erm) repainted the
the picture . . the portrait .. and only afterwards (eh) she was . satisfied . (erm)
(CZ015_23, B2-)*

The claim that the function of the self-rephrase in Example 44 is to obtain more processing time is supported by the presence of both unfilled and filled pauses in the utterance. Using a self-rephrase is a convenient means of buying time without resorting to other stalling strategies, such as repetitions or previously mentioned unfilled and filled pauses, as a high frequency of these strategies may be considered undesirable and disruptive in speech.

6.6 *Communication Strategies and Fluency*

As this thesis works with an externally rated version of LINDSEI_CZ (2015), the subjects' fluency ratings are available for an analysis of the relationship between fluency and the use of CS. Table 10 offers an overview of the subjects' fluency scores, which determine their level of fluency:

Table 10: Fluency scores³²

Proficiency level	Subject	CS/100	Fluency (R1)	Fluency (R1) score	Fluency (R2)	Fluency (R2) score
B2-	CZ015	1.16	B2+	12	B2+	12
	CZ004	1.08	B2-	10	C1-	13
B2	CZ018	0.77	B2+	12	C1	14
	CZ017	1.18	B2	11	B2+	12
B2+	CZ025	0.72	C1-	13	C1-	13
	CZ014	0.67	B2	11	C1-	13
C1-	CZ022	0.88	C1	14	C1	14
	CZ009	1.29	C1-	13	C1-	13
C1	CZ003	0.55	C1+	15	C1+	15
	CZ035	0.92	C1	14	C1	14
C1+	CZ020	2.48	C1-	13	C1	14
	CZ002	1.59	C1	14	C1+	15
C2	CZ019	0.24	C2-	16	C2-	16
	CZ012	1.08	C2	17	C2-	16

The table shows that the fluency levels may diverge from the levels of proficiency, although the differences are usually negligible. To examine a possible relationship between the use of CS and the subject's fluency, the CS counts phw produced by each subject were compared with their fluency scores. Dörnyei (1991:1) claims that strategic competence enhances speakers' fluency, which suggests that there may be a directly proportional correlation between the fluency scores and the number of strategies used. The table above does not offer any direct evidence of CS affecting the subjects' fluency, the level of fluency rising with the level of proficiency rather than with the number of strategies used. However, despite the lack of relevant data, it can be argued that the use of CS can influence fluency in two ways. As mentioned in Section 3.4, fluency is measured by temporal variables and hesitation phenomena. Temporal variables, including speech rate, number of pauses and length of pauses, constitute *productive fluency* (Gráf, 2015:26), which can be improved by using CS, as they may help raise speech rate and prevent pauses. On the other hand, hesitation phenomena, such as false starts, repetitions, reformulations and replacements, fall under *perceptive fluency* (Gráf, 2015:26). These phenomena are all in fact considered CS by some of the existing CS taxonomies and their high frequency in speech may affect perceptive fluency negatively. Therefore, it can be

³² The fluency scores were provided by the coordinator of LINDSEI_CZ. They were determined by two IELTS examiners, who each proposed a fluency score, i.e. R1 and R2.

concluded that different types of CS may have opposing effects on two different aspects of fluency.

7. CONCLUSION

The present thesis observed the use of selected verbal CS by upper-intermediate to proficient learners of English whose L1 was Czech. The inspection of the 319 CS instances collected from the interview transcripts showed that the subjects used 3.89 times more indirect strategies than compensatory strategies, although indirect strategies are largely overlooked in CS research. While the aim of compensatory strategies is to bridge gaps in learners' linguistic resources and help solve problems that are lexical in nature, indirect strategies are used to prevent problems in communication and maximise its effectiveness. Therefore, the high frequency of indirect strategies in the transcripts suggests that situations in which learners feel that their effectiveness in communication is challenged are much more frequent than actual breakdowns in the linguistic system of learner language. The most frequent type of compensatory strategies in the data was analytic strategies, being the only type of compensatory strategies that was used by all subjects, which showed that the subjects preferred higher propositional precision of their description-like structures. The analysis of indirect strategies proved that categorizing them based on their formal characteristics can be problematic as one form often seems to have more functions in communication. The main functions of indirect strategies used by the subjects were stalling, pointing out inaccuracy of some words or phrases, marking the use of other CS and asking for clarification, confirmation or repetition. Two problematic categories emerged from the data, i.e. self-repairs and self-rephrases, whose categorization in previous taxonomies seemed inconsistent with their function in communication, which is why they have been re-evaluated in this thesis and their transfer to the category of indirect strategies was suggested.

The thesis also focused on the relationship between the use of CS and the subjects' proficiency, the task type and the fluency scores. While the frequency of indirect strategies seems to depend on learners' preferences rather than their level of proficiency, the results suggested that there was a slight tendency to use less compensatory strategies with rising proficiency. However, the differences between values were minor as all subjects were at considerably high levels of proficiency, encountering less linguistic problems in communication than low proficiency learners would. The analysis of the relationship between the use of CS and task types showed that all tasks favoured analytic strategies over holistic and linguistic strategies, which was out of keeping with Poulisse's (1989) and Zambelli's (2006) studies. This is also attributed to the subjects' proficiencies as they could afford substituting their missing resources with structurally more demanding descriptions, which allow more propositional precision than one-word holistic and linguistic strategies. The comparison of the

frequency of CS in Tasks 1, 2 and 3 is considered inconclusive as the difference between the use of CS in the least and most controlled task was negligible. This could be caused by the undemanding vocabulary required for the most controlled Task 3 and its lower level of control compared to the controlled tasks in Poulisse's (1989) study. To determine the relationship between the use of CS and fluency, the numbers of CS phw per each subject were compared with their fluency scores. The values did not offer any observable relationship; however, it can be expected that while productive fluency can be influenced positively by the use of CS, as they improve speech rate and prevent pauses, perceptive fluency may decrease with increasing frequency of certain types of indirect strategies.

When comparing the results of this thesis with other studies, it must be noted that not only is the scope of the levels of proficiency in this thesis narrower, which means that the differences between the use of CS at different levels of proficiency may not be as striking, but also the interviews in this thesis resemble ordinary, natural conversation more than interviews including tasks that were specifically designed for extraction of CS. The results described in this thesis raise the question of whether the values in studies based on such interviews really represent the use of CS in learner language or force the subjects into using strategies that would rarely occur in natural speech and whether the results of such studies have plausible pedagogical implications.

The observations made in this thesis may help language teachers understand some of the processes in learner language that allow learners to arrive at their communicative goals. While Poulisse's (1989) research shows that learners do not use any L2-specific CS in their learner language, applying CS of which they have a command in their L1, and therefore do not need to be instructed on CS explicitly, it is desirable that their use be addressed in language classrooms implicitly in the form of authentic activities that will grow learners' strategic competence and help them achieve improved fluency and propositional precision.

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9. RESUMÉ

Tato práce zkoumá užívání komunikačních strategií v mluveném projevu studentů angličtiny, jejichž mateřským jazykem je čeština. Hlavním předmětem tohoto zkoumání jsou typy komunikačních strategií, které se objevují v žákovském jazyce, a popis vztahu mezi užíváním komunikačních strategií a úrovní pokročilosti, plynulostí projevu a typem úlohy.

V Kapitole 2 jsou nejprve definovány Chomského (1965) pojmy *kompetence* a *performance* (Sekce 2.1) a Hymesův (1972) pojem *komunikativní kompetence* jako reakce na Chomského a jeho opomínání sociálních a psychologických vlivů na výkon mluvčích. Sekce dále zmiňuje Canaleho and Swainovou (1980) a jejich rozšíření podtypů komunikativní kompetence o pojem *strategické kompetence*. Sekce 2.2 pojednává o komunikačních strategiích, které jsou projevem strategické kompetence v komunikaci. Sekce 2.2.1 nabízí stručný přehled historie výzkumu v oblasti komunikačních strategií, na který navazuje Sekce 2.2.2 popisující lingvistické přístupy ke konceptualizaci komunikačních strategií. První tradiční definice popisovala komunikační strategie jako prostředky pro vyplnění nedostatků v jazykových znalostech mluvčího a řešení problémů ve fázi plánování promluvy. Tradiční definice byla rozšířena například o tzv. *meaning-negotiation mechanisms* a *repair mechanisms* (Taroneová, 1980) a tzv. *stalling strategies* (Dörnyei 1995). Canale (1983) do komunikačních strategií zahrnul také prostředky pro zvýšení efektivity komunikace. I přes značenou roztržitost definic z nich vyplývají dva základní znaky komunikačních strategií (Sekce 2.2.3), tj. *orientace na problém* v komunikaci a *vědomé užití*. Rozdíly v definicích poznamenaly také taxonomie komunikačních strategií, které popisuje Sekce 2.3. Jedna skupina taxonomií dělí komunikační strategie na *redukční*, za pomoci kterých mluvčí obejdou nedostatečnou znalost cílového jazyka upuštěním od zamýšleného konceptu nebo jeho podstatným zúžením, a takové strategie, které mluvčímu pomohou kompenzovat chybějící lingvistické struktury (tzv. *achievement strategies*, také *kompenzační strategie*) (Taroneová, 1977; Færch a Kasperová, 1983b; Willems, 1987). Dörnyei a Scottová (1995a, 1995b) uvádějí tři typy komunikačních strategií: *přímé*, které odpovídají kompenzačním strategiím z předchozí taxonomie, *nepřímé*, které problémy neřeší, ale spíše jim přechází, a *interakční*, které pomáhají účastníkům komunikace společnou kooperací dosáhnout řešení problému. Třetí taxonomie popsána v této práci byla vytvořena tzv. Nijmegenskou skupinou na základě Poullissové (1987) a Kellermana (1991) jako reakce na předchozí taxonomie, které podle nich neodrážely poznatky o užívání a vývoji jazyka. Podle nich se komunikační strategie dělí do dvou skupin, tj. *konceptuálních* a *lingvistických strategií*. Konceptuální strategie, které se dále dělí na *analytické* a *holistické*,

pomáhají mluvčím upravit zamýšlený koncept, zatímco lingvistické strategie zahrnují morfolgickou kreativitu nebo jazykový transfer. Sekce 2.4 se zabývá Společným evropským referenčním rámcem (SERR, Rada Evropy, 2010), který je směrnici pro výuku a studium jazyků vytvořenou na základě rozvoje komunikačního přístupu k výuce druhého jazyka v reakci na Hymesovo (1972) představení komunikativní kompetence. Tato sekce popisuje důvody pro potřebu uceleného referenčního rámce a jeho praktické implikace a vysvětluje komunikativní jazykové kompetence definované SERR. Komunikační strategie jsou v něm definovány jako nástroje, které uživatel jazyka využívá nejen pro mobilizaci svých jazykových prostředků a aktivaci dovedností a postupů, aby splnil nároky komunikace, ale také za účelem dosažení maximální efektivity v komunikaci (2010:57). Sekce dále obsahuje popis dělení jazykových úrovní podle SERR do šesti stupňů, tzn. A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 a C2.

Kapitola 3 se věnuje žákovskému jazyku, který je definován jako mluvený a psaný jazyk produkováný jazykovými studenty (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005:4), charakteristice tzv. *mezijazyka* (Sekce 3.1) a užívání komunikačních strategií v žákovském jazyce (Sekce 3.2). Zatímco užívání komunikačních strategií není specifické pouze pro žákovský jazyk, dá se předpokládat, že zejména kompenzační strategie se budou častěji objevovat v něm než v mateřském jazyce, jelikož problémy v komunikaci v důsledku nedostatečné znalosti lingvistického systému jsou v mateřském jazyce méně pravděpodobné. Sekce 3.3 pojednává o úspěchu v žákovském jazyce. Jazykoví studenti mohou mít odlišné cíle, než je dosažení kompetence, která se vyrovná kompetenci rodilého mluvčího. Jejich cílem může být také například přesnost, komplexita nebo plynulost projevu. Plynulosti se věnuje Sekce 3.4, ve které je definována jako produkce jazyka v reálném čase bez zbytečných pauz a váhání (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005:139). Podle Ellise a Barkhuizena (2005) plyně mluvící student dosahuje vyššího tempa řeči, dělá méně pauz, které jsou navíc kratší, a zároveň se méně opakuje a provádí méně reformulací.

V Kapitole 4 jsou shrnuty tři studie pojednávající o užívání komunikačních strategií v žákovském jazyce, jejichž autorkami jsou Poulissová (1989) (Sekce 4.1), Ng Wai-yeeová (1995) (Sekce 4.2) a Zambelliová (2006) (Sekce 4.3). Všechny studie porovnávaly vliv pokročilosti jazykových studentů a druh zadané úlohy na užívání komunikačních strategií a volbu jejich typu. Poulissová (1989) zároveň porovnávala užití komunikačních strategií v projevu v mateřském a cizím jazyce.

Kapitola 5 popisuje metodologii této práce. Vzorek dat určených pro analýzu byl extrahován ze 14 záznamů rozhovorů s českými studenty anglické filologie, které byly nahrány za účelem rozšiřování mezinárodního žákovského korpusu pokročilé mluvené angličtiny

LINDSEI (2010), který je charakterizován v Sekci 5.1. Sekce 5.1.1 specifikuje tři úlohy, které tvořily rozhovory, tj. monolog na vybrané téma, rozhovor na běžná témata týkající se života a studia subjektů a vyprávění příběhu podle obrázků. Sekce 5.1.2. nastiňuje proces přepisování nahrávek a Sekce 5.1.3 popisuje vybrané mluvčí a metadata. Sekce 5.2 představuje specifika dat použitých pro tuto práci a způsob jejich zpracování. Sekce 5.2.1 podává informace o vybraných subjektech a dostupných žákovských proměnných. Uvádí se zde, že 14 vybraných subjektů bylo rozděleno do tří úrovní pokročilosti: Středně pokročilí (B2, 6 subjektů), Pokročilí (C1, 6 subjektů) a Experti (C2, 2 subjekty). Nerovnoměrné zastoupení úrovní pokročilosti bylo zapříčiněno nedostatkem subjektů na úrovni C2 v subkorpusu LINDSEI_CZ (2015). Sekce 5.2.2 popisuje zpracování dat a udává důvody pro eliminaci určitých druhů komunikačních strategií (Sekce 5.2.2.1), např. tzv. *hesitation phenomena*, kterým se věnuje pausologie, nebo redukčních strategií, které bývají předmětem studií analyzujících nižší úrovně pokročilosti. Sekce 5.2.2.2 vysvětluje rozhodnutí normalizovat data na počty výskytu komunikačních strategií na sto slov, což umožní srovnání nerovnoměrně zastoupených jazykových úrovní. V Sekci 5.2.2.3 je vysvětlena taxonomie komunikačních strategií upravená pro potřeby této práce. Tato taxonomie vznikla na základě taxonomií Nijmegenské skupiny (Poulissová, 1987, Kellerman, 1991), Færcha a Kasperové (1983b) a Dörnyeiho a Scottové (1995a, 1995b) a obsahuje dva nadřazené typy komunikačních strategií: kompenzační a nepřímé strategie. Kompenzační strategie se dále dělí na konceptuální, lingvistické a kooperativní strategie. Konceptuální strategie obsahují další dva podtypy, tzn. analytické a holistické, zatímco lingvistické strategie mohou být dále děleny na morfologické strategie a strategie jazykového transferu.

Kapitola 6 obsahuje analýzu 319 extrahovaných příkladů komunikačních strategií. Ve vzorku se objevilo 55 příkladů kompenzačních strategií a 264 příkladů nepřímých strategií, z nichž 50 se ukázalo jako problematických pro zařazení do vybrané taxonomie. Sekce 6.1 se zabývá popisem příkladů kompenzačních strategií. Ve vzorku jsou kompenzační strategie zastoupeny všemi podkategoriemi uvedenými v taxonomii výše. Konceptuálních strategií (6.1.1) bylo určeno 39, z toho 36 analytických a 3 holistické. 29 analytických strategií bylo realizováno strukturami ve formě definic, zatímco 7 jich obsahovalo vágní podstatné jméno s modifikací, která přibližuje zamýšlený koncept. Zmiňované holistické strategie jsou založené na hyponymii, vzhledové podobnosti a částečné synonymii. Sekce 6.1.2 obsahuje popis 6 příkladů lingvistických strategií, z nichž pouze jedna patří do podkategorie morfologických strategií, jelikož subjekt generalizací morfologických pravidel cílového jazyka vytvořil novotvar. 5 příkladů spadá do podkategorie strategií jazykového transferu z mateřského jazyka.

Sekce 6.1.3 se věnuje kooperačním strategiím, kterých se ve vzorku objevilo 10. Sekce 6.2 pojednává o nejpočetnější kategorii, tj. nepřímých strategiích, které jsou ve vzorku zastoupeny 3,89krát častěji než kompenzační strategie. Výsledky ukázaly, že nepřímé strategie subjekty nepoužívaly pro překonání lingvistických nedostatků, ale zejména proto, aby předcházeli problémům a zvýšili efektivitu komunikace. Nepřímé strategie ve vzorku měly několik různých funkcí, např. získání času pro zpracování a produkci jazyka, upozornění na nepřesnost daného výrazu nebo žádost o objasnění, potvrzení nebo zopakování toho, co řekl další účastník rozmluvy. Sekce 6.3 se zabývá dvěma problematickými skupinami příkladů, které nelze snadno zařadit do vybrané taxonomie, tzn. 28 příklady vlastních oprav (Sekce 6.3.1) a 22 příklady vlastních parafrází (Sekce 6.3.2). Na základě analýzy jejich vlastností a funkcí jsou tyto skupiny v práci zařazeny pod nepřímé strategie. Sekce 6.4 zkoumá vztah mezi užitím komunikačních strategií a úrovní pokročilosti. Podle Poulissově (1989) a Zambelliové (2006) se s vyšší úrovní pokročilosti snižuje počet užitých komunikačních strategií. Výsledky v této práci ukázaly, že toto platí pouze pro subkategorii kompenzačních strategií, které se u vyšší střední pokročilosti (B2) objevovaly 0,23krát na sto slov, zatímco u pokročilých (C1) byl jejich výskyt 0,16 na sto slov a u nejvyšší pokročilosti (C2) 0,15 na sto slov. Je nutné poznamenat, že rozdíly ve výsledcích jsou velmi malé, což může být důsledek toho, že data nebyla sbírána za účelem výzkumu komunikačních strategií, a tak je užití strategií přirozenější, a tudíž méně časté, než ve studiích Poulissově (1989) a Zambelliové (2006). Dalším faktorem může být relativně vysoká pokročilost všech subjektů. Analýza také ukázala, že na všech úrovních byly preferovány analytické strategie, přestože jejich četnost byla v inverzním vztahu s úrovněmi pokročilosti. V Sekci 6.5 je popisován vztah mezi užíváním komunikačních strategií a druhem úlohy. Data nenaznačují, že by druh úlohy zásadně ovlivňoval počet použitých komunikačních strategií, jak říká Zambelliová (2006). Nicméně tento výsledek může být zkrácen nižším stupněm kontroly v Úloze 3 oproti nejvíce kontrolované úloze ve studii Zambelliové (2006). Data také ukazují, že ve všech úlohách jsou preferovány analytické strategie, což je v rozporu s výzkumem Poulissově (1989). Zajímavý fenomén se objevil v nejkontrolovanější Úloze 3, ve které bylo ze všech tří úloh použito nejvíce vlastních parafrází, což je připisováno snaze subjektů získat více času na rozmyšlenou při popisu obrázku. Předmětem zkoumání v Sekci 6.6 je vztah mezi užíváním komunikačních strategií a plynulostí, která je určována pomocí skóre plynulosti. Data naznačují, že množství použitých komunikačních strategií nemá vliv na skóre plynulosti, ale na základě poznatků o různých typech komunikačních strategií lze předpokládat, že zatímco produktivní plynulost může být komunikačními strategiemi podpořena, některé strategie mohou mít negativní vliv na plynulost percepční.

V závěrečné Kapitole 7 jsou shrnuty poznatky z analýzy dat a komentovány rozdíly mezi výzkumem popsáním v této práci a studii, s nimiž byly výsledky analýzy porovnávány. Hlavním faktorem, který mohl tyto rozdíly zapříčinit, je zřejmě forma úloh, jelikož ostatní studie pracovaly s úlohami navrženými speciálně pro výzkum komunikačních strategií, což vyvolává otázku, zda data získaná podobným způsobem věrohodně reprezentují užívání komunikačních strategií v žakovském jazyce. Závěr práce také zmiňuje, že ačkoliv v žakovském jazyce nejsou používány strategie odlišné od strategií objevujících se v mateřském jazyce (Poulisse, 1989) a není tedy třeba v jazykových třídách explicitně podávat instrukce pro užívání komunikačních strategií, správně zadané, autentické aktivity zaměřené na jejich nácvik mohou pomoci studentům rozvinout jejich strategickou kompetenci.

10. APPENDIX

Appendix 1: CEFR: Illustrative scales for spoken fluency (Council of Europe, 2001:129)

	SPOKEN FLUENCY
C2	Can express him/herself at length with a natural, effortless, unhesitating flow. Pauses only to reflect on precisely the right words to express his/her thoughts or to find an appropriate example or explanation.
C1	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.
B2	Can communicate spontaneously, often showing remarkable fluency and ease of expression in even longer complex stretches of speech.
	Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he/she searches for patterns and expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without imposing strain on either party.
B1	Can express him/herself with relative ease. Despite some problems with formulation resulting in pauses and 'cul-de-sacs', he/she is able to keep going effectively without help.
	Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.
A2	Can make him/herself understood in short contributions, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident.
	Can construct phrases on familiar topics with sufficient ease to handle short exchanges, despite very noticeable hesitation and false starts.
A1	Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.

Appendix 2: Common Reference Levels: Global Scale (CEFR, 24)

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Appendix 3: Common Reference Levels: qualitative aspects of spoken language use

	RANGE	ACCURACY	FLUENCY	INTERACTION	COHERENCE
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms to convey finer shades of meaning precisely, to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity. Also has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).	Can express him/herself spontaneously at length with a natural colloquial flow, avoiding or backtracking around any difficulty so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.	Can interact with ease and skill, picking up and using non-verbal and intonational cues apparently effortlessly. Can interweave his/her contribution into the joint discourse with fully natural turntaking, referencing, allusion making, etc.	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.
C1	Has a good command of a broad range of language allowing him/her to select a formulation to express him/herself clearly in an appropriate style on a wide range of general, academic, professional or leisure topics without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur.	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.	Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions to preface his remarks in order to get or to keep the floor and to relate his/her own contributions skilfully to those of other speakers.	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2+					
B2	Has a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints on most general topics, without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so.	Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of his/her mistakes.	Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he/she searches for patterns and expressions. There are few noticeably long pauses.	Can initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he/she needs to, though he/she may not always do this elegantly. Can help the discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some 'jumpiness' in a long contribution.
B1+					
B1	Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used 'routines' and patterns associated with more predictable situations.	Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.	Can initiate, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. Can repeat back part of what someone has said to confirm mutual understanding.	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.
A2+					
A2	Uses basic sentence patterns with memorised phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple everyday situations.	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.	Can make him/herself understood in very short utterances, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident.	Can answer questions and respond to simple statements. Can indicate when he/she is following but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord.	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.
A1	Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.	Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.	Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like 'and' or 'then'.

Appendix 4: CS Instances

CZ015_1	yeah (em) because (em) the the main . (eh) protagonist the main character is a is a small girl
CZ015_2	who (eh) . hears a a poem . (eh) on the school (er) ... (erm) yeah in at school she (er) . heard heard a poem .
CZ015_3	(er) she . thought that it was about a man who was really . proud and (em) . <lip sound> . brave and all that stuff
CZ015_4	what what would he what would he do and (erm) what do he what would he not do etcetera
CZ015_5	and there are always some . (erm) . <lip sound> like (er) common . events like holidays or going . I don't know to see . (eh) . the not so popular grandmother
CZ015_6	(em) . during the the winter season . <lip sound> she has even the the skis . (er) on her . legs even on the stage like
CZ015_7	and then then she stops and and . (em) . like grabs . little little of . I don't know a ball of the of the snow . it's an imagi= imaginary one . but (em) . and eats it . again . (eh)
CZ015_8	and then then she stops and and . (em) . like grabs . little little of . I don't know a ball of the of the snow . it's an imagi= imaginary one .
CZ015_9	and then then she stops and and . (em) . like grabs . little little of . I don't know a ball of the of the snow . it's an imagi= imaginary one .
CZ015_10	. yes .. (erm) . not that . it would be . let's say (erm) . sad for the from the adults' perspective
CZ015_11	the red flags and and (erm) . yeah all of these . kind of things
CZ015_12	(erm) teacher . who even graduated from this this faculty <overlap /> so there is some kind <starts laughing> yeah <stops laughing> like a tradition . with me and (em) ..
CZ015_13	(erm) teacher . who even graduated from this this faculty <overlap /> so there is some kind <starts laughing> yeah <stops laughing> like a tradition . with me and (em) ..
CZ015_14	.. it was the thing that made the connection between us and we also liked the the[i:] approach that . we . (em) were preparing for the final exam for the <foreign> maturita </foreign>
CZ015_15	.. it was the thing that made the connection between us and we also liked the the[i:] approach that . we . (em) were preparing for the final exam for the <foreign> maturita </foreign>
CZ015_16	she if there were some topics I don't know like literature or (em) . life in Britain or something else . she brought some newspapers or magazines or even played some . some videotape . something like that
CZ015_17	she if there were some topics I don't know like literature or (em) . life in Britain or something else . she brought some newspapers or magazines or even played some . some videotape . something like that
CZ015_18	she if there were some topics I don't know like literature or (em) . life in Britain or something else . she brought some newspapers or magazines or even played some . some videotape . something like that
CZ015_19	he (er) . knows . knows the teacher . so it was like . yeah . this grammar school
CZ015_20	the portrait doesn't . (eh) didn't look . like her .
CZ015_21	so she started screaming and was very angry with the painter . (erm) . and make made him . (er) to repaint . the paint= . the portrait .
CZ015_22	so she started screaming and was very angry with the painter . (erm) . and make made him . (er) to repaint . the paint= . the portrait .
CZ015_23	so she . sat there for another .. h= hour . and the the painter . (erm) repainted the the picture . the portrait .. and only afterwards (eh) she was . satisfied . (erm)
CZ004_1	(erm) . this city it's . it's London . (eh) I've <laughs> I've been here . (er) . (erm) . I I'm not sure about the[i:] exact number I think it was seven years ago . (eh) with my (eh) . when . during my studies (eh) at grammar school .
CZ004_2	(er) . and we . we were here . like for I I'm not sure for four days I I'm not sure . (erm) and I feel . really . I felt really impressed by this city <starts whispering>
CZ004_3	(er) . and we . we were here . like for I I'm not sure for four days I I'm not sure . (erm) and I feel . really . I felt really impressed by this city <starts whispering>
CZ004_4	(er) . and we . we were here . like for I I'm not sure for four days I I'm not sure . (erm) and I feel . really . I felt really impressed by this city <starts whispering>
CZ004_5	so (er) in the British Museum I I've seen . (em) .. <foreign> sfinga </foreign> I'm not sure how to

CZ004_6	so (er) in the British Museum I I've seen . (em) .. <foreign> sfinga </foreign> I'm not sure how to
CZ004_7	and also . (er) Czech parks are . sometimes . dirty you can see (erm) . I don't know (erm) . ha= han= . handkerchief
CZ004_8	and also . (er) Czech parks are . sometimes . dirty you can see (erm) . I don't know (erm) . ha= han= . handkerchief
CZ004_9	nice and the weather was nice the sun was shining and . the city looked like . heav= heaven I don't know <laughs>
CZ004_10	maybe maybe one day it was . it was raining . all day . but still I I liked it . and I really liked . the[i:] architecture . the buildings . (erm) and also (er) . tax= taxis
CZ004_11	she . didn't appear . so (er) we had to stay with (er) . (erm) . <lip sound> . (erm) . I can't remember the word (erm) . she wasn't on the list
CZ004_12	she . didn't appear . so (er) we had to stay with (er) . (erm) . <lip sound> . (erm) . I can't remember the word (erm) . she wasn't on the list
CZ004_13	so . and (er) . that woman (eh) she . was a little bit strange and she had a very very big dog . and a . strange . daughter . this daughter was (erm) a teenage girl so she felt . I don't know offended that we are in her house .
CZ004_14	<laughs> . you should you should have visited . (eh) if I . (eh) used the correct <overlap /> form <laughs> okay
CZ004_15	yeah (erm) . I'm sorry I'm so nervous that I forgot <starts laughing> all the <stops laughing>
CZ004_16	(er) it was also really great there were there was (erm) .. (eh) collection of (eh) jewellery (erm) <overlap /> I mean king and queen's jewellery
CZ004_17	(er) it was also really great there were there was (erm) .. (eh) collection of (eh) jewellery (erm) <overlap /> I mean king and queen's jewellery
CZ004_18	and we saw I I'm not sure about the real name of this building but (eh) my father . calls it a cucumber . I'm not really sure if it's really . it's in the centre of London and it's . it's in the shape of cucumber really it's green and it's like this
CZ004_19	and we saw I I'm not sure about the real name of this building but (eh) my father . calls it a cucumber . I'm not really sure if it's really . it's in the centre of London and it's . it's in the shape of cucumber really it's green and it's like this
CZ004_20	and we saw I I'm not sure about the real name of this building but (eh) my father . calls it a cucumber . I'm not really sure if it's really . it's in the centre of London and it's . it's in the shape of cucumber really it's green and it's like this
CZ004_21	and we saw I I'm not sure about the real name of this building but (eh) my father . calls it a cucumber . I'm not really sure if it's really . it's in the centre of London and it's . it's in the shape of cucumber really it's green and it's like this
CZ004_22	. it was so interesting . because (erm) . everyone (eh) . almost everyone in (erm) (eh) . in my surrounding<?> . around me . know English . but . (er)
CZ004_23	(er) she <laughs> loo= she's looking . (eh) at the picture . of herself .. and . it seems that . she . doesn't like it
CZ004_24	(eh) she looks pretty . on at the picture . in the picture (eh) <overlap /> . in the portrait
CZ004_25	<A> <overlap /> how come she looks pretty in the picture what's the difference between the picture and her . or the picture and the original picture .(er) I I'm sorry I I didn't <A> . what's the difference
CZ18_1	(ehm) and they expect him to date (eh) a friend of her of his of his (er)
CZ18_2	(er) . He starts to find (er) . <lip sound> . something . <coughs> . beautiful or. starts to find a pleasure with (eh) .meeting her mother
CZ18_3	what would you think (er) about a man of my age having a relationship with an older woman . and she like .. hesitates . and suddenly her mother comes in . (er)
CZ18_4	(eh) and she's like very . <lip sound> (er) upset and furious
CZ18_5	<overlap /> because it's like <A><overlap /> she's shocked <X> shocked
CZ18_6	(er) . he starts to feel uncomfortable about that (eh) because he would like to: like . date her
CZ18_7	(em) . but (er) . (er) . yeah the movie has . kind of a fairytale ending like (er) . a prince (er) finding his princess
CZ18_8	(em) . but (er) . (er) . yeah the movie has . kind of a fairytale ending like (er) . a prince (er) finding his princess
CZ18_9	 happi= happily ever after (eh) kind of . yeah
CZ18_10	and the . blind people . (em) . work there as guides (eh) so .. <lip sound> thanks to that . (eh) I become (er) I . have become a receptionist (eh)

CZ018_11	(er) .. maybe also quite a hard . job to (eh) . get on with . (eh) . not really well-paid . (eh) and so on but (eh) . this is (eh) what interests me . most (em) . in . yeah
CZ018_12	perhaps taking some translation seminars or something like that . academic translation
CZ018_13	... I think (eh) it had to be a terrible experience for the painter . (eh) . as it would be for . (eh) . a writer . if a publisher told him . not to kill the main character or (eh) something like that
CZ018_14	(er) . it should be (em) an expression of . his (eh) own feelings of his own . (eh) artistic mind let's say and if the costumer .. <lip sound> (eh) wishes to do . (em) . such (eh) .. important changes (em) .. it . it (er) can . (er) .. get out well .. but (em) . the artist (eh) must feel uncomfortable
CZ017_1	it was I was like . I was ten years old and (er) I was a boy . young boy and (eh)
CZ017_2	I always liked pyrotechnics . the stuff which explodes . and (er)
CZ017_3	(er) we found an unexploded one . it was like after . new year
CZ017_4	(eh) . it had a very short knot or something which you (er) . which you . w= by which you (er) . like set it off .
CZ017_5	(eh) . it had a very short knot or something which you (er) . which you . w= by which you (er) . like set it off .
CZ017_6	(eh) . it had a very short knot or something which you (er) . which you . w= by which you (er) . like set it off .
CZ017_7	. I . I (er) thankfully . hold it holded it . (er) quite firmly in my hand so it exploded and it (eh) didn't . (er)
CZ017_8	it was also (er) not in in a forest or or something like that so it was in the city .
CZ017_9	(er) got me in in his home and . gave something on it like .. to stop the bleeding .
CZ017_10	he . (er) got me in in his home and . gave something on it like . to stop the bleeding . like (eh) .. (er) clear sheet or something like that
CZ017_11	he (er) got me in in his home and . gave something on it like . to stop the bleeding . like (eh) .. (er) clear sheet or something like that and he he did call his son .
CZ017_12	(er) lost my hand or . get really severely injured . lose couple of fingers and so on so maybe it was . this experience was (er) .
CZ017_13	like if it's not math or some . (er) something like that
CZ017_14	. and I really like it liked it because (eh) to speak with other people . (er) other . which like like different nationalities really
CZ017_15	. and I really like it liked it because (eh) to speak with other people . (er) other . which like like different nationalities really
CZ017_16	no no problems (er) . with . (er) any of the linguistic (er) subjects or so:
CZ017_17	<laughs> . yeah it will .. maybe (eh) like . they won't fire us all
CZ017_18	it it has to be it has to be done and . it's (er) really demanding like time demanding and . it (er) also makes your head sometimes . full of it and (er)
CZ017_19	(er) to get to it like . I have to sleep during the day and so on but one day I would really love to have maybe quite (er)
CZ017_20	(er) to get to it like . I have to sleep during the day and so on but one day I would really love to have maybe quite (er)
CZ017_21	I I will certainly have to do some translating and . this stuff (er) in in the beginning and maybe I will get promoted . after <overlap /> like that
CZ017_22	I I will certainly have to do some translating and . this stuff (er) in in the beginning and maybe I will get promoted . after <overlap /> like that
CZ017_23	there is a girl who wants to be . actually wants to be . (er) painted by this (er) . <lip sound> . or portrayed by the by the paint= painter . and (er)
CZ017_24	. or portrayed by the by the paint= painter . and (er) . or the[i:] artist . and (er) . he . (er) he made he creates . (er) a picture which apparently doesn't sui= suit her
CZ017_25	. and (er) . he . (er) he made he creates . (er) a picture which apparently doesn't sui= suit her .
CZ025_1	Rome so it was . I don't know . forty <overlap /> fifty .
CZ025_2	. we went through the majority of . the city and it . its its architecture so we . saw Colosseum and Pantheon and and so on and I was really (er) . really impressed by by the fact that actually the pictures I have <overlap /> I had seen
CZ025_3	or people are so . I don't know spontaneous
CZ025_4	(er) also there are always those people in the street that . offer you . I dunno cold water or

CZ025_5	that it really looks like . you are going to a supermarket or something like that
CZ025_6	and you have this . huge . huge (erm) . (er) how to say it . a hole in in the roof
CZ025_7	and you have this . huge . huge (erm) . (er) how to say it . a hole in in the roof
CZ025_8	in the sun but: (er) . I got inside and . I don't know it was it was it was a disappointment for me (er) because . I don't know I'm just as . perhaps no= not the type of person to really appreciate (er) Christian art
CZ025_9	in the sun but: (er) . I got inside and . I don't know it was it was it was a disappointment for me (er) because . I don't know I'm just as . perhaps no= not the type of person to really appreciate (er) Christian art
CZ025_10	and I also wanted to see (erm) how to say it (erm) the dome
CZ025_11	I would probably go like in April May <overlap /> or
CZ025_12	and we had another one . (eh) who was kind of . this this teacher you can feel that he is not really happy <overlap /> with the class
CZ025_13	and not knowing enough vocabulary well she was= (er) she wasn't even I don't know B two
CZ025_14	so: (eh) he managed to (er) some kind of make (er) some kind of lessons with her and she motivate me a lot
CZ025_15	(eh) think like (eh) it's it's not possible
CZ025_16	. and . she she looks kinda satisfied with <overlap /> with result of it yeah
CZ014_1	. the play is . complex . too much complex for for just staging . and all the . <lip sound> drama all the . <lip sound> feelings emotions were . much me= better depicted
CZ014_2	(erm) . other reason why I like this . both this game and the movie . (eh) sorry the play and the movie was (eh) that (erm) .. you can found there . anything . anything you . think (er) .
CZ014_3	it's very very complex game . a play and it's (eh) interesting that . (er) . it's quite long so .
CZ014_4	. the movie was about . seven hours long as well so . but I really like it . I really liked it .
CZ014_5	. basically the problem . it . (eh) the movie . (er) actually . distorts . the picture that some might . have about America some= something like naïve . naïve picture of what America can actually mean
CZ014_6	(eh) man and wife . <lip sound> and the man . actually realizes he doesn't love his hu= wife .
CZ014_7	Prague Film (em) sorry (er) . Film Music . Festival or something <overlap /> like that
CZ014_8	it was a big (erm) . you know the . famous (erm) <lip sound> soundtracks . from movies
CZ014_9	. I remember that I . haven't learned . or didn't learn there . that much as I would expect or .
CZ014_10	. that much as I would expect or . as probably some parents expect that those were just . few words some . family members some animal . colors or <overlap /> something like that
CZ014_11	because I think that (er) . (mm) . unless you are not gonna work (er) in a . <lip sound> . (er) unless you are gonna work in a . in . <lip sound> . (er) let's say . have some job where you can . work with your English .
CZ014_12	. <laughs> . (erm) I I am sorry I'm . my imagination . or fantasy . <overlap /> just before Christmas <laughs>
CZ022_1	(eh) .. I think (eh) . mostly being on my own was was (em) was the the biggest issue probably and and it has learned it has taught me a lot
CZ022_2	which (eh) (eh) I I was quite disappointed at . because (em) . it was the the water is is brownish blackish muddy something <overlap /> the coast
CZ022_3	>><overlap /> yeah yeah well well no I didn't have to retake the school year I had to pass . (em) . exams like a make-up exams <overlap /> or something (em)
CZ022_4	>><overlap /> yeah yeah well well no I didn't have to retake the school year I had to pass . (em) . exams like a make-up exams <overlap /> or something (em)
CZ022_5	he worked for the city . and he was (eh) . you know this (eh) huge Texan . man <starts laughing> considering or referring <stops laughing> to himself as redneck and being proud of it <laughs>
CZ022_6	he worked for the city . and he was (eh) . you know this (eh) huge Texan . man <starts laughing> considering or referring <stops laughing> to himself as redneck and being proud of it <laughs>
CZ022_7	he was always interested in what what . I think and having having sort of the . the discussion .
CZ022_8	she was (eh) she also worked for the city . some administration stuff
CZ022_9	(eh) the picture . (em) . she . seems quite ... s= like . I dunno <starts laughing> she's got she's got <stops laughing> a weird expression .

CZ022_10	(eh) the picture . (em) . she . seems quite ... s= like . I dunno <starts laughing> she's got she's got <stops laughing> a weird expression .
CZ022_11	okay so the artist did something wrong apparently . oh did he . did he draw something bad . maybe .
CZ022_12	and . oh . she wants . oh yeah she wants different hair .. I don't get the story <laughs> okay so the the <overlap /> woman <A> <overlap /> you're getting there
CZ022_13	okay okay so (eh) the picture of her must be must be better than . (eh) what she looks like r= re= fo= you know (em) .. (eh) in reality
CZ022_14	and (em) .. she's got . better expression she's not exactly smiling but (em) ... I think it's (em) . (mm) . little .. milder expression or something
CZ022_15	I wouldn't want to repaint the picture .. because I think (eh) .. as a as a as a painter as an artist you should (eh) portray the reality as it is
CZ022_16	well I would <laughs> I would probably (eh) . I wouldn't want to repaint the picture .. because I think (eh) .. as a as a as a painter as an artist you should (eh) portray the reality as it is an= and find the beauty in it . but not . draw the beauty and then . and you know hide <overlap /> hide the reality
CZ009_1	(eh) and: there we stayed at his place for a while you know for . acclimatization
CZ009_2	so he had a pool and he had: aircondition so it was quite fine for us . because in the rest of India you know we suffered from the heat it was in summer
CZ009_3	. <laughs> so . we started in New Delhi we went to see the markets there and some . you know more interes<?> most important sightseeing places and stuff . and: then we went to the south to (mm) Himalayas
CZ009_4	. <laughs> so . we started in New Delhi we went to see the markets there and some . you know more interes<?> most important sightseeing places and stuff . and: then we went to the south to (mm) Himalayas
CZ009_5	. <laughs> so . we started in New Delhi we went to see the markets there and some . you know more interes<?> most important sightseeing places and stuff . and: then we went to the south to (mm) Himalayas
CZ009_6	and: then we felt you know . there was he= headache and: . I I think a lo= low blood pressure .
CZ009_7	. and we went to the hotel or to the embassy in Delhi . (eh) there were just areas full of slums you know so just tents and hu= huts . sheds sheds
CZ009_8	. and we went to the hotel or to the embassy in Delhi . (eh) there were just areas full of slums you know so just tents and hu= huts . sheds sheds
CZ009_9	I now know felt like oh what kind of woman women are they because no no no in India it's very different and
CZ009_10	. we wanted . t= twa= (eh) we ordered . tea twice . and then we wanted some: some= something basic like salad or something
CZ009_11	. we wanted . t= twa= (eh) we ordered . tea twice . and then we wanted some: some= something basic like salad or something
CZ009_12	. he was unable you know of thinking that he can prepare two teas at one time and s= save his time in this way (eh) it's not important <overlap /> for people in India
CZ009_13	it was nice because we had gorgeous view on Himalayas . and stuff like that and
CZ009_14	but: he also . can speak Hebrew he can speak Arabic he can speak <foreign> no </foreign> English and stuff of course .
CZ009_15	so crooked narrow streets you know and so dirty stuff you can really . <starts laughing> be aware of where you where you are going <stops laughing> and . it is so smelly and so disgusting <overlap /> in some way but
CZ009_16	so crooked narrow streets you know and so dirty stuff you can really . <starts laughing> be aware of where you where you are going <stops laughing> and . it is so smelly and so disgusting <overlap /> in some way but
CZ009_17	one w= was one was (eh) . <XX> brushing his teeth . brushing his teeth there and another was swimming just next to him you know because it's a sacred river it's a goddess in fact so to
CZ009_18	it's really really . perfect it's very inspiring because . you can connect cultures you can you know see various approaches .
CZ009_19	(eh) you know in different circumstances for us it's just natural . but the people are asking me about the rules and I have to think about them because . I can't teach without the rules obviously so
CZ009_20	do you think so because this seems to be .. you know more developed .. (mhm) ... ok so

CZ009_21	do you think so because this seems to be .. you know more developed .. (mhm) ... ok so
CZ009_22	. maybe she asked him to: . try another one just second attempt and: . the second one . with better hair and which is more . feminine or more more fashionable I don't know . possibly .
CZ009_23	. then she: . she bought the picture and she invited her friends to see it . so she could you know kind of boast with that and <laughs> . I can't think about anything better now
CZ009_24	she invited her friends to see it . so she could you know kind of boast with that and <laughs> .
CZ009_25	. then she: . she bought the picture and she invited her friends to see it . so she could you know kind of boast with that and <laughs> . I can't think about anything better now
CZ009_26	she is . yeah she is smiling . and: she has . har<?> (eh) hairdress (eh) her= hairstyle some haircut some nice haircut
CZ009_27	she is . yeah she is smiling . and: she has . har<?> (eh) hairdress (eh) her= hairstyle some haircut some nice haircut
CZ009_28	she is . yeah she is smiling . and: she has . har<?> (eh) hairdress (eh) her= hairstyle some haircut some nice haircut
CZ003_1	and the first time that we were there with my sister it was for two wee= two months . and the whole time it hasn't rained . one day
CZ003_2	their children which . you know you would think okay maybe there isn't a connection . why would they want to see us but they do and (em) and it's lovely yeah
CZ003_3	(er) the way they pronounce because the[i:] expressions are nowadays quite similar to English ones you know you can come across something that you don't know
CZ003_4	well apparently . there is some kind of I don't know if it's a joke or a tradition but (erm) men have to stand in a circle . and (erm) with their backs towards each other and lift their kilts for a few seconds . and it's photographed . from inside the circle
CZ003_5	. well my dream . would be to go to New Zealand one day . but that would mean spending (em) sorry (erm) saving a lot of money
CZ003_6	yeah yeah yeah .. well (em) I think that she well she's definitely <laughs> .. for want of the better word (erm) photo-shopped <laughs>
CZ003_7	yeah yeah yeah .. well (em) I think that she well she's definitely <laughs> .. for want of the better word (erm) photo-shopped <laughs>
CZ003_8	yeah yeah yeah .. well (em) I think that she well she's definitely <laughs> .. for want of the better word (erm) photo-shopped <laughs>
CZ003_9	yeah I I I guess I would and I think that one of the women in the picture . looks like she's she's she's looking with her eyebrows roused (em) rised <overlap /> risen
CZ035_1	(er) they go into your brain and: . basically . you know influence . your perception and your expectations
CZ035_2	and: . while we were travelling on: the train . there were people who actually started talking to us and just curious where we were from and stuff .
CZ035_3	and . that's something that first . kind of . (er) made me uncomfortable .
CZ035_4	(er) where . there was a call for this . kind of new concept at least I had not heard of that before . in which we do (eh) three sessions in one week .
CZ035_5	I learnt to . kind of get the meaning
CZ035_6	(er) but: . also . it felt it felt like (er) one of the few things that I actually can do . as opposed to: for example I don't know some technical stuff .
CZ035_7	(er) but: . also . it felt it felt like (er) one of the few things that I actually can do . as opposed to: for example I don't know some technical stuff .
CZ035_8	yeah . the T V shows . movies . that kind of . that kind of stuff like . it's . it sounds it sounds really awkward and lonely and but it's . (er) there's a lot of people involved in television shows so .
CZ035_9	yeah . the T V shows . movies . that kind of . that kind of stuff like . it's . it sounds it sounds really awkward and lonely and but it's . (er) there's a lot of people involved in television shows so .
CZ035_10	oh no . I'm not a: . sport sport . doing person
CZ035_11	I do go to like the gym class that university offers but
CZ035_12	. Swiss soldiers from I don't know when
CZ035_13	and . she's posing for him . (eh) very stiffly . and like half profile I think I don't how know wh= what it's called actually . in English
CZ035_14	and . she's posing for him . (eh) very stiffly . and like half profile I think I don't how know wh= what it's called actually . in English

CZ035_15	and . she's posing for him . (eh) very stiffly . and like half profile I think I don't how know wh= what it's called actually . in English
CZ035_16	I'm not sure how it's called in Czech <foreign> anfas </foreign> maybe <foreign> anfas </foreign> I think yeah
CZ035_17	I'm not sure how it's called in Czech <foreign> anfas </foreign> maybe <foreign> anfas </foreign> I think yeah
CZ020_1	which means that (erm) .. our levels of English were very different but (erm) . <lip sound> . we grew up in different . like places around the world .. and (erm) .
CZ020_2	I learnt so much about the different cultures . and . what do they eat in I don't know Netherlands or . or so on so . I really enjoyed this year and I . if I could I (eh) . I would have stayed there longer but then I moved back to the Czech Republic
CZ020_3	I learnt so much about the different cultures . and . what do they eat in I don't know Netherlands or . or so on so . I really enjoyed this year and I . if I could I (eh) . I would have stayed there longer but then I moved back to the Czech Republic
CZ020_4	(eh) .. then when I came to the Czech Republic I . I was . like after one year I could speak really pretty well . like pretty well . and all the people were asking like where was I staying and . how did I learn English and . <lip sound>
CZ020_5	(eh) .. then when I came to the Czech Republic I . I was . like after one year I could speak really pretty well . like pretty well . and all the people were asking like where was I staying and . how did I learn English and . <lip sound>
CZ020_6	(eh) .. then when I came to the Czech Republic I . I was . like after one year I could speak really pretty well . like pretty well . and all the people were asking like where was I staying and . how did I learn English and . <lip sound>
CZ020_7	it was like every lessons was different . and . I just remember so much . from: every lesson that .. it's yeah well mostly like in during the summer or before the summer . <lip sound>
CZ020_8	it was like every lessons was different . and . I just remember so much . from: every lesson that .. it's yeah well mostly like in during the summer or before the summer . <lip sound>
CZ020_9	. (erm) we used basically the playground near the school . we were just like sitting outside he was talking we were talking . of course it was difficult coz most of us didn't speak English <overlap /> at all
CZ020_10	yeah so . but . you could see like that . from the first week . <lip sound> . that I didn't speak English at all . and then before Christmas . I could really like basically communicate and
CZ020_11	yeah so . but . you could see like that . from the first week . <lip sound> . that I didn't speak English at all . and then before Christmas . I could really like basically communicate and
CZ020_12	I could really like basically communicate and read English texts not like very difficult ones but . but still . and (erm) .. or <name of professor> he focused mostly on vocabulary
CZ020_13	(erm) . we did of course like we had math or science social studies and all of these were in English so he gave us the like . the basics for learning learning language
CZ020_14	(erm) . we did of course like we had math or science social studies and all of these were in English so he gave us the like . the basics for learning learning language
CZ020_15	yeah and I really didn't learn grammar like . <lip sound> . like the way that . (eh) . he he would tell tell us that . okay . past participle is used . here
CZ020_16	yeah and I really didn't learn grammar like . <lip sound> . like the way that . (eh) . he he would tell tell us that . okay . past participle is used . here
CZ020_17	(erm) we had several trips . to: we went skiing . and it was good that . (erm) . we knew each other like all the students . coz we were together with grades six seven and eight
CZ020_18	. but also people from like I don't know Australia Japan from everywhere .
CZ020_19	and . <lip sound> . each week . every student got a special like award . for doing something good or so
CZ020_20	and . <lip sound> . each week . every student got a special like award . for doing something good or so
CZ020_21	or so and . <lip sound> . I really enjoyed the[i:] environment coz . (erm) . everybody helped me really like much
CZ020_22	there was like nobody . nobody ever told me that .. (erm) . you shouldn't do this or . something like . they always tried to help me <overlap /> with everything
CZ020_23	there was like nobody . nobody ever told me that .. (erm) . you shouldn't do this or . something like . they always tried to help me <overlap /> with everything
CZ020_24	yeah so I usually go to work . <lip sound> . but it's true that sometimes I like spend my weekends doing school work a lot I feel . sometimes it's better but sometimes you know when you when you have two presentations in one day then you have a test .

CZ020_25	yeah so I usually go to work . <lip sound> . but it's true that sometimes I like spend my weekends doing school work a lot I feel . sometimes it's better but sometimes you know when you when you have two presentations in one day then you have a test .
CZ020_26	<lip sound> . I'm just helping at the[i:] financial department . and I (erm) . like (eh) basically do stuff that . other people . don't wanna do <laughs>
CZ020_27	exactly oh yeah pay for my like . going to pubs
CZ020_28	well my (eh) dad is from Finland and my mum is Czech and my mum was actually studying Finnish here at the[i:] Faculty of Arts . and yeah they just met on an like some kind of an exchange or so
CZ020_29	well my (eh) dad is from Finland and my mum is Czech and my mum was actually studying Finnish here at the[i:] Faculty of Arts . and yeah they just met on an like some kind of an exchange or so
CZ020_30	well my (eh) dad is from Finland and my mum is Czech and my mum was actually studying Finnish here at the[i:] Faculty of Arts . and yeah they just met on an like some kind of an exchange or so
CZ020_31	but it doesn't actually seem .. that . like I don't feel that I see them little coz or not much coz (erm) . <lip sound> . we are like . in contact all the time
CZ020_32	but it doesn't actually seem .. that . like I don't feel that I see them little coz or not much coz (erm) . <lip sound> . we are like . in contact all the time
CZ020_33	to visit my family but it doesn't actually seem .. that . like I don't feel that I see them little coz or not much coz (erm) . <lip sound> . we are like . in contact all the time
CZ020_34	yeah yeall well my grandma like is asking me oh do you know what's been happening in Finland or coz she thinks like I don't read the news or so but
CZ020_35	yeah yeall well my grandma like is asking me oh do you know what's been happening in Finland or coz she thinks like I don't read the news or so but
CZ020_36	yeah yeall well my grandma like is asking me oh do you know what's been happening in Finland or coz she thinks like I don't read the news or so but
CZ020_37	yeah yeall well my grandma like is asking me oh do you know what's been happening in Finland or coz she thinks like I don't read the news or so but
CZ020_38	(erm) he picked up like being here
CZ020_39	they differ a lot like Finnish people are more . <lip sound> . I would say shy .. and it's a different mentality and I can see it . and I can al= also see that I'm somewhere in between
CZ020_40	they differ a lot like Finnish people are more . <lip sound> . I would say shy .. and it's a different mentality and I can see it . and I can al= also see that I'm somewhere in between
CZ020_41	coz I've been here . but it's like it's not easy to follow all the things
CZ020_42	<A> what is your dream country where would you like to go like visit
CZ020_43	yeah no not the same place coz I was in Iowa . and that there's nothing there really it's like the people are really really nice and welcoming and everything but (erm) . <lip sound> there are just like cornfields
CZ020_44	yeah no not the same place coz I was in Iowa . and that there's nothing there really it's like the people are really really nice and welcoming and everything but (erm) . <lip sound> there are just like cornfields
CZ020_45	but I would have to go there for a longer time to see it but . you never know actually I I don't even know where am I going to be living like maybe next year or so
CZ020_46	but I would have to go there for a longer time to see it but . you never know actually I I don't even know where am I going to be living like maybe next year or so
CZ020_47	. and so the painter tries to repaint the picture so that she looks more beautiful and so on and she is <starts laughing> smiling <stops laughing>
CZ020_48	. we can see that the woman . is showing the ready picture for . to her friends and .
CZ020_49	(eh) wants the friends to say that she looks really pretty really nice and who did paint who painted the picture and so on . so yes so . at least she is satisfied with the picture <laughs>
CZ020_50	(eh) wants the friends to say that she looks really pretty really nice and who did paint who painted the picture and so on . so yes so . at least she is satisfied with the picture <laughs>
CZ020_51	she has . wavy hair like not straight . she is smiling . she is just looking . much more . I don't know like relaxed .. and nice nicer simply
CZ020_52	she has . wavy hair like not straight . she is smiling . she is just looking . much more . I don't know like relaxed .. and nice nicer simply

CZ020_53	she has . wavy hair like not straight . she is smiling . she is just looking . much more . I don't know like relaxed .. and nice nicer simply
CZ020_54	she has . wavy hair like not straight . she is smiling . she is just looking . much more . I don't know like relaxed .. and nice nicer simply
CZ020_55	(erm) . I don't know like he looks pretty happy in the third picture but . like I wouldn't be happy at all coz it's my own work and
CZ020_56	(erm) . I don't know like he looks pretty happy in the third picture but . like I wouldn't be happy at all coz it's my own work
CZ020_57	(erm) . I don't know like he looks pretty happy in the third picture but . like I wouldn't be happy at all coz it's my own work
CZ020_58	and it's it's like original so it's I don't know if . like she wanted the painter to this painter to paint the picture then
CZ020_59	and it's it's like original so it's I don't know if . like she wanted the painter to this painter to paint the picture then
CZ020_60	and it's it's like original so it's I don't know if . like she wanted the painter to this painter to paint the picture then
CZ002_1	. and (em) I mean it's David Mamet so (em) . he . really . plays with language . very well . (erm) .
CZ002_2	. and (em) I mean the translation of this play is really good in this respect
CZ002_3	. (em) . I mean the as for the translation . itself (erm)
CZ002_4	.. the rude stuff is done really marvellously it's innovative .
CZ002_5	and some of the words <sighs> . I mean we . we were really . really laughing a lot .
CZ002_6	. but (em) . I mean I like translation so I know . (em) something about it and there were a lot of . cleft sentences . (eh)
CZ002_7	. (em) (em) the performances were also . quite brilliant (erm) I mean one of the roles was played by (eh) . <foreign> Suchánek </foreign>
CZ002_8	(em) I wanted to take as many courses like . extra-curricular courses . as possible . I just wanted to know what's out there . to be able to . have to be to have . more material to choose from and one of these courses was (eh) <name of a teacher from the department> (em)
CZ002_9	exactly . and sociology and . everything
CZ002_10	(eh) with homosexuality and the way . masculinity . sort of works with this
CZ002_11	I mean . (em) the here . I understand it <overlap /> I mean
CZ002_12	I mean . (em) the here . I understand it <overlap /> I mean
CZ002_13	but over there people are afraid . to touch it you know to not to . not sort of . <X> offend anyone <overlap /> or whatever
CZ002_14	but over there people are afraid . to touch it you know to not to . not sort of . <X> offend anyone <overlap /> or whatever
CZ002_15	but over there people are afraid . to touch it you know to not to . not sort of . <X> offend anyone <overlap /> or whatever
CZ002_16	<sighs> I don't . not yet (eh) I mean
CZ002_17	I mean av= av= . avoiding conflicts I guess would be the major part of that . right and when I realized that when I decided to work with religion .
CZ002_18	. and I thought . wow that is interesting I mean considering how important <overlap /> religion is . over there
CZ002_19	. (erm) in my BA thesis I did . that was . Mamet (em) here . (em) . I will work with . published authors I mean like . Christopher Hitchens Richard Dawkins . and these men (em) ..
CZ002_20	. (erm) in my BA thesis I did . that was . Mamet (em) here . (em) . I will work with . published authors I mean like . Christopher Hitchens Richard Dawkins . and these men (em) ..
CZ002_21	. (em) . some of the kids don't really care they just figure that . I won't need this and whatever
CZ002_22	<stops laughing> I mean you you can try and . you can do your best . yeah right but some kids just don't . don't care
CZ002_23	(erm) . and . I mean I've been doing that . ever since I was a teenager I mean I started . (em) around the[i:] age of . fifteen or something
CZ002_24	(erm) . and . I mean I've been doing that . ever since I was a teenager I mean I started . (em) around the[i:] age of . fifteen or something
CZ002_25	(erm) . and . I mean I've been doing that . ever since I was a teenager I mean I started . (em) around the[i:] age of . fifteen or something

CZ002_26	yeah exactly . I mean at that time we got a new English teacher . and (eh) I mean she was a sweetheart but . (em) .
CZ002_27	yeah exactly . I mean at that time we got a new English teacher . and (eh) I mean she was a sweetheart but . (em) .
CZ002_28	. (erm) and I mean we were vicious at the time (em) once she (em) . stood . (eh) in front of the blackboard . and she was trying to teach us some adjectives .
CZ002_29	. (eh) it is (eh) . it is quite a nice show I mean it it drama it's a drama
CZ002_30	I think . and (erm) . I mean yeah (eh) I've I've gained a lot of experience . period
CZ002_31	(eh) yeah <overlap /> I mean . I could . (er) . do: . the subtitles a bit shorter . but (em) . I just figure that (eh) because it's unofficial I don't really need to
CZ002_32	I like to . (em) sort of . (eh) (mhm) . I want <overlap /> I want
CZ002_33	there is a painter in a studio and he's . (er) painting (er) . some . young lady <starts laughing> sitting in an armchair <stops laughing> . or a chair . (em)
CZ002_34	(eh) she's creating . a a different . work of art . (eh) this time (eh) . a bit . better . perfected . (eh)
CZ002_35	(er) so I guess (er) . the the story is that of vanity . and pride . and . what-not
CZ019_1	(eh) I took Renaissance seminars because this is what I am interested in . and . I had .. the[i:] idea that simply if (eh) . I had read the whole Shakespeare I am well . prepared to take courses and . everything and it will be fine .
CZ019_2	so that was sort of comforting but anyway I still felt that I really had to work hard . so (eh)
CZ019_3	. and also it it also I suppose . taught me humility in certain ways . in a way that okay I I may try hard I will do my best and . yet there is still some part (eh)
CZ019_4	. whether Richard the third killed the princes . whether Rasputin (eh) I don't know whatever . (eh) I am interested in the way these myths function
CZ019_5	. whether Richard the third killed the princes . whether Rasputin (eh) I don't know whatever . (eh) I am interested in the way these myths function
CZ019_6	I had to . get in touch with the[i:] (er) . someone from the[i:] embassy and I almost . missed the flight on the day my visa was to expire
CZ012_1	pleasure to meet you as well I'd like to talk about two countries that I visited or have visited in my life . that have had great influence on me personally and and (er) especially in two aspects (mm) mainly the underwater wildlife that I saw there . (er)
CZ012_2	(er) and also in case of Egypt . one of the countries that I wanna talk about . (er) the th= the[i:] ancient history that that sort of oozes into you when you when you you know
CZ012_3	the th= the[i:] ancient history that that sort of oozes into you when you when you you know . walk around the place a little
CZ012_4	(erm) . and . it's similar in Egypt and it's a it's a sort of a . next step in in my diver's career . (er)
CZ012_5	(er) and before that I only used to snorkel a= around Croatian coast the islands . just watching the underwater wildlife, hunting for shellfish and . and stuff like that just collecting . (er)
CZ012_6	(er) especially the sea (er) that can very well be seen . a= at the bottom of the sea because you know the life became more scarce and scarce up until . there was almost nothing ou= out there just you know rocky bottom . (er)
CZ012_7	until . there was almost nothing ou= out there just you know rocky bottom . (er)
CZ012_8	. (er) and it's exciting and at the same time really soothing and calm . calming because you know you're just swimming down there . (er)
CZ012_9	. we saw a shark . everybody's sort of horrified at the notion of of you know being in water and . and having sharks or a shark . swimming around you .
CZ012_10	. we saw a shark . everybody's sort of horrified at the notion of of you know being in water and . and having sharks or a shark . swimming around you .
CZ012_11	. and the other thing was that that it (er) the shark was probably quite young and just curious . about what was happening . not really . aggressive or hungry or anything
CZ012_12	(er) watching the shark which was fine . (er) but spending too much air . (er) while waiting for the others . (er) but other than that it was (er) it was an awesome experience . you know
CZ012_13	(erm) . and maybe th= the second . worst or maybe best experience was a night dive . (er) that we went for also during the advanced course . and it was in a sort of a crater where we could see lots of different kind of shellfish
CZ012_14	. (er) an= an= and (er) even the . crab-like things I can't remember the word at the moment . (er) like (er) . langustas an= an= and (er) shrimp, not shrimp <overlap /> the bigger ones lobsters

CZ012_15	. (er) an= an= and (er) even the . crab-like things I can't remember the word at the moment . (er) like (er) . langustas an= an= and (er) shrimp, not shrimp <overlap /> the bigger ones lobsters
CZ012_16	(er) an= an= and (er) even the . crab-like things I can't remember the word at the moment . (er) like (er) . langustas an= an= and (er) shrimp, not shrimp <overlap /> the bigger ones lobsters
CZ012_17	(er) an= an= and (er) even the . crab-like things I can't remember the word at the moment . (er) like (er) . langustas an= an= and (er) shrimp
CZ012_18	. langustas an= an= and (er) shrimp, not shrimp <overlap /> the bigger ones lobsters
CZ012_19	(er) but still you need to have your light turned on and there's not really that much to see except for dead trees . and and like house remnants and some fish as well . which was nice . we saw a pike .
CZ012_20	it was the holiday thing really an= and I've always I mean ever since I've been s= a small child (er) my family and me . we sort of inclined . towards . you know . walking . in the countryside (er) .
CZ012_21	it was the holiday thing really an= and I've always I mean ever since I've been s= a small child (er) my family and me . we sort of inclined . towards . you know . walking . in the countryside (er) .
CZ012_22	it was the holiday thing really an= and I've always I mean ever since I've been s= a small child (er) my family and me . we sort of inclined . towards . you know . walking . in the countryside (er) .
CZ012_23	. we sort of inclined . towards . you know . walking . in the countryside (er) . going . (er) to pick mushrooms in the forest and stuff like that an=
CZ012_24	. and for me the the beau= the b= the beauty of the forest and and . and the: diving or the snorkelling it's just a sort of a natural extension of that of the similar thing . (eh)
CZ012_25	. because you need to keep constant track of how deep I mean . what's what's your depth where you are .
CZ012_26	. lots of things to take care of . (er) lots of things to think about . and then you know thinking of focusing and actually seeing something in the camera lens .
CZ012_27	when you're underwater (er) and and yeah it's just too much for me and I just like . y= you know sometimes you you see you hear people saying these days that . that a lot of people (er) like the Japanese for example they take a lot of photographs .
CZ012_28	enjoying it down there not really caring about . <overlap /> you know
CZ012_29	(er) so (er) the pronunciation . big improvement in that in this course here . (er) really grateful to the teachers here that that that (er) . you know tutored me and
CZ012_30	it's it's a sort of a . (er) employment agency that I work for and and and (er) I'm in the HR department
CZ012_31	yeah y= y= yeah I can see that I'm just thinking you know . seeing looking at all the details trying to take it all in . (er)
CZ012_32	yeah y= y= yeah I can see that I'm just thinking you know . seeing looking at all the details trying to take it all in . (er)
CZ012_33	it seems to me well obviously the setting seems to be that that there's a . a girl or a woman or a lady being painted by by a painter . (er)