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Department of Foreign Language Education

English Language Teaching

ENHANCING PEER COLLABORATIVE ORAL INTERACTION THROUGH  
INTERACTIONAL STRATEGY TRAINING

Sibel TOSUN

Ph.D. Dissertation

Ankara, 2023

With leadership, research, innovation, high quality education and change,

*To the leading edge... Toward being the best...*



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AKRAN İŞBİRLİKSEL ETKİLEŞİMİNİN ETKİLEŞİMSEL STRATEJİ EĞİTİMİ ARACILIĞIYLA  
GELİŞTİRİLMESİ

Sibel TOSUN

Ph.D. Dissertation

Ankara, 2023

### Acceptance and Approval

To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This dissertation, prepared by **Sibel TOSUN** and entitled “Enhancing Peer Collaborative Oral Interaction Through Interactional Strategy Training” has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Ph.D.** in the **Program of English Language Teaching** in the **Department of Foreign Languages Education** by the members of the Examining Committee.

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## Abstract

This study aims to examine the effectiveness of interactional strategy training on the level of collaboration between pairs during peer interaction. The research sample consisted of 28 students, aged 18-22, who were divided into two groups: the experimental group, which received instruction in interactional strategies, and the control group, which engaged in the same pair-tasks as the experimental group but without strategy training. Employing a mixed-methods research design, quantitative and qualitative data were collected through pre-task, immediate post-task, and delayed post-task speaking activities, self-evaluation forms, and interviews. The interactions during pre-, post-, and delayed post-tasks were analyzed to identify the interactional strategies and patterns formed by the dyads. The self-evaluation forms and interviews provided additional insights into the participants' reflections and perceptions of the interactional strategy training. The analysis of dyadic interaction revealed that both groups showed increased collaboration and utilization of interactional strategies in the post-task. However, the experimental group exhibited a significantly higher level of collaboration and implementation of strategies during interactions. The examination of interaction patterns and strategy use demonstrated the positive impact of interactional strategy training in enhancing collaboration and promoting the use of interactional strategies. Furthermore, the analysis of self-evaluation forms and interviews revealed that participants in the strategy group experienced various benefits, including heightened awareness of their interactional behaviors, improvements in speech fluency, interactional skills, strategy usage, and affective factors such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety levels.

**Keywords:** interactional strategies, patterns of interaction, peer interaction, collaborative interaction, speaking skills

## Öz

Öğrenciler arasındaki çiftli etkileşimin incelenmesi, dil öğrenme ve sözlü iletişimin sosyal boyutlarına yönelik artan vurguyla araştırmacılar arasında büyük ilgi uyandırmıştır. Bu çalışma etkileşim stratejisi eğitiminin akran etkileşimi sırasında işbirliği düzeyi üzerindeki etkisini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Araştırma örneklemini, etkileşimsel strateji eğitimi alan deneysel grup ve strateji eğitimi almayan kontrol grubu olmak üzere, 18-22 yaş arası 28 öğrenciden oluşturulmuştur. Karma yöntem araştırma tasarımı kullanılarak, nicel ve nitel veriler, ön test, son test ve geciktirilmiş son test konuşma etkinlikleri, öz değerlendirme formları ve görüşmeler yoluyla toplanmıştır. Etkileşim kalıplarını ve ikili gruplar tarafından kullanılan etkileşim stratejilerini belirlemek için ön, son ve geciktirilmiş konuşma aktivitelerinin transkriptleri analiz edilmiştir. Öz değerlendirme formları ve görüşmeler de etkileşimsel strateji eğitimiyle ilgili katılımcıların düşüncelerini ve algılarını daha ayrıntılı bir şekilde ortaya koymak için analiz edilmiştir. İkili gruplardaki etkileşim her iki grupta da son testte artan işbirliği ve daha fazla etkileşimsel strateji kullanımını göstermiş olsa da, deneysel grup etkileşimlerinde belirgin bir şekilde daha yüksek bir işbirliği düzeyi ve strateji kullanımı artışı gözlemlenmiştir. Etkileşim kalıplarının ve strateji kullanımının incelenmesi, etkileşimsel strateji eğitiminin akranlar arasındaki işbirliğini etkili bir şekilde artırdığını ve etkileşimsel stratejilerin kullanımını teşvik ettiğini göstermiştir. Ayrıca, öz değerlendirme formlarının ve görüşmelerin analizi, strateji grubundaki katılımcıların etkileşimsel davranışlarının daha fazla farkındalığını geliştirdiğini ve konuşma akıcılığı, etkileşimsel beceriler, strateji kullanımı gibi alanlarda iyileşme yaşadıklarını, ayrıca motivasyon, özgüven ve kaygı düzeyleri gibi duygusal faktörlerde de olumlu gelişmeler olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

**Anahtar sözcükler:** etkileşimsel stratejiler, etkileşim kalıpları, akran etkileşimi, işbirlikçi etkileşim, konuşma becerileri

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## Symbols and Abbreviations

**ANC:** American National Corpus website

**CEFR:** Common European Framework of Reference

**CSs:** Communication Strategies

**ELT:** English Language Teaching

**KWIC:** keywords in context

**L2:** Second/Foreign language

**LRE:** Language Related Episodes

**MASC:** Manually Annotated Sub-Corpus

**OANC:** Open American National Corpus

**SBCSAE:** Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English

**SLA:** Second language acquisition

**ZPD:** Zone of Proximal development

## Chapter 1

### Introduction

The evolution of language learning perspectives has undergone a significant transformation, transitioning from a focus on habit formation and controlled practice to a more interactive and dynamic approach. Previously, speaking skills were not explicitly taught, as it was presumed that they would naturally develop alongside the acquisition of grammar, vocabulary, and phonology (Thornbury, 2012). However, research in second language acquisition (SLA) has firmly established the profound connection between interaction and learning (Gass & Mackey, 2015). We now acknowledge that language learning unfolds through learner interactions, collaborative meaning construction, negotiation of meaning, and attentiveness to feedback received during these interactions (Richards, 2005). Yet, a crucial question arises regarding the extent of learners' opportunities for interaction in the context of second language (L2) learning.

Given that a substantial portion of language learning takes place within classrooms where learners have limited exposure to native speakers, researchers have directed their attention toward enhancing learners' speaking and interaction skills in such contexts. Peer interaction has emerged as a promising avenue for maximizing students' speaking time in the classroom (Fernandez Dobao, 2014). Despite the fact that peer interaction has been studied since the early 1980s, it has received less scholarly scrutiny in comparison to interactions involving native and non-native speakers, as well as student-teacher interactions (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). However, recent findings suggest that interactions among L2 speakers may offer greater benefits for learners, particularly in settings with limited opportunities for native speaker interaction (Loewen & Sato, 2018). Nevertheless, the effectiveness of peer interaction is influenced by the social dynamics among peers (Sato, 2017). It is noteworthy that not all learner interactions lead to language development, as learning hinges on the specific interactional patterns that emerge in each situation (Naughton, 2006). Teachers play a crucial role in observing variations in learners' roles,



levels of engagement, and interpersonal relationships, all of which collectively shape the patterns of interaction.

Among the various classifications of interaction patterns, Storch (2002) proposed the most widely accepted model, identifying four distinct types of patterns based on the degree of equality and mutuality between learners: dominant/dominant, dominant/passive, expert/novice, and collaborative. Research on interaction patterns consistently demonstrates that collaborative interaction and high mutuality provide more conducive environments for L2 learning (Sato & Viveros, 2016; Storch, 2002). Furthermore, peer-to-peer collaborative dialogue has been recognized as a fundamental aspect of L2 learning (Swain et al., 2002). Within a collaborative dialogue, learners can collaboratively solve linguistic challenges and construct knowledge about the target language. As Routman (2005) asserts, students exhibit greater learning when they can actively engage in meaningful conversations with their peers. The advantages offered by collaborative interaction underscore the need to move beyond simply creating pair work opportunities for learners and find ways to enhance collaborative interaction.

While it is commonly assumed that learners naturally engage in meaning negotiation during interactive tasks in small groups, they often lack the necessary linguistic and strategic skills to effectively handle communication breakdowns and collaborate harmoniously (Naughton, 2006). Within the collaborative pattern, specific interaction strategies such as "peer repair," "recasting" for negative or corrective feedback, "confirmation checks" for positive feedback, and "requests" and "provision of information" are employed (Storch, 2002, p. 130). Introducing learners to these strategies can foster a collaborative learning environment by equipping them with the necessary tools to engage more effectively with their peers. Notably, non-native speakers demonstrate distinctive patterns of engagement, underscoring the potential benefits of explicit instruction in collaborative dyadic interaction, focusing on strategies for extending turns, demonstrating interest through follow-up questions, and initiating and concluding turns (Galaczi, 2008).

Teaching these strategies, particularly within a cooperative framework, can enhance learners' ability to manage and harness interaction to improve their communicative competence and stimulate the development of their interlanguage (Naughton, 2006).

Building upon the aforementioned insights, the present study aims to investigate the influence of teaching learners interactional strategies on the level of collaboration during peer interaction. Furthermore, it seeks to explore whether pairs can sustain a collaborative interaction pattern over an extended period. This study endeavors to shed light on the intricate interplay between interaction, social environment, and engagement, unraveling their interconnected dynamics.

### **Statement of the Problem**

In countries like Turkey, where English is not widely spoken outside the classroom, students may not have sufficient opportunities to practice the language and develop their communicative skills. In traditional classroom settings, students often spend a significant amount of time sitting at their desks, listening to the teacher, and having limited interaction with their peers (Frey et al., 2009). A recent study by Suryati (2015) revealed that teacher-student interaction dominated classroom talk at 93%, while student-student interaction accounted for only 7%. Even in activities specifically designed for student interaction, students contributed less than a quarter of the total words, suggesting that student-teacher interactions may not provide optimal opportunities for meaningful interaction (McDonough & Hernandez Gonzalez, 2013).

Despite the theoretical emphasis on the importance of speaking skills, the actual time and effort dedicated to developing these skills in English classes remain insufficient. In many teaching contexts, there is no dedicated course focusing on speaking skills, and textbooks only include a limited number of sections on speaking. The situation is even worse when it comes to teaching interaction strategies. Doff and Thaine (2015) argue that interaction strategies are rarely addressed in English language classes, as many teaching

materials have a narrow perspective on speaking. While they may provide opportunities for learners to engage in communication through individual speaking exercises or fluency activities, interaction strategies are often overlooked. Considering that speaking practice is typically limited to the tasks provided in textbooks, and the few pair tasks included in these books do not emphasize interaction strategies adequately, it is not surprising to observe speaking performances that fall short of L1-like interaction.

Learners have limited opportunities for peer interaction, and even when they do interact, it is common for students who lack interest in learning to engage in easily understood conversations mixed with their mother tongue. Furthermore, their interaction tends to be minimal, focusing only on completing the task, as students are unable to ask follow-up questions or encourage their partners to continue (Naughton, 2006). Jacobs (1998) reported that in pair and group work, learners often resort to their native language or engage in limited exchange of ideas. Unfortunately, little progress has been made in promoting effective small group interaction since the late 1990s, resulting in unnatural conversational exchanges that lack mutual engagement and satisfaction, deviating from real-life interaction. However, encountering challenges in interaction does not mean that peer interaction should be abandoned. Instead, it is crucial to create a classroom environment that encourages interaction models conducive to foreign language development (Naughton, 2006). Therefore, establishing such an environment plays a significant role in enhancing interaction among learners. As the importance of interaction continues to grow in SLA theory and pedagogy, interactionist research must explore ways to apply interaction most effectively to maximize the benefits for L2 learners in terms of language growth and communication skills (Loewen & Sato, 2018).

To address the problems related to the lack of native-like, natural, and interactive communication between learners, the teaching of communication/interaction strategies is recommended. Interactional strategies are believed to promote beneficial cognitive processing and collaboration, although the relationship between cognitive processing,

collaboration, and these interaction strategies remains unclear (Sato & Viveros, 2016). Numerous studies have shown the benefits of interaction for language learning (see Brown, 2016; Li, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Ziegler, 2016 for meta-analyses). While some studies have highlighted the facilitating effect of interaction on second language learning, research on the effects of metacognitive instruction on the use of interactional features is relatively limited (Fuji et al., 2016). Watanabe and Swain (2007) argue that previous studies primarily focused on the quantitative aspects of interaction, overlooking the social nature of communication. Similarly, Fang et al. (2018) point out that most studies on communication / interactional strategy training treat the use of communication strategies as an individual act, neglecting the social constructivist nature of communication. Furthermore, previous research has primarily examined the effectiveness of strategy training by quantifying strategy use (Kim & McDonough, 2011; Sato & Lyster, 2012).

Numerous research studies advocate the positive impact of interaction on language learning (e.g., Garcia Mayo & Pica, 2000; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Long, 1996; Sato, 2017). Alongside the recognition of the positive relationship between interaction and L2 development, several factors influencing this impact have been investigated. Research on interaction has focused on interlocutors (their L1 status, L2 proficiency, and gender), task features (such as complexity or type), linguistic goals, and interactional context (such as setting and modality) (Loewen & Sato, 2018). Despite the extensive research on meaning negotiation, there are very few studies that have examined the patterns of interaction that emerge when students engage in peer interaction without teacher assistance (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). Previous research on peer interaction and interaction patterns has primarily focused on proficiency (Dao & McDonough, 2018; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Leeser, 2004; Storch & Aldosari, 2013; Watanabe & Swain, 2007), age (Kos, 2019), mode of communication (face-to-face and computer-mediated interaction) (Li & Zhu, 2013; Rouhshad & Storch, 2016; Tan et al., 2010; Zeng, 2017), and task modality (Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; Payant & Kim, 2017).

The literature on interactional strategy training has shown the positive effects of strategy training on learner interaction (Bejarano et al., 1997; Benson et al., 2013; Dao, 2020; Fuji et al., 2016; Naughton, 2006; Sato, 2013; Xu & Kou, 2011). While research has shed light on how interactional strategies support L2 learning, interaction, and communication, their impact on interactional patterns has not been thoroughly explored. Sato (2017) highlights the need for experimental research on social relationships and developmental outcomes. However, to the best of my knowledge, no studies have investigated the impact of teaching interactional strategies on learners' pair dynamics and interaction patterns as defined in Storch (2002). This study aims to fill this gap by examining the effectiveness of teaching interaction strategies on learners' pair dynamics and collaborative behaviors. Furthermore, previous strategy training studies have primarily used pre- and post-tests to assess the efficacy of the training, but it remains uncertain whether pairs can maintain a collaborative interaction pattern over time (Chen, 2018). Fuji et al. (2016) suggest that long-term interventions with multiple sessions may have greater effects on learners and result in higher retention rates, considering the potential impact of even short-term treatment on learner interaction. Therefore, this study also aims to contribute to this line of research by investigating the long-term effectiveness of interactional strategy training through a delayed posttest.

### **Aim and Significance of the Study**

The main objective of the present study is to explore the effectiveness of introducing interactional strategies on interaction patterns in peer interaction. In the literature, peer dialog has been considered from the perspective of interaction and culture. As mentioned in Dobao (2016), the interactionist view focuses on how dyads negotiate in meaning applying interactional features such as feedback, peer repair, and requests. The socioculturalist view, on the other hand, draws attention to how pairs collaborate and scaffold each other to resolve language-related problems. This study mainly adopts the interactionist view without neglecting the socioculturalist view as these two perspectives

complement each other in shaping healthy collaborative dialog. In that, the active role of individuals, as well as the role of social interactions, and shared practices in shaping individuals' understanding and collaborative processes were explored in the present study.

As noted earlier, research has focused on the effectiveness of strategy instruction or has explored the strategies by quantifying the number of strategies explored by learners. Although the literature on interaction focuses on the impact of interaction on grammatical aspects of the L2, there is also a shift toward recognizing the role of the social environment in interaction (Gass & Mackey, 2015). When individually focused, interactional and sociocultural perspectives have limitations on data analysis and researchers' ability to understand the findings. Therefore, researchers studying peer interaction have recently begun to combine social and cognitive techniques for data analysis (Sato & Ballinger 2016). The present study is significant in that it attempts to contribute to this line of research by scrutinizing the sociocultural effectiveness of interactional strategies. Since there is a scarcity of empirical studies on the effectiveness of introducing interactional features on interactional patterns in the language classroom, this study aims to make a unique contribution to the existing literature by combining the study of the effectiveness of interactional strategies with the study of pair dynamics. Doing so, this study aims to provide data on the effects of using interactional strategies in the Turkish classroom context by providing a practical framework for EFL context where research is lacking. This study also aims to contribute to the literature by providing useful implications and practical evidence, and by contributing to our understanding of how and to what extent classroom interactional training could help students apply interactional strategies and improve interaction toward a more collaborative end.

In addition to integrating a sociocultural perspective to interactional strategy research, this study utilizes a delayed post-test in conjunction with pre-tests and post-tests. By examining retention rates, the study aims to gain insights into the long-term effects of interactional strategy training and its influence on learners' interaction patterns.

## **Research Questions**

This quasi-experimental study sought to investigate the effect of interactional strategy training on dyadic interactions of learners. The impact of interactional strategy intervention on the participants' interaction patterns were explored to find out if the training leads learners to shift from non-collaborative to collaborative interaction while performing pair-tasks. To this end, the present study attempted to address the following research questions:

1. What interaction patterns are formed by the dyads in the experimental and control groups across three testing times (pre-task post-task and delayed post-task)?
2. Does the interactional strategy training have any immediate and long-term impact on the patterns of interaction in pair work?
3. With what frequency do the participants use interactional strategies before the training after the training and eight weeks after the training?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the interactional strategy use of the participants in experimental and control groups in three testing times?
5. Is there a relationship between the strategy use of the dyads and their interaction patterns?
6. How do the participants receiving strategy training perceive the effectiveness of interactional strategy training in enhancing their collaboration?

## **Assumptions**

The present study was conducted under the assumptions that the participants participate in the pre, post and delayed post tasks as they usually do in their regular class time without any fear of grading or bias. Second, the participants would respond to the self-evaluation forms and interview questions honestly. Lastly, it is assumed that the participants in the control and experimental group are not involved in any other language related activity

other than their regular classroom instruction and the extracurricular language related activities they mentioned in the background questionnaire.

### **Limitations**

The present study is confined to some areas. In this part general limitations are mentioned. The theoretical, methodological and practical constraints together with related suggestions are discussed under the title “The Constraints and Suggestions for Further Research”.

Firstly, it is important to note that the population of this study is limited to a relatively small sample size of 28 students. This qualitative nature of the research design necessitates a smaller participant group. However, this smaller sample size may restrict the generalizability of the findings and the ability to make robust claims that encompass a broader population. Although the study provides valuable insights into the effectiveness of interactional strategies within this specific context, caution should be exercised when extrapolating the results to a larger population.

Secondly, an inherent limitation arises from the fact that the lesson plans and materials used in the study are fully prepared and provided by the teacher. While this approach ensures that students are adequately informed about the specific interactional strategies selected by the researcher, it also introduces a potential limitation. By prescribing and predefining the interactional features to be used, the students' freedom to naturally explore and employ a wider range of interactional strategies may be somewhat constrained. Consequently, the study may not capture the full spectrum of interactional possibilities that would emerge in a more authentic, unguided communicative setting. However, this limitation is acknowledged and mitigated by the controlled environment of the study, which allows for a focused investigation into the targeted interactional strategies and their impact on peer interaction dynamics.



Additionally, the duration of the study presents certain constraints and limitations. Given the time constraints, it becomes more challenging to control and account for all the variables that might affect the patterns of interaction. Over the course of the study, learners naturally acquire more proficiency in the target language, which could potentially impact their collaborative behaviors. However, the study's limited timeframe may prevent a comprehensive examination of the long-term effects and development of interaction patterns, as other external factors may come into play.

## **Definitions**

Operational definitions of some terms and expressions, which are usually referred in this study are as follows:

*Peer interaction:* peer interaction in the present study refers to the oral interaction among students in the classroom while doing tasks.

*Interactional strategies:* Interactional strategies comprise of a series of approaches that both listeners and speakers modify to make the desired meaning easier to understand. The strategies posit importance because they are key to maintain the conversation fluency without many communication breakdowns (Bejarano, et al., 1997).

*Interactional strategy moves/ expressions / phrases:* In the literature, the specific pre-determined phrases under each strategy is referred as interactional moves, interactional expressions, and interactional phrases. For instance, "I mean" is an interactional move / phrase / expression for the strategy "offering clarification". These terms are used in this study interchangeably.

*Patterns of interaction:* Patterns of interaction in the present study defines the relationship between dyads during pair interaction based on mutuality and equality. They are often referred to as power dynamics within interpersonal relationships or social interactions. These dynamics describe the distribution or imbalance of power and influence between individuals or groups.

*Collaboration:* collaboration refers to the process of learners working on a task by communicating ideas, negotiating meaning, giving and receiving help and feedback, and reaching a joint understanding.

*Communication / interactional strategies:* In academic discourse, the terms "communication strategies" and "interactional strategies" carry different meanings. Communication strategies encompass a wide array of techniques that address various aspects of managing communication, while interactional strategies specifically concentrate on the social and interactive dimensions of communication. However, these terms are often employed interchangeably in scholarly literature. In the present study, the focus primarily lies on interactional strategies, but the term "communication strategies" is also utilized when referenced in the cited studies in a similar context.

## Chapter 2

### Theoretical Basis of Research and Literature Review

Speaking and interaction assume a pivotal role in foreign language learning and acquisition. They provide learners with authentic opportunities to employ the target language in meaningful communicative contexts. Engaging in conversations facilitates the development of oral proficiency, fluency, and accurate pronunciation, thereby enabling learners to effectively communicate with both native speakers and language learners. Having held such benefits, among the four language skills, speaking is considered the most challenging (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Zhang, 2009), particularly due to its distinct features and conventions compared to written language (Goh & Burns, 2012; Thornbury, 2012). Moreover, the interactive aspect of speaking further amplifies its demands, as it requires real-time communication, negotiation of meaning, and immediate response to interlocutors. Arguing that even advanced learners, who have a high degree of command on vocabulary and grammar struggle in face to face interaction and cannot easily transfer their knowledge, which impacts their fluency (Thornbury, 2012). For this reason, learners need opportunities for interaction to improve their skills, and peer interaction stands out as it is one of the few ways non-native learners can practice interactive speaking.

#### Peer Interaction

Peer interaction can be described as "any communicative activity carried out between learners, where there is minimal or no participation from the teacher" (Philp et al., 2014, p.3). Peer interaction has long been employed in language classrooms (Fernández Dobao, 2016) because it is believed to be beneficial for language learning for a variety of reasons. First, peer engagement aids in the development of L2 (Sato, 2017) as interaction and negotiation of meaning is crucial for L2 development (Garcia Mayo & Pica, 2000). By interacting, learners' attention is attracted to certain aspects of language, with the potential outcome that these aspects will be included in a learner's growing linguistic system (Gass

& Selinker, 2008). Through focused attention, the effort to negotiate in meaning, in company with interactional modifications used in the process, help enhance L2 development. A study by Pica et. al., (1987) has put forth that interactional modifications not only promote L2 acquisition as argued by Long (1995), but they also enhance L2 comprehension. In their study with two groups, one group was allowed to interact with a script reader who gives directions to complete the task, while the other was not while completing a task. The participants who were allowed to interact with the script reader, showed better task performance with greater interaction moves such as clarification requests, comprehension checks etc. than the participants who were not allowed to interact with the script reader. Based on this finding, it can be highlighted that interaction and interaction strategies improves understanding during task completion, which leads to better task performance.

Considering the nature of peer interaction, it is evident that it offers valuable prospects for L2 input, feedback, and production. This characteristic renders peer interaction well-suited for crowded EFL classrooms and contexts with limited access to both native speaker (NS) instructors and L2 input (Garcia Mayo & Pica, 2000). In such educational settings, whole-class interaction with teachers often falls short in terms of allocated time, particularly when it comes to providing feedback and promoting production, given the limited average time allocated per student. Long and Porter (1985) argue that student talking time significantly increases when learners engage in pair and group work, as they are afforded more opportunities to actively practice their L2 skills. This highlights the potential of peer interaction to address the time constraints inherent in whole-class instruction, allowing learners to engage in meaningful exchanges and extensive language practice. Moreover, studies comparing teacher-student interaction to peer interaction consistently demonstrate that learners employ a broader range of interactional strategies during peer interaction (Fernández Dobao, 2012; Pica et al., 1996; Toth, 2008). In contrast to teacher-student interaction, which adheres to predetermined time limits and constraints, peer interaction permits interlocutors to utilize the entire allocated speaking time, facilitating

prolonged and more fruitful exchanges. Learners exhibit awareness of these advantages, as indicated by Dobao's (2016) findings that students prefer working in pairs rather than large groups due to the increased opportunities for language practice.

By capitalizing on the benefits of peer interaction, learners can avail themselves of extended practice sessions, enhanced utilization of interactional strategies, and a heightened focus on L2 production. This not only addresses the time limitations associated with whole-class instruction but also aligns with learners' inclination for active and purposeful language practice. In the context of crowded EFL classrooms and situations where access to NS instructors and L2 input is constrained, peer interaction emerges as a valuable avenue for promoting language learning and fostering skill development.

One advantage of peer interaction is that it creates an environment of authentic interaction as much as possible in foreign language contexts (Garcia Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; Philp & Tognini, 2009). Peer interaction increases the effectiveness of teacher-directed interaction by providing a setting for practice and meaningful use of the L2 as well as more opportunities for individual practice (Philp et al., 2010). As an important component of Communicative Language Learning, pair and group work can increase learners' motivation, increase their chances of receiving more input from learners, produce more language, and become more fluent (Richards, 2005).

In discussing the merits of peer interaction, its comparison with interaction between native speakers (NS) and learners might be helpful in understanding its strengths. Peer interaction and learner-native speaker interaction differ in four aspects of interaction: "input modifications, corrective feedback, modified output, and self-initiated modified output" (Sato & Ballinger 2016, p.2). Unlike interaction with native speakers or educational experts, peer interaction provides learning opportunities that are qualitatively and quantitatively different. Interaction between students has been shown to have greater benefits for student learning compared to engagement with native English speakers (Sato & Viveros, 2016).

Among the above aspects of interaction that show differences in peers and native speakers, the provision of feedback stands out for several reasons. First, peer interaction has certain advantages over interaction between NS-learner interaction regarding the provision of feedback. Although the quality of feedback from NS with more syntactical and lexical input is better, learners in peer interaction focus more on formal aspects, tend to solve language-related problems, and offer quantitatively more input and output (Sato & Ballinger 2016). In addition, learners engaging in peer interaction tend to provide more feedback than learners who interact with native speakers in the event of a communication breakdown (Pica, 1996). For example, Sato and Lyster (2007) found that learners in peer interaction provided more effective feedback (e.g., in the form of prompts), which led them to change their grammatically incorrect utterances to a greater extent. Studies have also shown that learners interacting with L2 peers are more likely to respond to feedback by reformulating their original utterances (modified output) than when interacting with L1 speakers (Loewen & Sato, 2018). This indicates that the chances of modified output increase when interacting with peers.

Through peer interaction, learners do not only respond to feedback and modify their speech, but also correct themselves in absence of feedback. Self-correction shows that learners are testing their hypotheses about language during production (Gass & Selinker, 2008). During the interaction, they likely become aware of problematic utterances after they have produced the language and correct or modify their utterances. Research has shown that learners are more likely to self-correct when interacting with peers than when interacting with native speakers (see Sato, 2007; Shehadeh, 2001). Interaction with peers also offers ideal conditions for output and L2 acquisition, as learners more actively negotiate for meaning and correct themselves than with native speakers (Sato and Lyster, 2012).

In addition to the interactional benefits, one of the psycholinguistic benefits of peer engagement is that more time is available for processing information and output, leading to more frequent feedback and practice opportunities (Loewen & Sato, 2018). Given learners'

limited language resources, we can assume that language production in peer interaction is also limited. However, in terms of output production, learner-learner interaction was found to be unconstrained compared to Learner-Ns speaker interaction, suggesting that learner interaction provides as many opportunities for modified output (Garcia Mayo & Pica, 2000).

Apart from its interactional and psycholinguistic strengths, peer engagement also has some psychological advantages. Compared to student-teacher interaction, research has not fully elucidated why students make more interactional moves when interacting with peers, but there is some evidence that students feel more at ease when interacting with peers than with their teachers (Sato & Ballinger 2016). It is observed that learners sometimes feel anxious when trying to speak in a foreign language because they are shy or afraid of making mistakes. However, they may feel more comfortable speaking with a peer because there is no power relationship between the interlocutors. Just as teachers are aware of learners' emotions, students are also aware of this. Accordingly, they stated that they prefer interacting with peers because it creates an environment where they feel comfortable and are less afraid of making mistakes (Sato, 2013). Tulung's study (2008) with undergraduate level students indicated that students who participated in peer interaction activities had higher levels of motivation than teacher-fronted classes, benefited from peer interaction, and felt more comfortable making mistakes.

Learners' well-being when interacting with peers helps learners in several ways. One notable benefit is that learners are more comfortable admitting when they don't understand something while conversing with their peers compared to when they interact with native speakers of the target language (Loewen & Sato, 2018; Sato & Ballinger, 2016). When learners interact with another learner, they are more likely to express their lack of understanding, which increases the possibility of negotiation. Second, compared to teacher-student and native-learner interaction, a higher degree of comfort in peer interaction may assist learners better identify and correct errors in their partners' utterances and correct their own errors when they receive feedback from peers (Loewen & Sato, 2018). Learners'

L2 processing is aided by this comfort level, as they find it easier to pick up on and correct their partners' errors when speaking (Sato & Ballinger 2016). Sato and Lyster (2007) showed an example of how L2 processing is affected by learners' comfort level. They found that learners feel overburdened and stressed when interacting with native speakers but feel they have more time to think about what they would say and how they would say it. As a result, learners may speak more during these interactions. In Sato's (2013) study, learners indicated that interacting with peers improved their speaking skills. Peer interaction is an effective way to improve speaking since a higher level of comfort will probably boost total language output, leading to additional opportunities for language practice (Loewen & Sato, 2018).

In addition to improving speaking skills, peer interaction has also been found to expand vocabulary knowledge (Sato, 2017). Students compensate for each other's lack of vocabulary during peer interaction, which increases the quantity of input and output in a mutually beneficial way. In this sense, learners get the opportunity to reorganize and expand their vocabulary through peer interaction through exposure to various sources of information, contextual exercises, and supplement each other's insufficient knowledge (Sato, 2017).

### **Theoretical Framework of the Study**

Two theories underlie the theoretical framework of the present study: *The Interaction Approach* and *Sociocultural Theory*. Although founder Michael Long (1985) originally referred to the concept as the *Interaction Hypothesis*, Gass and Mackey (2015) note that the concept could be considered as a model in that describes the processes that occur when learners receive information, engage with others, receive feedback, and generate output. They also consider it a theory because it attempts to explain how interaction and learning are related, and thus refer to the phenomenon as the Interaction Approach. The basic assumption of the Interaction Approach is that interaction enhances language learning



because learners receive more modified input and implicit/explicit feedback, which directs their attention to problematic areas of learners' interlanguage (Gass & Mackey, 2015). In the early version of the Interaction Approach, Long (1985) also emphasized the role of comprehensible input, as did Krashen (1982) in his *Input Hypothesis*, but focused more on the interactive nature of language acquisition. Based on his study of native-native and native-nonnative speakers' conversations, Long (1985) suggested that non-native conversations showed more instances of negotiation of meaning adjustments, which may benefit language acquisition. Later, Long (1996) began to emphasize the role of negotiation more strongly, claiming that negotiation of meaning is indispensable for language learning and acquisition. He puts forward his viewpoint with the following statement:

Environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, through negotiation for meaning (p.414).

With this statement, Long (1996) notes that input is processed by mechanisms by pointing to the role of attention and L2 processing capacity. Attention is an important mechanism thought to mediate input and learning. It is commonly acknowledged that second language learners are subjected to more input than they can comprehend, and that a mechanism such as attention is required to assist learners sort through huge volumes of data they receive (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Interactionists believe that the cognitive constructs of attention, awareness, and noticing are all elements of interaction-L2 learning process (Gass & Mackey, 2015). However, Tan et al., (2010) argue that hypotheses such as noticing and focused attention are not sufficient to fully account for the role of social interaction in foreign language acquisition. As Long (1996) also points out in his quote above, attention is a crucial mediator, but the process of negotiation is at the heart of the Interaction Approach.

Negotiation of meaning is defined as the process interlocutors go through when faced with a communication breakdown (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). When a communication

breakdown occurs, a variety of strategies are used to negotiate meaning in order to achieve better communication (Ellis, 2005). Gass and Selinker (2008) draw an analogy between negotiation of meaning and "equal footing" In this process, both parties to a conversation maintain the same path, exchange information properly and get back on track when one or both parties slip (p.318). To be on the same path, learners constantly test hypotheses through interaction while creating language through negotiation and feedback (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

The *Interaction Approach* seeks to account for language acquisition through exposure to language, production, and feedback on output (Gass & Mackey, 2015). It is important to note that there is a cyclical relationship between these concepts. The definitions and relationship between each concept are discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

For interactionists, input is considered positive evidence, that is, information that shows what is possible within a language (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Interaction researchers are most interested in naturalistic, pre-modified, and particularly interactionally modified input that learners receive (Loewen & Sato, 2018). As seen in the previous statement, modified input is a term commonly referred in this hypothesis. Modified input is used to describe the language directed to interlocutors. In this regard, speakers modify their speech with the goal of making their talk comprehensible for the listener (Gass & Mackey, 2015). When the input is not understood, the interlocutor, after receiving feedback, modifies his or her original utterance to make it more understandable. In summary, it is presumed that input coupled with negative evidence received during the interaction is necessary for acquisition to occur (Gass & Mackey, 2015).

The process of learning through interaction does not seem to be complete without output. The language that is generated by learners during meaning-focused interaction is referred to as output (Loewen & Sato, 2018). Previously, output was known only as the expression of preexisting knowledge. It was not assumed that output could be a way to

create knowledge about a language (Gass and Selinker, 2008). In this regard, language production serves as a means to test hypotheses about the language produced, improve automaticity in output, and lead learners to construct more target-like output (Gass & Mackey, 2015).

Similar to the *Interaction Hypothesis*, Swain's *Output Hypothesis* (1985) also suggests that learners' L2 output enhances noticing and intake of L2. Swain argues that unlike native speakers, input alone is not sufficient to successfully produce a language. She underlines that learners actually need production opportunities because only then do they become aware of their language deficits. Output Hypothesis emphasizes that output drives learners to process language syntactically, which in turn enhances L2 development. Although such syntactic analysis rarely occurs in input comprehension, language production leads learners to perceive forms necessary to convey their intended messages (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000).

Looking at the path from input to output, feedback seems to be essential for the communication that leads to successful language learning. Interactional feedback informs students how successful or unsuccessful their utterances are and provides them with the opportunity to concentrate on production and comprehension (Gass & Selinker, 2008). By means of interactional feedback, interlocutors are provided with negative evidence, in other words, information about the correctness of an utterance (Gass & Mackey, 2015). After the production of an initially erroneous utterance and getting feedback about its incomprehensibility in the form of a clarification request, the speaker adjusts his or her linguistic output by reformulating the utterance in a more target-like manner, which results in improved understanding (Gass & Mackey, 2015).

Although the *Interaction Approach* covers a range of elements of negotiation of meaning, it excludes broader social elements such as emotion, subjectivity, and power relations (Chang, 2015). *Interaction Approach* receives criticisms in that it fails to take into account the sociocultural context in which learning takes place (Gass & Mackey, 2015). For

this reason, *Sociocultural Theory*, which can better connect interaction and social context, provides the theoretical framework for the present study. Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory accepts language as a tool to mediate between interlocutors and considers social interaction as the basis of all cognitive processes, which include those concerned in language. Rather than occurring as a consequence of interaction, acquisition actually takes place in interaction, and therefore cannot be viewed as a purely individual process, but a shared process between the self and other people (Ellis, 2009). The sociocultural approach assumes that social contact helps interlocutors shape their cognitive processes so that they can jointly construct their knowledge of the L2 (Lantolf, 2000). The sociocultural perspective assumes that the source of knowledge construction lies not in the mind of the individual, but in the social interaction between two people, one of whom has more knowledge than the other (Lantolf, 2008). Accordingly, Vygotsky (1978) denotes that learning as a mediated process begins as a social interaction between the child and more experienced members of society, such as parents, teachers, and peers, and then becomes an individual process as a result of linguistically mediated interaction. Vygotsky (1978) argues that learning creates a zone of proximal development, that is, a set of internal developmental processes that can only be activated when children are actively involved in social interactions and collaboration with peers. Once internalized, these processes become part of the child's self-directed developmental effort. Viewed through the lens of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), the presence of a more knowledgeable other facilitates the learning process as learners expand their knowledge through interaction and, in particular, through the help of a more capable teacher or peer (Vygotsky, 1978).

The close relationship between peer interaction, interaction roles, and the concepts of ZPD and scaffolding is evident. Naughton (2006) explains that learners are viewed as "mutual scaffolders", who provide and receive support during their interactions with peers (p.170). When learners work together, they are able to help each other improve their own performance to a higher level than what they could have achieved on their own (Ohta, 2001;

Swain, 2000). Sato & Ballinger (2016) argue that while ZPD in its original form is primarily about support from a more competent speaker, peer support has also been rationalized in that even less competent learners could provide support during peer interaction. Research on peer interaction and scaffolding has led to the expansion of the idea of scaffolding from one-directional assistance from an expert to a beginner to one that provides a chance for learning and growth for all learners (Swain & Watanabe, 2012). Based on the research findings, it is important to emphasize that a competency difference or an expert/novice relationship is not a prerequisite for learners to develop certain skills. Peers could mutually benefit from each other and build their knowledge despite the above-mentioned differences (Storch, 2001; Watanabe, 2008).

Two concepts that hold great significance in *Sociocultural Theory* are the notions of *Languaging* and *Collaborative Dialogue*, which provide valuable insights into language learning within a social context. Languaging refers to the process of meaning-making and knowledge construction through language (Swain, 2006, p. 98). Collaborative dialogue, on the other hand, entails a collective effort in problem-solving and knowledge-building (Swain, 2000). At its core, it involves the use of language to facilitate language learning itself (Swain, 2000, p. 97). Swain and Watanabe (2012) argue that collaborative dialogue among peers plays a crucial role in supporting second language (L2) learning. Research on collaborative dialogue often focuses on Language Related Episodes (LREs), which will be elaborated on in the following paragraph.

Learners can benefit from working with others through LREs, which could be defined as "any part of dialogue where the students talk about the language they produce, question their language use, or correct themselves or others" (Swain & Lapkin 1998, p.326). Peer interaction provides learners opportunities with collaborative dialogue for learners while they ask for or offer help to deal with language-related problems (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Studies to date have revealed the positive relationship between LREs and learning, especially for components such as grammar and vocabulary (see Kim, 2008; Swain &

Lapkin, 1998; Zeng & Takatsuka, 2009). LREs tend to occur in situations where learners work together to create a piece of written work rather than in meaning-oriented tasks that promote the exchange of ideas without much focus on form (Dobao, 2016). Because the tasks in the present study are meaning-oriented interactional tasks, the use of LREs is not investigated the way they are done in text production tasks.

### **Patterns of Interaction**

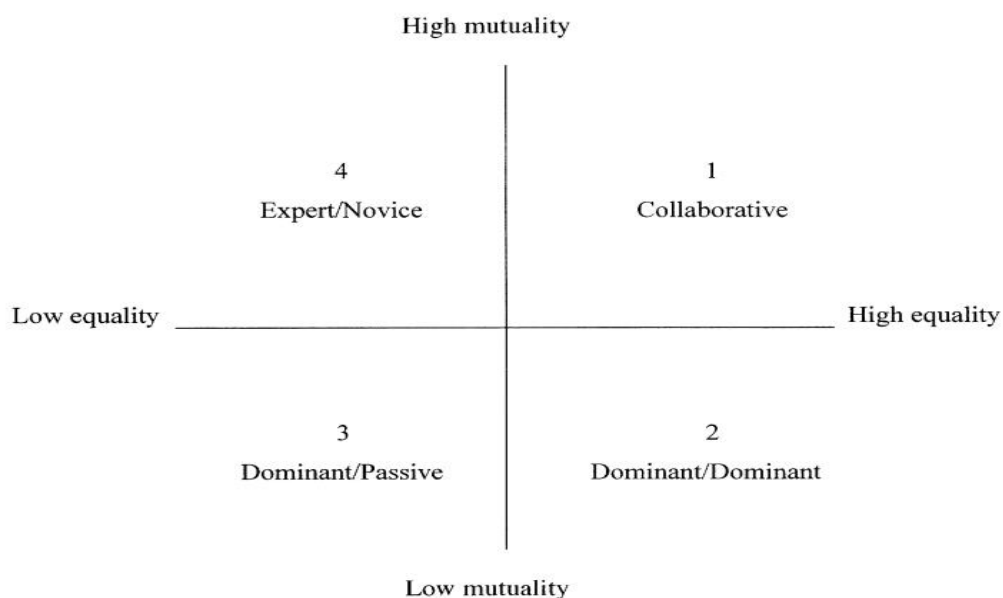
In the preceding section, we delved into the topic of peer interaction and its inherent advantages for language learning and speaking. Given this, one might posit that working in pairs alone would suffice to extract the utmost benefits from peer interaction activities. However, this assumption may not hold true, as research indicates that learners' ability to reap the rewards of peer interaction is heavily influenced by the social dynamics at play among peers (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). In other words, the social environment and the level of collaboration within the interaction significantly impact the extent of gains derived from peer interaction. Consequently, it becomes imperative to identify the nature of the interaction learners engage in during pair-work, as it serves as a crucial factor in comprehending the extent to which learners can harness the benefits of interaction.

In the realm of studying interaction patterns, there has been a gradual shift toward a more intricate framework, building upon the initial categorization proposed by Damon and Phelps (1989). Initially, Damon and Phelps (1989) identified three distinct types of peer interaction: tutoring, cooperating, and collaborating. Expanding upon this classification, Storch (2002) introduced a more comprehensive taxonomy comprising four patterns: dominant/dominant, dominant/passive, expert/novice, and collaborative. Figure 1 illustrates the model of dyadic interaction that encapsulates these patterns. Building on Damon and Phelps' (1989) work, Storch (2002) further distinguished two dimensions that aid in differentiating among the four patterns of dyadic interaction: equality and mutuality. Equality pertains to the degree of authority and control over a given task. It encompasses not only

an equal contribution and turn-taking among interlocutors but also an equitable distribution of task control as the interaction unfolds. Conversely, mutuality refers to the extent of active participation in the discourse. It signifies a dynamic exchange of opinions and the provision of continuous feedback between interlocutors (Damon & Phelps, 1989). While these two dimensions may bear similarities, they are distinct in nature. For instance, an interlocutor may exhibit equal participation in the discussion but display non-mutual behavior by disregarding or failing to engage with the opinions of their counterpart, thereby impeding the smooth flow of conversation.

### Figure 1

*A Model of Dyadic Interaction (Storch, 2002)*



Accepting mutuality and equality as high ends, Storch (2002) has introduced four patterns of dyadic interaction, namely a dominant/dominant, a dominant/passive, an expert/novice and a collaborative pattern. Each interaction pattern is located in a different quadrant and is characterized by certain features. These characteristics, which were identified by Storch (2002), were tabulated by Friginal et al. (2017) in Table 1.

As it is clarified by Storch (2002), the dominant/dominant pattern, which stands between the axis of high equality and the axis of low mutuality, refers to the type of

interaction in which both interlocutors are involved in the talk, but fail to reach mutual understanding through the exchange of opinions. Learners in the dominant/dominant pattern demonstrate a reluctance or inability to interact with the contributions of their partners' contributions (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Learners may also argue with each other and show an inability to reach agreement even though they are both involved in the decision-making process (Storch, 2001). It is difficult to reach consensus because each side insists on his/her own idea (Zheng, 2012). This pattern is also characterized by negative attitudes. Interlocutors may tease each other or show hostility from time to time (Storch, 2002).

**Table 1**

*Features in Storch's (2002) Patterns of Interaction Retrived from Friginal et al. (2017, p.205)*

Quadrant	Pattern	Characterized by	Features found in Storch (2002)'s data
I	Collaborative	Moderate to high equality Moderate to high mutuality	Repetition/extension of utterances Positive and negative feedback Requests for and provision of information
II	Dominant/ Dominant	Moderate to high equality Moderate to low mutuality	Few requests/collaborations Peer repairs given but not accepted Raised voices
III	Dominant/ Passive	Moderate to low equality Moderate to low mutuality	Dominant partner makes self-directed questions as opposed to questions for peer Little negotiation, because passive participant gives few contributions/challenges
IV	Expert/Novice	Moderate to low equality Moderate to high mutuality	Expert provides assistance that helps novice learn Expert does not impose view but rather provides explanations Novice accepts and repeats explanations Expert actively encourages novice to take part

The pattern labeled as "dominant/passive" stands between moderate to low mutuality and moderate to low equality. In this pattern, one of the interlocutors acts as an authority and dominates the interaction, while the other remains passive. Low mutuality



exists between the interlocutors because the passive side contributes little to the discussion, and the dominant side has little interest in sharing the floor (Storch, 2002). The dominant side does very little to engage the passive partner in the conversation (Zheng, 2012). While the dominant learner forms self-directed sentences, the passive learner usually contributes only through echoic repetitions (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Likewise, in Chen's (2018) study, it was found that the dominant learners ignored negotiation requests from their conversational partners and made the decisions on their own, which affected the quality of task performance.

The expert/novice pattern shows a dyadic interaction between a high mutuality and a low equality axis. In this pattern, one of the speakers acts as the dominant side because this interlocutor has clearly more control over the task than his/her conversational partner. However, the dominant speaker does not purposefully control the task because he/she helps the novice interlocutor to engage and participate in the conversation (Storch, 2002). Moreover, the expert dyad often tries to assist the novice learner with linguistic assistance (Dao, 2017) and helps the novice learn from interaction (Watanabe and Swain, 2007). Although the expert controls the conversation, he does not want to impose views on the partner (Storch, 2002). The expert provides instruction or scaffolding the novice. (Zheng, 2012). Although the novice learner does not contribute as much to the conversation as the expert, he is not as inactive as a passive side. The novice speaker participates by confirming sentences and repeating the expert's suggestions (Storch, 2002).

The collaborative pattern, which stands between a high mutuality axis and a high equality axis, indicates that the dyads interact both equally and mutually. More specifically, they contribute to the conversation through the exchange of ideas. The dyads request information from each other and provide information to each other; extend and develop ideas together; receive and give feedback during the talk; and come to a consensus at the end (Storch, 2002). In this pattern, learners work together to solve problems and track group progress (Zheng, 2012). Within this framework, Damon and Phelps (1989) describe peer

collaboration as the joint effort of peers in addressing a problem not individually but together. They argue that it leads to "an engagement rich in mutual discovery, reciprocal feedback, and frequent sharing of ideas" (p.13). Friginal et al. (2017) report in their analysis that both learners in collaborative pattern contribute to the generation of new ideas by demonstrating their shared authority over the activity and fully engaging with each other's thoughts. They respond critically and constructively to each other's ideas and arrive at solutions that satisfy both interlocutors (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). According to Galaczi (2008), collaborative pairs not only extend their topics (self-initiated topic) and ideas but also extend their partners' ideas (other-initiated topic); they develop topics through several turns with coherence and cohesion. In a collaborative interaction, we can observe listener support and involvement, use of follow-up questions, overlaps, and completion of utterances (Galaczi, 2008).

Watanabe and Swain (2007) extended Storch's (2002) framework and outlined an expert/passive pattern. Similar to the expert in the expert/novice pattern, the expert dyad acts as the skilled peer and encourages the addressee to take part in the conversation. However, the less skilled dyad reluctantly engages in the conversation. In Watanabe and Swain's study (2007) even though the expert kept encouraging the less skilled passive participant, the passive participant's engagement decreased over time as he felt intimidated and became unwilling to speak in front of the expert. After Watanabe and Swain (2007), expert / passive pattern was identified in several studies; for instance, in a recent study, Kos (2019) characterized the pattern providing additional features. Kos (2019) reported that the expert tried to encourage the passive interlocutor, provided explanations, offered implicit feedback, and even translated words into L1 with follow-up questions. The passive partner's contribution, on the other hand, was limited to short answers and brief guesses without any justification.

In their study examining dyadic interaction in computer-mediated interaction (CMC), Tan et al. (2010) identified another pattern referred to as "cooperative" In their analysis of

learners' conversations, they found pairs who seemed to contribute equally to the conversation but did not engage with what the other was saying. Instead, they directed their attention on constructing or correcting their own utterances. The interlocutors did not initiate discussions or ask questions about their sentences. The cooperative pattern, which was found parallel the collaborative pattern, was identified only in computer-mediated communication (Tan et al., 2010).

The studies on the patterns of interaction have mainly emphasized the virtue of the collaborative pattern over the others. Storch (2002) categorized collaborative and expert/novice as collaborative orientations, while she labeled the dominant/passive and dominant/dominant patterns as non-collaborative patterns. It has been demonstrated that interaction between learners in collaborative and expert/novice patterns shows more knowledge transfer and learner uptake (Storch, 2002; Storch, 2009; Watanabe & Swain, 2007; Storch & Aldosari, 2012). Watanabe and Swain (2007) share this view and point out a factor that may affect the generalizability of the argument. In contrast to the finding that both the expert/novice pattern and the collaborative pattern are more beneficial for learning L2, Watanabe and Swain (2007) found that only learners in the collaborative pattern improve when there is a performance difference between interlocutors. In the expert/novice pattern, only the expert receives higher scores than learners in the other patterns. This indicates that the novice may not benefit as much from the interaction as the expert. Drawing from this, it can be concluded that collaborative interaction is the one that is most conducive to learning for both learners in peer interaction.

The performance of a collaborative pair also differs markedly from other patterns in speaking tests. For example, Galaczi (2008) investigated the interaction patterns of participants taking a speaking test, comparing interaction and speaking test scores, and found a strong relationship between interaction patterns and speaking performance. More specifically, it was found that learners working in collaborative patterns scored higher on the speaking test. Based on the results of the study, Galaczi (2008) stated that learners'

conversational ability can be classified as low and high. Comparing the conversational ability with the interaction types, it could be argued that the dyads' conversational ability is high in the collaborative pair, while it is low in the parallel dyad. Based on this discussion, it seems that collaborative dialogue among peers is highly important to get the maximum benefit from an interaction.

### **Factors Affecting Interaction and Interaction Patterns**

The previous section has put forth that the degree of collaboration between interlocutors has an impact on language learning and learning outcomes. In order to understand how collaboration affects student learning and student performance, other factors need to be examined as they may also influence collaborative behavior in the interaction. Sato and Ballinger (2016) highlight that learners' proficiency levels, the degree of collaboration between the interlocutors, and the quality of feedback are major mediators of the effectiveness of student interaction.

Although some studies suggest that the relationship between the pairs is the dominant factor in determining interaction patterns (Storch, 2002; Storch & Aldosari, 2013; Watanabe & Swain, 2007), some found that proficiency level of the pairs also influence interaction patterns (Kim & McDonough, 2008; Kos, 2019; Leeser, 2004). Besides, some studies (see Choi & Iwashita, 2016; Sato & Viveros, 2016; Storch & Aldosari, 2013; Watanabe & Swain, 2007) have demonstrated that the level of collaboration and attitude toward the task are more important factors in determining learning outcomes than proficiency. Storch & Aldosari (2013) highlight that in addition to the proficiency levels of the interlocutors, the relationship between the pairs must also be considered in order to understand the link between proficiency and learning. Watanabe & Swain (2007) are worth mentioning as an example of such an attempt. In Watanabe & Swain's (2007) study, students were paired with students of varying levels of competency. The results showed that the degree of collaboration between pairs was a more important determinant of learning

outcomes than proficiency levels. It was also found that both high and low proficiency level students could learn from each other when they were paired. Interestingly, participants learned more when they interacted with lower-level learners than with higher-level learners. For this reason, while there is a possibility that low proficient learners could act shy and passive when interacting with a higher proficiency dyad, there is also a chance that they may exchange more ideas to achieve a common end, leading to more collaborative behavior on both sides. Not only a more knowledgeable expert such as a teacher, but also a peer, including a less proficient one, can act as a social mediator (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Sato & Viveros' (2016) findings, which indicated more collaborative moves in lower level groups, were also linked to the level of collaboration between pairs rather than their proficiency. These findings are important because they may promote the use of collaborative tasks in classrooms with students of different proficiency levels. Extending the focus, Tan et al. (2010) found that interaction patterns depend not only on learners' proficiency level, but also on the type of communication (computer vs. face-to-face), especially in terms of collaborative and cooperative patterns. Learners tend to act collaborative in a face-to-face interaction, whereas they become cooperative in a computer-mediated interaction. Tan et al. (2010) suggest that the low interaction in a computer-mediated classroom may be due to students' inexperience with online chat.

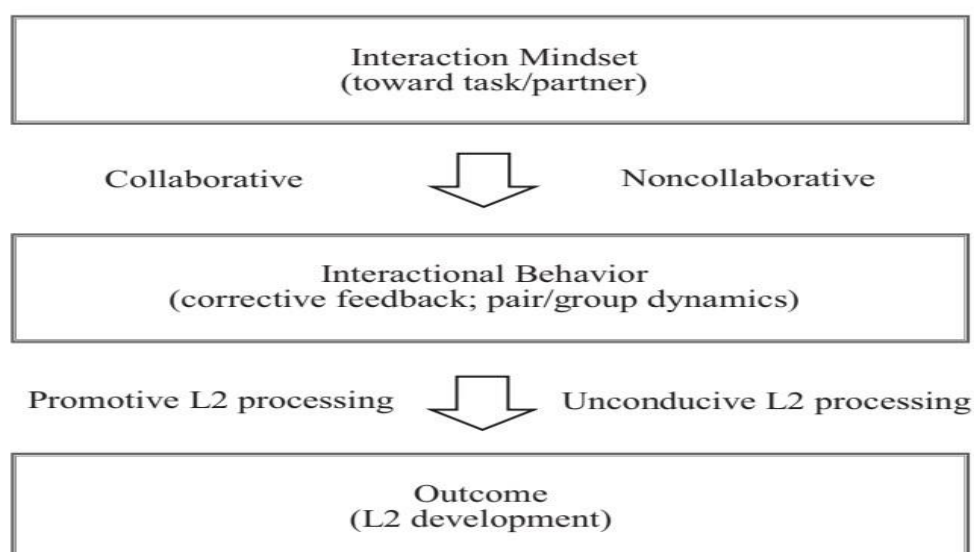
A learner's interactional behavior is often influenced by the amount of information they have (one-way vs. two-way) as well as how that information is conveyed during the interaction (divergent vs. convergent) (Loewen & Sato, 2018). Two-way tasks usually lead learners to be more because they require information exchange to complete the task. In addition, convergent tasks, which require learners to find a common solution, have been shown to promote negotiation of meaning during the task (Hendra & Jones, 2018).

Lastly, students' perceptions of peer interaction and the interactional pattern they form during interaction may influence L2 growth (Sato and Lyster, 2012) and peer interaction efficiency (Yoshida, 2008). For example, feedback may be overlooked,

unrecognized, or disregarded if learners do not trust in each other's language ability. Learner' perceptions of interaction and their partners were operationalized as "interaction mindset" by Sato and Viveros (2016). Drawing attention to the difference in learners' attitudes towards feedback in pair talk, their acceptance and correcting themselves, Sato & Viveros (2016) argue that perhaps the learners' collaborative mentality, which includes their willingness to listen to and embrace their peers' comments, had a role in the difference. Figure 2 shows the causal relationship between interaction mindset, learners' interactional behavior, and how these affect developmental outcomes. The amount to which students' cognitive processing is influenced by social interactions seems to be rooted at least in part in their interaction mindsets (Sato, 2017). The following year, Sato (2017) explored learners' interactional mindsets and found that learners with a collaborative mindset achieved higher learning outcomes than those in non-collaborative groups. Learners with a collaborative mindset were more likely to give, receive, and benefit from feedback. Sato explains this by saying that learners' interaction mindset toward pre-task interaction influenced the way they interacted with their peers during the activities, which determined the ultimate effectiveness of the interaction on L2 development (p.271).

### Figure 2

*An Affective-Social-Cognitive Model Of L2 Learning in Peer Interaction (Sato, 2017)*



## **Cultural Background as a Factor that Impact Peer Interaction**

Several factors can impact the degree of collaborativeness in peer interaction. Although not as pronounced as other factors like proficiency, age, and gender, the cultural background of learners may also influence their tendency towards interactional behaviors. Analyzing societal culture is critical for evaluating behaviors from a broader perspective. Geert Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions provides a model for cross-cultural communication, illustrating how a society's culture shapes the beliefs and behaviors of individuals. The theory examines the link between cultural values and human behavior. Initially, Hofstede and Bond (1984) categorized four dimensions that could affect behaviors, later expanded to six: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism-Collectivism, Masculinity-Femininity, Long-Short Term Orientation, and Indulgence-Restraint. Power distance and individualism-collectivism, discussed below, seem closely related to learners' behaviors in interactions.

Power distance, described in Hofstede and Bond (1984), refers to the degree to which individuals in a society or organization with less power accept and anticipate unequal power distributions. According to Hofstede's cultural dimensions, Turkey has a high score of 66 on the power distance dimension. This suggests that Turkish culture exhibits a strong dependence on hierarchy, making superiors difficult to access, and preferring a leadership style resembling a paternal figure. In education, power distance relates to the level of respect and authority given to teachers by students. In high power distance cultures, teachers are highly respected as the source of knowledge and wisdom, and students believe that their learning depends on the quality of teaching provided by their teachers (Nelson, 1997).

The second cultural dimension, individualism, refers to a social structure where individuals are expected to be self-sufficient and only responsible for themselves and their immediate family. In contrast, collectivism describes a social framework where individuals are expected to be loyal to the group, typically their family or community, in exchange for

support and protection. This dimension reflects whether people define themselves as individuals or as part of a collective group (Hofstede & Bond, 1984). In individualist cultures, personal goals take priority over collective goals, and individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families while pursuing individual achievements. However, group membership still holds importance, albeit more based on personal choice. Collectivists belong to fewer groups, but these groups define their identity and provide a sense of purpose. Unlike individualists, collectivists tend to maintain long-term relationships within the same groups to ensure harmony among members (Nelson, 1997). This tendency also impacts the educational setting.

Cultural background can affect learners' participation and collaboration as it significantly influences their attitudes towards peer collaboration and engagement in collaborative problem-solving activities (Popov et al., 2019). Research has found that individuals from collectivist cultural traditions, such as Asian, African, and Hispanic Americans, tend to display more cooperative behaviors compared to those from individualist cultural traditions, such as European Americans. This has been observed in group tasks where participants have the option to compete or cooperate (Cox et al., 1991). In the United States, writing groups typically focus on individual writers' benefits, whereas in collectivist cultures, group harmony and cohesion take precedence. As a result, East Asian students may exhibit behaviors in writing groups that differ from expectations in the United States, prioritizing group harmony and mutual face-saving (Nelson, 1997). Turkey, with a score of 37 in the individuality dimension, is also a collectivist country where these behaviors are likely to be observed in the interactions of Turkish students.

Culture can also impact attitudes towards feedback and the rate of participation. While learner attitudes towards corrective feedback (CF) are generally positive regardless of context, research indicates that the degree of positivity towards CF may vary among learners from different cultural backgrounds (Sato, 2013). Koreans tend to use indirect communication more frequently than US Americans and display more hesitation and fewer



nonverbal cues (Merkin, 2009). Similarly, Hodkinson and Poropat (2014) found that Chinese students were less likely to participate in classroom discussions compared to their Western peers, and when they did participate, they tended to use indirect language and avoid disagreement. Overall, people from different cultures may have distinct communication styles and preferences, which can lead to misunderstandings or difficulties in effective collaboration. Cultural values and norms can influence how individuals approach group work and their willingness to take on specific roles within a collaborative setting. Therefore, it is crucial to be aware of these cultural differences and approach collaboration with an open mind and a willingness to adapt to diverse communication styles.

### **Communication and Interactional Strategies**

Communicative competence involves becoming aware of ways (strategies) to keep communication going even when one's ability to communicate in the target language is limited (Richards, 2005). Observing efforts to compensate for limited linguistic capacity, and the results to which this leads, has opened a new perspective on language and speech. After recognizing that the gaps between second language learners' linguistic knowledge and communicative goals gave rise to a variety of systematic language processes, the idea of communication strategies (CSs) was proposed in the early 1970s (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

Pointing first to the traditional view, Different views on communication strategies were highlighted by Dörnyei and Scott (1997), which considers the use of CSs as a tool to fill linguistic gaps in the speaker's L2. CSs. According to the traditional view, CSs are a subset of L2 problem-management activities that address language production problems that arise during the preparation phase. They are viewed as distinct from strategies for negotiation of meaning because for traditionalists, the purpose of CSs is to solve problems that occurs during speech production.

Corder's definition of CSs (1981), which is "a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his [or her] meaning when faced with some difficulty" (p.10), gives a clear picture of the above given perspective on communication strategies. In line with this perspective, two criteria that are assumed to constitute CSs dominate the literature in the conceptualization of CSs: Problem-orientedness and consciousness. Problem-orientedness is a feature that characterizes the use of strategies. It refers to the view that strategies are used when an interlocutor believes that there is a problem that may disrupt communication (Bialystok, 1990). In cases where a learner is unable to apply the knowledge necessary to attain his or her communicative goal due to his or her limited linguistic knowledge, the learner is challenged with a communication "issue" that necessitates the application of a certain strategic move (Faerch & Kasper, 1984). Consciousness, on the other hand, refers to being aware of using language strategically. An awareness of a problem is required before a problem can be perceived (Poulisse, 1993).

Although these concepts are central to CSs, some scholars consider them insufficient to provide a complete picture of communication strategies. Chang (2015), for example, argues that problem-orientedness (problematicity) and consciousness are heavily criticized for their empirical validity, suggesting that problematicity and awareness may not be the core elements that best define CSs. The assumptions that CSs are only used when there is a problem and that L2 speech is inherently flawed are some of the serious concerns that raise questions. Poulisse (1993) also emphasizes that consciousness is not a simple concept that can be used as a definitional criterion. For example, rather than saying that strategies are employed consciously or unconsciously, it is more accurate to say that they are utilized more or less consciously. Furthermore, consciousness is changeable, meaning that strategies that are initially used consciously can later become automated (p.159). Confusion also exists regarding the state in which consciousness take place (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). Chang (2015) raises some questions about the detection and validation of the

level of consciousness. In short, for the above reasons, there is a need to understand whether consciousness as a criterion defines communication strategies.

Apart from the traditional view of CSs, the interactional perspective has emerged to effect a change in the way we perceive communication. Poulisse (1993) notes that Fearch and Kasper (1984) explicitly limit the term CSs to cases where the speaker is trying to solve a linguistic problem, whereas Bialystok's (1990) definition includes all efforts to achieve a communication goal, regardless of whether the interlocutor encounters problems or not. According to Dörnyei and Scott (1997), Tarone's (1980) conceptualization of CSs strategies brought an interactional perspective to CSs. His conceptualization of CSs views communication strategies as tools in a collaborative meaning negotiation, in which both interactants attempt to come to an agreement on a communicative goal. This perspective has been echoed in succeeding literary work. For instance, Canale's definition of CS (1983) as a means to "enhance the effectiveness of communication" (p.11) takes the view to CSs one step further by going beyond the problem-oriented use of CSs. Accordingly, CSs are seen not only as tools needed when a problem emerges during communication, but also as a means to keep the conversation going. Similarly, Yule and Tarone (1990) claim that CSs are needed during speech not only when a communication problem arises, but also when the speaker is trying to find the best way to communicate his or her ideas. They posit that linguistic resources can vary and are determined by the speaker's linguistic resources but are also determined by the speaker's perspective and ability to evaluate what knowledge the interlocutor has. In the course of communication, CSs are essential mediators as they function as mediators of speech continuity and progress, not just as problem-solving methods (Chang, 2015). In light of the above discussion, the present study adopts the second view. The interaction strategies to be introduced in this study are considered not only as a means of solving communication problems, but also as a means of improving speaking and peer interaction.

## Definition of Interactional Strategies

Several definitions and taxonomies of communication strategies have been provided by researchers to date (see Bialystok, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1977). Among these, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) introduced one of the most comprehensive taxonomies of communication strategies (see Figure 3 for communication strategies). This taxonomy is significant in that it includes interactional strategies as a distinct category. Communication strategies are either not presented at all or are listed under different subcategories, making it difficult to distinguish between communication strategies and interaction strategies.

Among the many communication strategies that pursue a wide range of purposes, the present study addresses the use and teaching of interactional strategies. Through interactional strategies, dyads "carry out trouble-shooting exchanges cooperatively, and therefore mutual understanding is a function of the successful execution of both pair parts of the exchange" (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997, p. 199). Interactional strategies are utilized for the negotiation of meaning and the manipulation of conversation (Littlemore, 2003). In Dörnyei and Scott (1997), interactional strategies are listed as direct appeal for help, indirect appeal for help, asking for repetition, asking for clarification, asking for confirmation, guessing, expressing non-understanding, interpretative summary, comprehension check, own accuracy check and responses. Goh and Burns (2012) classify communication strategies into cognitive, metacognitive, and interaction strategies. Interaction strategies are listed as exemplification, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, repetition, clarification requests, repetition requests, exemplification requests and assistance appeal.

Færch and Kasper's cooperative strategies (1983) cover some of the interactional strategies, such as appeal for assistance although they are not as comprehensive as Dörnyei and Scott's typology (1995). In the present study, only the strategies that are aimed to be introduced to the participants are defined and illustrated.

Figure 3

*Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, p. 197)*

<b>DIRECT STRATEGIES</b>	<p><b>Resource deficit-related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Message abandonment</li> <li>Message reduction</li> <li>Message replacement</li> <li>Circumlocution (paraphrase)</li> <li>Approximation</li> <li>Use of all-purpose words</li> <li>Word-coinage</li> <li>Restructuring</li> <li>Literal Translation</li> <li>Foreignizing</li> <li>Code Switching</li> <li>Use of similar sounding words</li> <li>Mumbling</li> <li>Omission</li> <li>Retrieval</li> <li>Mime</li> </ul> <p><b>Own performance problem-related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Self-rephrasing</li> <li>Self-repair</li> </ul> <p><b>Other performance problem-related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Other repair</li> </ul>
<b>INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES</b>	<p><b>Resource deficit-related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Appeals for help</li> </ul> <p><b>Own performance problem-related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Comprehension check</li> <li>Own-accuracy check</li> </ul> <p><b>Other performance problem-related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Asking for repetition</li> <li>Asking for clarification</li> <li>Asking for confirmation</li> <li>Guessing</li> <li>Expressing non-understanding</li> <li>Interpretive summary</li> <li>Responses           <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>repeat</li> <li>repair</li> <li>rephrase</li> <li>expand</li> <li>confirm</li> <li>reject</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<b>INDIRECT STRATEGIES</b>	<p><b>Processing time-pressure related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Use of fillers</li> <li>Repetitions</li> </ul> <p><b>Own performance problem-related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Verbal strategy markers</li> </ul> <p><b>Other performance problem-related strategies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Feigning understanding</li> </ul>

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**Asking for Opinion / Giving Opinion.** Bejarano et al. (1997) refer to asking for an opinion as seeking information or an opinion. They define this interaction strategy as asking for opinions or seeking relevant and detailed information (p.206). Expressions such as "what do you think?" "what's your opinion on..." are some phrases to ask for an opinion. On the other hand, the phrases for giving opinion known are "I think", "in my opinion", "I believe", etc. The strategies "asking for opinion" and "giving opinion" are often used in pair tasks, especially in tasks that require decision-making, such as discussions, problem-solving, ordering and sorting tasks.

**Asking Follow-up Questions.** Follow-up questions are the type of questions that are formulated to obtain additional information about a particular topic. They are "the extended topics" asked by the interlocutor to avoid communication breakdowns (Xu & Kou, 2017, p.205). An example of follow-up questions is as follows:

- "Yesterday was my birthday."
- "Did you get any present?" (Xu & Kou, 2017)

**Requesting and Giving Help.** In the case of forgetting and not knowing some expressions or words, speakers may request for assistance, or they give help when their partner asks for help (Xu & Kou, 2017). Dörnyei (1995) defines appeal for help as "turning to the conversation partner for help either directly (e.g., What do you call ...?) or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression)" (p. 58). Below is an example of dialog that illustrates requesting and giving help:

- "His... he is... how do you describe somebody who is quiet?"
- "Introverted?" (Xu & Kou, 2017).

**Positive Feedback.** Positive feedback confirms the correctness of a learner's response to an activity. Depending on the context, it can be an indicator of the truthfulness or grammatical accuracy of a learner's speech (Ellis, 2009). Positive feedback is critical in pedagogy because it offers emotional support to students and motivates them to keep studying (Ellis, 2009)

**Negative feedback.** Negative feedback is “an interactional move by the interlocutor that explicitly or implicitly points out a non-target like feature in the learner's speech” (Mackey, 2006, p. 309). While some forms of corrective feedback offer the correct form, others require the formulation of the correct form. Ohta (2001) argues that corrective feedback, whether or not it offers the correct form of utterance, promotes L2 development. Learners can compare their own work with that of others and test hypotheses once corrective feedback offers the right form. On the other hand, they may be prompted to use their own resources to develop a new formulation when the corrective feedback does not provide the correct form. Strategies that necessitate reformulation of the erroneous utterance, such as clarification requests, are thought to be presumably more successful than strategies such as recasts that do not require reformulation (Lyster, 1998). Corrective feedback is originally didactic (Loewen & Sato, 2018), and so research on corrective feedback revolves around teachers' corrective feedback. Among many types of negative feedback, the present study covers three: explicit correction, recast and clarification requests.

**Explicit Correction.** Explicit correction “indicates that an error has been committed, identifies the error, and provides the correction” (Ellis, 2009). As the name implies, an error is explicitly corrected without implying it. An example of an explicit correction can be found below.

- On May.

- Not on May, In May. We say, "It will start in May.

**Recast.** Recast is defined as the reformulation of a phonologically, syntactically, morphologically, or lexically erroneous utterance into the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Recasts are an example of input-providing feedback, as the correct linguistic form is provided to the interlocutor (Loewen & Sato, 2018). In the interaction hypothesis, recasts are considered a tool that directs the interlocutor's attention to linguistic form in a meaning-oriented and

message-oriented context, thus promoting language acquisition (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

The following is an example of recast below:

- I went there two times.
- You've been, you've been there twice as a group? (Ellis, 2009).

**Clarification Request.** A clarification request is defined as "requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure" (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Long (1983), on the other hand, define clarification request as "any expression...designed to elicit clarification of the interlocutor's preceding utterance(s)" (p. 137). Using expressions such as "Sorry, I didn't understand" and raising intonation to indicate a problem are some ways to ask for clarification. Clarification requests, unlike confirmation checks, seek to elicit additional information from the interlocutor about the meaning of their utterances by asking questions such as "What do you mean?" (Loewen & Sato, 2018). This is an output-prompting corrective feedback because it aims to elicit the correct utterance from the speaker rather than require the reformulation of the hearer.

**Confirmation Requests.** Confirmation requests are "expressions that are designed to elicit confirmation that an utterance has been correctly heard or understood" (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Expressions such as "Do you mean...?", "You mean... right?", "So you're saying...", or question repeats such as "beige?" (with rising intonation) indicate confirmation requests during a conversation.

**Offering Clarification and Confirmation.** Through offering clarification and confirmation moves, the hearer can show understanding and confirmation by simply saying yes, yes, that's right, or they offer clarification if needed by using phrases such as "I mean", "what I mean is...", "in other words, " "for example", "so, basically..." etc. A sample dialog illustrating clarification is given as follows:

- What do you mean about these two statements?!
- Hi, I mean that losing connection like this is an evidence of the negative



points of online learning communities (Saeed & Ghazali, 2017).

### **Strategy Training**

The literature on the effectiveness of communication/interaction strategies strongly supports the view that communication/interaction strategies are necessary for effective interaction among learners of all proficiency levels. Oliver's (2002) study of low proficiency young learners has put forth that there is a stronger probability of communication breakdown in the interaction of low-level learners, making the use of negotiation strategies more necessary. In Oxford's (1995) study, no correlation was found between the efficiency of training and a learner's proficiency in EFL, suggesting that even pre-intermediate level learners may benefit from strategy instruction. Furthermore, Thornbury (2012) argues that even advanced learners who have mastered a high degree of command of vocabulary and grammar struggle in face-to-face interaction and cannot easily transfer their knowledge, which affects their fluency. For this reason, Thornbury (2012) emphasizes that learners need certain skills and strategies to cope with the instructiveness of speech and achieve fluency. Just by employing certain communication strategies, learners can become remarkably fluent in speech. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) note that in addition to improving speech fluency, communication strategies can also enhance L2 acquisition. For example, Pica (2002) indicates that the process of L2 acquisition is facilitated when learners negotiate meaning through the employment of interaction strategies. Since collaborative dialogue has an important role in mediating second language learning (Watanabe & Swain, 2007), training learners to work more collaboratively can facilitate L2 acquisition.

Teaching communication / interactional strategies has always been a controversial issue among theoreticians, researchers, and teachers, both theoretically and practically. The advocates of strategy training argue that knowledge and use of strategies come naturally as language is learned, so we need to focus on language instruction rather than strategies (see Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991). However, contrary to the strong

theoretical reasons against the validity and efficiency of interactional strategy training, practical factors and experience seem to support the assumption that communication / interactional strategies can be taught (Oxford, 1995). Many studies have outlined several positive effects of strategy training (see Dörnyei, 1995; Færch & Kasper, 1983; Nakatani, 2010; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). First, it is believed that learners may enhance their communicative competence by learning to utilize certain CSs that enable them to overcome linguistic barriers (Mei & Nathalang, 2010). In particular, training in interactional strategies has great potential to increase learner engagement (Fuji et al., 2016). Supporting the finding, Dao (2020) maintains that strategy instruction could improve learners' engagement in cognitive, social, and emotional aspects.

From the perspective of peer interaction, strategy training is also considered effective in promoting interaction among learners. In order for learner interaction to result in the social construction of knowledge, collaboration among peers is necessary, and a cooperative learning approach seems to be an effective method for promoting collaboration. Cooperative interaction can be facilitated by introducing strategies that promote specific forms of behavior and cognitive engagement as well as metacognitive reflection (Naughton, 2006). Sato and Lyster's findings (2012) show that simply participating in peer-interaction practices does not lead to a restructuring of interlanguage and that telling learners to focus on form is not sufficient to assist the noticing process. They emphasize that explicit instruction is essential for learners to help them focus on form. Sato & Viveros (2016) further note that raising learners' awareness toward the utterances of themselves and their partners could be a factor that influences the efficiency of feedback and pair dynamics. All in all, strategy instruction has been reported to effectively promote language awareness and collaboration, which in turn adds to the value of peer interaction (Dao, 2020). In another study, Nakatani (2005) found that strategy training helped participants become more fluent and active in negotiating meaning, which in turn helped them perform better on oral tests. Given the results of his study demonstrating a link between learners' conversational ability

and their speaking performance on tests, Galaczi (2008) points to a possible effect of explicit training on collaborative dyadic interaction, focusing on strategies such as extending speech through skillful use of turns, expressing involvement through follow-up questions, and starting and closing turns. Furthermore, strategy training has been found to improve not only speaking fluency but also accuracy. For example, Sato and Lyster (2012) found that corrective feedback training facilitates L2 accuracy development without hindering the development of fluency.

Having recognized the merits of strategy training for interaction, another consideration arises as to how to introduce learners to the strategies. In the literature, it is possible to come across a variety of methods to teach strategies. Among these, Oxford (1995) proposes widely acknowledged and tested methods. For example, Oxford (1995) lists several variations of teaching interactional strategies, including raising awareness of the strategies; offering models of strategy use; emphasizing cross-cultural differences in the use of CSs; teaching strategies directly and creating opportunities for practice, etc. Among these, direct teaching of strategies and creating opportunities for practice stand out because they offer a basis for automatization. Familiarity with a strategy in the L1 may not be sufficient to effectively use a strategy in the L2 if certain lower-order components are absent or not adequately automated. Therefore, it is important to teach the strategies directly by providing learners with certain phrases (Oxford, 1995).

Oxford (1990) also proposes three types of strategy training: awareness training, one-time strategy training, and long-term strategy training. Awareness training is concerned with raising learners' awareness of learning strategies. In this type of strategy training, learners are informed about the use and benefits of strategies and how these strategies can be used in a variety of language activities, but they do not necessarily apply the strategies in performing the tasks. Since this is a step that can lead learners to thoroughly investigate the strategies, teachers have a major role to play in introducing them. Oxford (1990),

therefore, suggests raising learners' awareness in an entertaining and stimulating way rather than delivering a lecture-type of instruction.

Second, Oxford's (1990) one-time strategy training entails learning one or more strategies along with the use of language tasks. Learners are taught the significance of the strategies, when and how to use them, and how their strategy use is evaluated after practice. Oxford (1990) asserts that this type of training is suitable for learners who need distinct, recognizable, and highly focused strategies that can be delivered in one or just a few session(s).

The third type of strategy training proposed is long-term strategy training, which shares many similarities with onetime strategy training in that it is also delivered with actual tasks and learners are introduced to the use and evaluation of their strategy use (Oxford, 1990). The difference between one-time strategy training and long term strategy training is that in long-term strategy training, more strategies are taught over longer periods of time compared to one-time training. Long-term strategy training has been shown to be more fruitful than one-time strategy training (Oxford, 1990, p. 203).

Given the different types of training mentioned above and others not presented in this chapter, deciding which type of strategy training is appropriate for learners depends on some factors, such as the needs of the learners, the context, and the number of strategies to be taught. Furthermore, the potential benefits of peer interaction, which are described in this chapter, are susceptible to how the interaction is planned and managed. In this regard, the role of teachers should not be overlooked. Sato (2017) highlights the role of teachers in peer interaction with the following excerpt:

Peer interaction should not be considered as a classroom activity in which learners are given a task and expected to autonomously work together. Rather, peer interaction is a type of interaction, a context of learning, and a pedagogical tool that may or may not assist L2 learning depending on how the teacher controls it before and during the interaction. (p.275)

As indicated in the above given excerpt, the benefits learners derive from peer interaction activities is dependent on how teachers regulate the process. Among the things teachers can control during peer interaction is the interactional behaviors of learners. Naughton (2006) argues that the type of interaction formed in the class is not predetermined and that teachers have the power to shape patterns of interaction to maximize learning opportunities. The instructor should be in charge of demonstrating strategic interaction and providing guidance to students so that they develop independent use of such strategies as they progress through the curriculum (Naughton, 2006).

### **Studies on Interactional Strategy Training and Patterns of Interaction**

The efficacy of interactional strategy training and patterns of interaction have both been the subject of previous research, however the majority of this research has been conducted independently. While some research focused only on analyzing the patterns of interaction that occurred between dyads, others evaluated whether or not strategy training had an impact on the improvement of students' interaction with one another. Thorough review of these studies are provided in the following paragraphs.

One of the first studies to carefully examine learner interaction for interaction patterns was Storch's (2002) well-acclaimed research. She studied the nature of dyadic interaction between 10 different pairs of ESL students by collecting data via a range of activities that took place in the classroom. Storch (2002) identified four distinct patterns of interaction based on the degree of equality and mutuality between the participants. These patterns are as follows: collaborative, expert/novice, dominant/dominant, and dominant/passive. These interaction patterns were derived from an analysis of the participants' interaction with one another. She went on to investigate the influence that these interactions have on the development of language. According to the quantitative findings of the research, a significant number of instances of language growth were found in the patterns of collaborative and expert/novice dyads. The interactions between

dominant/dominant and dominant/passive interlocutors had the lowest frequency of these occurrences. Similarly, Watanabe and Swain (2007) found that collaborative work benefitted adult EFL learners regardless of their proficiency level. They discovered that the patterns of interaction created by pairs had a greater impact on learning gains than proficiency level alone.

Regarding the relationship between interactional strategies and language production, varying findings exist. For example, Roberson (2014) focused on peer response sessions and found that collaborative and novice/expert patterns were more successful in the revision of writings, while dominant interlocutors made little use of feedback and scored the lowest on revisions. In contrast, Doğan (2017) analyzed interaction patterns among EFL students and found that the collaborative pattern was the most frequently used. Interestingly, they found no significant relationship between the number of words uttered and the interaction pattern, suggesting that a higher word count does not necessarily indicate a high degree of learner interaction.

Studies related to what patterns learners adopt in different time points or the transitions they show are rare. As an only example, Chen (2018) explored the transition process of interaction patterns over time and found that the collaborative pattern was more favorable for language learning compared to other patterns. Additionally, the study revealed that participants could regulate their roles and transition from non-collaborative to collaborative patterns. Task repetition played a role in this transition, helping students become more comfortable with the activity and their partner. Through practice, participants discovered their partners' strengths and weaknesses, leading to a sense of accomplishment.

Comparing these studies, it becomes evident that collaborative interaction patterns consistently facilitate language growth and successful revisions. Furthermore, proficiency level does not determine the effectiveness of interactions, as learners benefit from collaborative work regardless of their language proficiency. The co-creation of interaction

patterns and the transition to collaborative interactions can be facilitated through task repetition and the development of a comfortable and supportive learning environment. These findings have important implications for language educators, highlighting the importance of designing language learning experiences that foster collaborative interactions and maximize language development.

Compared to patterns of interaction studies, more studies are conducted on interactional strategy training. Various studies have delved into the effectiveness of strategy training and interaction patterns in language learning and acquisition. For instance, Rabab'ah (2016) and Xu and Kou (2017) explored the impact of strategy training on speaking performance. While Rabab'ah's study showed improved speaking performance and increased strategy use among the trained students, Xu and Kou (2017) found a positive correlation between interactional strategies and learner performance, particularly in fluency and complexity. On the other hand, Lam and Wong (2000) emphasized the need for a careful approach to strategy training, as they detected instances of ineffective strategy implementation despite an overall increase in strategy use. They suggested that linguistic scaffolding and collaboration with peers could enhance the quality of interactions. Bejarano et al. (1997) demonstrated the potential of interactional strategy training in fostering both the quantity and quality of interactions among small groups. Similarly, Dao (2020) showed that strategy intervention led to increased engagement and positive attitudes during peer interactions. Fuji et al. (2016) also found that metacognitive interactional strategy instruction improved the quality of interaction, especially in terms of effective feedback exchange. Additionally, Xu and Kou (2011) highlighted the positive impact of interaction training on promoting active and engaged participation in small group settings. While Naughton (2006) observed increased strategy use in interactions after strategy training, the study also emphasized the need for effective strategy implementation to enhance the quality of learner interactions.

A study of learner beliefs regarding peer interaction and strategy training was conducted by Sato (2013). In his study, Sato (2013) examined the impact of corrective feedback training on learners' beliefs about peer interaction and corrective feedback. The results of the questionnaire and interviews indicate that learners believe in the positive outcomes of peer interaction. They believe that through peer interaction, they can have more opportunities for language practice and production, which in turn improves their speaking skills. However, Sato emphasized that learners' beliefs depend on the social relationships between peers. For example, learners act reluctant to speak with more quiet and talkative classmates. Regarding corrective feedback, although learners indicated that they had more opportunities to notice their errors, they voiced their reluctance to correct errors due to the fear of disrupting the flow of conversation and offending their partners. After the intervention, learners expressed that interacting with partners improved their speaking skills. They claimed that the rate at which they were able to put their thoughts into words had increased, which gave them the confidence to produce more. What is noteworthy about Sato's (2013) study is that peer interaction instruction seems to be crucial in convincing learners that cooperatively supporting each other is vital for the development of their L2. Otherwise, peer interaction and peer-corrective feedback instruction may even have detrimental effects, as learners may start overcorrecting their partners. Sato's (2013) study shows that through peer interaction and corrective feedback training, students began to trust and rely on their fellow students as a learning resource. As a result, their interactions became more collaborative, which made it conducive to second language acquisition. This is particularly noteworthy because the initial purpose of Sato's study was not to explore social dynamics between pairs, but the findings provided practical insights into the nature of peer interaction.

Overall, these studies collectively demonstrate the value of strategy training and interaction patterns in enhancing language learning outcomes and highlight the importance of effective strategy implementation and supportive peer interactions



## Chapter 3

### Methodology

This section describes how the study is designed, with setting and participants, and specifies how the materials and data collection instruments were created, including pilot phases and validation. The procedure for data collection and analysis is also presented in this section.

#### Research Design

The present study is a quasi-experimental study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of interactional strategy training on the interaction patterns of tertiary level EFL students studying at a state university. Given that it is arduous to establish a true experimental design, especially in the field of education, because of the difficulty of randomizing the subjects of the study, a quasi-experimental design is often preferred by researchers (Farhady, 2013). With a quasi-experimental study, it is possible to investigate the effects of certain manipulations on the participants (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006) and inquire into the effects of "language-related processes" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.119). In this regard, the effect of interactional strategy training, if any, was explored within the scope of the study.

Among the types of quasi-experimental design, comparison group pre-test/post-test design was utilized in the study since it makes controlling other variables easier, which could reduce the internal validity of the study (Dörnyei, 2007). Two different instructional methods were implemented as an empirical process to two different groups, and the participants were tested before and after this process. More specifically, the participants in two classes were designated as control and experimental groups, and the experimental group was given treatment, while control group was only given exact same peer tasks administered to the experimental group without treatment. As a feature of the pre-post design, both groups were tested before and after the treatment. Besides, the groups were also given a delayed post-

test to observe the after-effect of the treatment. Through both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments, triangulation, which is described by Creswell (1998) as “the process of corroborating evidence from different sources to shed light on a theme or perspective” was employed in the present study so as to validate the “accuracy” of the study (p.202).

## **Participants**

The participants of the present study comprised of 28 EFL students aged 18-22 years studying at the School of Foreign Languages at a state university. The study included participants from the departments of English Language and Literature and English Language Teaching. Students from both departments had the same language background; they studied in language departments in high school, took the national college entrance exam along with the language test, and were placed in their respective departments.

Participants for the study were selected from two intact classes. For administrative reasons, they were not randomly assigned to classes. They were formerly placed in their classrooms after the proficiency test, which was administered at the beginning of the academic year. Therefore, convenience sampling was used for this study.

Before the study commenced, proficiency levels of the participants were determined because differences in proficiency may yield different patterns of interaction patterns (Dao & McDonough, 2018, Storch & Aldosari, 2013). Although participants were placed in A2 level according to the proficiency exam conducted at the beginning of the academic year, the Oxford Quick Placement Test (2004) was also administered to ensure homogeneity between groups. Oxford Quick Placement Test (2004) is a paper and pen test developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL to assess test takers' English language proficiency. The test is divided into two parts: the first part consists of 40 questions and is taken by all students; the second part consists of 20 questions and is taken by those who scored between 36-40 on the first part of the test. According to the results of the test, 29

students were at A2 level and two students were at B1 level. Therefore, the students with B1 level were excluded from the study. Since one of the groups had an odd number of students, one student was also excluded from the study. As a result, 28 students, all of whom were at the A2 level, took part in the present study. The experimental and control groups were also homogeneous in terms of gender, age, and language background. In both the experimental ( $N = 14$ ) and the control group ( $N = 14$ ), 2 males and 12 females participated in the study. The mean age of the experimental group was 19.4 and that of the control group was 19.6.

When planning a well-designed study, one of the factors that must be carefully considered is the anticipation of the potential extraneous/ confounding variables as they can be quite resourceful while discussing the results of a study (Pallant, 2010). In an attempt to control for confounding variables in the present study, that is, to control for the experiences of both groups and keep them as similar as possible, the participants were selected from groups that had been following the same curriculum since the beginning of the preparatory year. Courses and assessments were identical in both the control and experimental groups.

Participant variables were also taken into consideration in determining confounding variables. Research has shown that out- of class activities such as watching movies and TV series, listening to songs, and talking with friends, are perceived to be effective in improving language skills (Hyland, 2004). Since the present study is a longitudinal study, in which participants' speaking performance could be affected by what they do outside class to practice their speaking skills (Coşkun, 2016), the participants were provided with a background questionnaire (see Appendix A for the background questionnaire). They were asked to choose between the options of "none" to "5+ hours," taking into account the amount of time they spend speaking English outside of class, watching TV series/movies, English YouTube videos, listening to podcasts, listening to songs, and practicing English

through websites or mobile applications. The checklist was handed out before the start of the treatment to prevent the influence of the treatment on the covariates (Pallant, 2010).

## **Setting**

The present study was conducted in the academic year 2019-2020 at the School of Foreign Languages at a state university. All learners who have been admitted to study in the departments of English Language and Literature and English Language Teaching are obliged to complete the preparatory program or be exempted from it by achieving a score of 60 or more out of 100 on the qualifying examination held at the beginning of the academic year. The test, which is at level B1+ of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), is prepared and administered by the staff of the School of Foreign Languages and consists of listening, reading, and writing sections, as well as a face-to-face speaking test. Those who score less than 60 on the qualifying exam are required to receive 22 hours of instruction per week during a one-year program.

The School of Foreign Languages aims at equipping learners with the general language and academic skills they need to pursue their studies in their programs. During the academic year, learners are taught language courses that cover integrated skills in the “Main Course” and “Academic Writing” courses, and complete their program at the expected B1+ level. Although speaking skills are emphasized in the coursebook in part with dialogs and pair work tasks, no specific course or class hour is designated for this purpose, and no speaking strategies have been introduced as part of the curriculum.

## **Data Collection Tools**

This section describes the data collection tools that are used to determine the dyads' interaction patterns and their use of interactional strategies, their perceived interaction patterns, evaluations of their performance on speaking tasks, and their perceptions of strategy training.

### ***Pre, Post and Delayed-Post Interaction Tasks***

Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) assert that learner samples (written or spoken output) need to be the principal way of investigating second language learning. For this reason, three interaction tasks were designed and implemented to collect learner samples and to gauge the effectiveness of strategy training. The procedure for selecting and designing the tasks included a review of the relevant literature as well as validation and piloting phases, which are explained below.

**Designing the Interaction Tasks.** In the present study, three speaking tasks were used with the aim of investigating the dyads' interaction patterns and the interactional strategies they used. These tasks were administered to the participants in both the experimental and control groups as pre, post-post and delayed post-speaking tasks. The tasks were designed to collect clinically elicited samples. These learner samples were obtained from learners during task performance in which conveying messages is prioritized over linguistic outcome (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). A number of considerations were made in the design of the speaking tasks, including task type, task selection, and task design.

The first step in designing the tasks was to decide on the type of task to be given to the participants. A major consideration while designing speaking tasks is to create tests that are similar to daily life speaking practices as much as possible (Thornbury, 2012). Thornbury (2012) highlights that collaborative tasks are usually preferred by examination institutions. However, when deciding on the type of interaction tasks for pre-task, post-task, and delayed post-tasks, the impact of task type on the nature of communication was taken into account because tasks that inherently force learners to work in certain patterns do not comply with the purpose of the study, which is to identify the interaction patterns of different dyads. Therefore, some task types were eliminated in case they lead the dyads to interact with a fixed pattern of interaction even though they would work differently in a different task.

Relevant literature was reviewed for task types and the interactional behavior they enforce. For example, Pica et al. (1993) examined the use of speaking tasks, namely

information gap, jigsaw, problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion exchange, and they found that jigsaw and information gap activities enhance more negotiation of meaning and the use of the most advantageous patterns of interaction. Because information gap and jigsaw tasks require learners to collaborate, they were not selected as data collection tasks. Instead, to investigate the use of interaction patterns and interaction strategies, decision-making tasks, which also require ranking, were deemed appropriate by the researcher because they do not force speakers to work in specific interaction patterns.

Another consideration after determining the task type was the selection and design of the speaking tasks. Initially, three different tasks were decided to be given to the students for three test conditions to eliminate the effect of rehearsed practice. Later, a number of sources for speaking tasks were reviewed and the "deserted island" and "your room" tasks from Klippel (1984) were adapted. Both the content and the requirements of the tasks were found to be appropriate for the level of the participants. Some of items provided in the lists were taken out and additional items were added. Two additional tasks, namely "Burning House" and "The Lucky Ones," were designed by the researcher. Although three tasks were planned for three test conditions, four tasks were designed by the researcher for piloting.

All four interaction tasks were isomorphic decision-making tasks in that they all presented a problem and required pairs to make choices and select items from a given list to solve the problem, rank them in an order of importance and write down the reasons for their choices. Participants were asked to rank the items as this provided an opportunity for practicing "interactive language, for instance agreeing, comparing, contradicting, disagreeing, and giving reasons" (Klippel, 1984, p. 59). They were also designed as convergent tasks because this type of task encourages learners to collaborate in terms of creativity and ideas, and negotiate language while trying to find common ground (Hendra & Jones, 2018), but does not force speakers to work in specific patterns of interaction.

**Piloting the Interaction Tasks.** After the interaction tasks were designed, they were validated by two experts in the field of language teaching who were currently pursuing

their PhD and had seven years of teaching experience. The instruments were evaluated for their appropriateness to the participants' proficiency level, content validity, construct validity, and face validity. Particular attention was paid to construct validity since the task output was the main data collection tool in the study. Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) assert that construct validity of a data collection method can only be achieved if the output produced as a result of the application of the instrument reflects actual language use. With this in mind, and in accordance with expert feedback, some changes were made to the wording of task instructions, and additional items were added to be evaluated for item selection. After the adjustments, the tasks were given their final form and were pilot tested.

The creation of the interaction tasks was followed by a pilot phase to verify the appropriateness and feasibility of the tasks, and to ensure their reliability. Piloting is a very critical and important phase of a study because it is a prerequisite for ascertaining the reliability and validity of the study. Although piloting is essential, especially in quantitative designs (Dörnyei, 2007), it also poses great importance in qualitative studies as they can test research instruments, review the research design, and anticipate potential problems (Sampson, 2004). To this end, pre, post and delayed post interaction tasks were piloted. Since participants were given different speaking tasks at three testing time points, it was of great importance that they were similar in terms of the interaction they promoted between interlocutors. Therefore, the interaction tasks were piloted with 12 students two weeks before the main study. Students were randomly paired and told what was expected of them in terms of task requirements. All four tasks were given to the students in the same session with a 5-10 minutes break. The interactions were recorded on the students' cell phones and collected at the end of the session. The interaction tasks "Abandoned Island," "The Lucky Ones," and "Your Room" took 10-16 minutes to complete, while "Burning House" took 7-10 minutes.

After all the dyads completed the tasks, they were asked to evaluate the tasks in terms of difficulty, content, and language. All students reported that they had no problems

understanding the requirements of the tasks and were able to complete the tasks without difficulty. However, eight out of twelve students reported that they were not able to talk much in the "The Burning House" task, not because the task was difficult, but because the items that can be taken when leaving a burning house do not differ much from person to person, so they could easily agree on and choose the items they wanted to take without discussing too much. Based on this information, it was determined that "the burning house" task did not promote interaction as much as the other tasks.

After the pilot study was undertaken, the video recordings were analyzed to determine interaction patterns. A PhD student was trained to use the guidelines in Storch (2002) to identify interaction patterns of the students. After analyzing the video recordings, this rater identified the patterns. The intercoder reliability was found to be 100%, meaning that both raters identified the same interaction patterns. Table 2 presents the interaction patterns that each dyad adopted across four interaction tasks.

**Table 2**

*Interaction Patterns Adopted by The Dyads in Pilot-Test*

	<b>Task 1</b>	<b>Task 2</b>	<b>Task 3</b>	<b>Task 4</b>
<b>Dyads</b>	<b>Deserted Island</b>	<b>Your Room</b>	<b>The Lucky Ones</b>	<b>Burning House</b>
1	Dominant/Passive	Dominant/Passive	Dominant/Passive	Collaborative
2	Dominant/Passive	Dominant/Passive	Dominant/Passive	Expert/Passive
3	Collaborative	Collaborative	Collaborative	Collaborative
4	Expert/Passive	Expert/Passive	Expert/Passive	Collaborative

As seen in Table 2, the dyads maintained their interactions during tasks 1, 2, and 3. However, their interaction patterns changed in the fourth task, which could indicate that task 4 had an impact on the dyads in altering the pattern they interact. Considering the feedback from the participants who took part in the pilot study and the identified interaction patterns across four tasks, task number 4 named "Burning House" was eliminated. The remaining tasks were found to be parallel in terms of time spent on completing each task, difficulty level, and ensuring consistency of interaction patterns. As a result, in the light of the pilot



study, three interaction tasks (deserted island, your room and the lucky ones) were found to be valid and reliable instruments and were selected as instruments for the main study (see Appendix B, Appendix C and Appendix D for the tasks).

### ***Self-Evaluation Forms***

With the aim of investigating students' own evaluations of their pair task performance, interactional strategy uses, and perceived patterns of interaction, self-evaluation forms were given to the participants in the experimental group immediately after each strategy training session. More specifically, they were intended to be completed immediately after the pair tasks following the strategy instructions.

The rationale behind the selection of self-evaluation forms as a data collection tool is that they allow learners to critically evaluate themselves or their learning process. They also play a crucial role in language learning as they create an opportunity for learners to become aware of their strengths and weaknesses (Nunan, 1988). Gardner (2000) states that self-assessment provides learners with individualized feedback on the efficiency of their learning strategies and leads them monitor their performance on specific tasks. Apart from learner benefits, the teacher and the researchers also benefit from the students' assessments as they provide information about the process of student learning and their strengths and weaknesses (Gardner, 2000).

Self-evaluation forms (see Appendix E for English and Turkish versions) administered in this study consisted of two main parts: evaluation of pair interaction with a three-point scale; and open-ended evaluation of participants' strengths and weaknesses and plans for future pair tasks. The first part of the self-assessment form is intended to explore learners' own perceptions of their collaboration. This part consisted of 11 statements with a three-point scale (I agree, partially agree, and don't agree). The first 9 statements were formulated by the researcher based on Storch's (2002) guidelines for determining interaction patterns. These items were created to explore the participants' own

evaluations of their participation. The items pertaining to the different interaction patterns and the evaluation of strategy instruction are listed in Table 3.

**Table 3**

*Items Created To Identify The Patterns Of Interaction*

<b>Items in the self-evaluation form</b>	<b>Pattern of interaction</b>
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	Collaborative
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	Collaborative
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	Collaborative /expert
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	Collaborative/expert
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the conversation.	Expert
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the conversation.	Passive
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	Passive
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	Dominant
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	Dominant/dominant
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	Evaluation of strategy training
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	Evaluation of strategy training

The second part of the evaluation form was designed to collect qualitative information about the participants' evaluation of their performance in the pair task. Four open-ended questions were formulated by the researcher, drawing from the Strategy Checklist in Cohen et al. (1996). The questions were on the overall evaluation of the pair task, the participants' strengths and weaknesses during the task, and their plans for future pair tasks.

The Self-Evaluation Form was validated by the same two instructors who evaluated and the interaction tasks for the pre-, post-, and delayed post-tasks. Since they were previously informed about the interaction patterns, they were also able to comment on the

content of the first part of the self-evaluation forms. In light of their feedback, the wording of some items was changed for better understanding, and the form was given its final form. The form, originally created in English, was translated into Turkish by the researcher to avoid misunderstandings and eliminate low language proficiency as a restraint for participants to express themselves, especially in the open-ended questions. The form was back-translated by another teacher with 10 years of experience, and the original and translated versions were evaluated. After minor modifications, the final version was piloted with 15 A2 level students similar to the target group. It took about 10 minutes to complete the form. Based on the students' feedback and their responses to it, the self-evaluation form was given its final form.

### ***Semi-Structured Interviews***

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with all 14 participants in the experimental condition after completion of the post-task to supplement the quantitative data collected through the interaction tasks and self-evaluation forms, and to gather in-depth information about the effectiveness of the strategy training on interaction patterns. Since the interviews were conducted with the participants who received the strategy training, a criterion sampling was adopted for participant selection.

Interviews were selected as a data collection tool because they are fruitful in obtaining a thorough understanding of participants' opinions, beliefs, and experiences. In addition, they can provide information that is not gathered through questionnaires or other quantitative measures such as the underlying reason behind the decisions and responses (Heigham & Croker, 2009). To be more specific, in this case, interviews were selected to answer the "why" question in addition to the "what" and "how" questions. Thus, the interview questions, including in-depth why and how questions, were like sub-questions of the main research questions that were paraphrased and simplified so that respondents could understand and answer them easily (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Although most questions were open-ended, as is more common in interviews, closed-ended questions were also asked of

participants, which were also deemed useful for checking purposes (Richards, 2003). With regards to the content of the interview, the questions focused on the following aspects:

1. The perceptions and experiences of participants on interactional strategy training.
2. The strategies utilized more or less after the strategy training and participants' reasoning behind their choices.
3. The participants' perceptions about the effectiveness of strategy training on patterns of interaction.

After formulating the questions, an interview protocol was designed by the researcher following the suggestions of Creswell and Poth (2018, p. 236). The steps are as follows;

1. Use a header to inform the interviewees about the study and the confidentiality of the interview.
2. Allocate space for each question, keeping in mind that the interviewees may not respond to the question asked, but rather another question in the interview.
3. Learn the questions to maintain as much eye contact with the participants as possible and use appropriate transitions for a smooth interview.
4. Ask additional questions as needed, prepare concluding remarks for the end of the interview, and finish by thanking the interviewee.

The semi-structured interviews were carried out in the participants' first language to eliminate the risk of language barrier and enable the respondents to express their thoughts freely in their own language (See Appendix F for English and Turkish versions). As for how the interviews were held, they were conducted one-on-one with all focus group participants and recorded using voice recorders embedded in cell phones.

## **Teaching Materials**

In the field of education, there are a large number of textbooks, teaching and practice materials for learners with different needs. However, it is still difficult for teachers to find materials that perfectly fit their teaching context, the level of the students and teaching objectives (Howard & Major, 2004). With these concerns, the materials to be used in the present study were designed by the researcher to meet the specific learning needs for the present study. Accordingly, eight interaction strategy training sheets were created by the researcher to introduce interaction strategies to the participants in the experimental group.

### ***Strategy Training Sheets***

The materials for the experimental condition were developed to help build learners' awareness of selected interactional strategies and to increase their use of these strategies in face-to-face communication (see Appendix G). While designing the interactional strategy training sheets, the guidelines given in Howard & Major (2004) were followed: be authentic; encourage interaction; focus on form and function; promote integrated language use; connect the materials to each other in order to teach subjects or skills in coherence; create materials that appeal to the eye; provide clear, understandable, and effective instructions; and allow for flexibility (pp. 104-106).

Although there are various approaches and steps to teaching language strategies, Rubin et al. (2007) categorize the procedure into four major steps: consciousness raising; presenting and modeling the strategies; providing learners a chance for practicing the strategies to help learners gain autonomy in using them; self-evaluation of the efficiency of strategies; and application of them to future tasks. With this in mind, all eight interactional training sheets consisted of four stages: awareness raising, explicit instruction, practice and evaluation. The activities, questions, and tasks in each phase were summarized in Table 4.

**Table 4***The Activities in Each Phase of the Training*

<b>Training Phase</b>	<b>Activities</b>
Awareness	1. Warm-up
Raising	2. Analysis of authentic Corpus driven texts 3. Question- answer session with the students
Explicit Instruction	1. Introduction to the strategy including its meaning and use 2. Presenting specific expressions for the interactional strategy 3. Going over each expression by introducing their pronunciation, meaning and use.
Practice	1. Controlled or semi-controlled speaking or writing practice to be done either individually or as whole class. 2. Free practice using the interactional strategy by means of a pair task
Evaluation	1. Discussing answers or the results of pair task 2. Completing a self- evaluation form

**Awareness Raising.** The first part of each strategy training starts with raising students' awareness of the target forms to be introduced in that session. At this point, it is important to expose learners with the authentic language and show them how the language is written or spoken in an authentic context (Howard & Major, 2004). A very practical and appropriate way to do this might be to use corpora for a number of reasons. First of all, the use of spoken corpora in the classroom plays a key role in foreign language teaching as it makes authentic language accessible to learners and promotes awareness of the features of spoken language. Moreover, it can be used to enhance language acquisition either alone or together with other instructional materials (Bennet, 2010). When introducing interactional strategies in the classroom, it is important to expose learners to authentic use of these interactional features to help them grasp the context in which they are used and the appropriate usage. To this end, model dialogs for each interactional strategy were retrieved from freely available language corpora to develop materials for strategy training.

In order to take excerpts from the spoken corpus, several steps were followed. First, Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English (SBCSAE) and the Manually Annotated

Sub-Corpus (MASC) were selected for download. SBCSAE contains transcribed recordings of naturally spoken American English that are freely available at <https://www.linguistics.ucsb.edu/research/santa-barbara-corpus>. Spoken interactions include "telephone conversations, card games, food preparation, workplace conversations, classroom lectures, sermons, storytelling, town hall meetings, tour guide spiels, and more" (Du Bois et al., 2000-2005). On the other hand, MASC is a subset of 500,000 words of written and spoken English drawn primarily from the Open American National Corpus (OANC). It contains public domain texts that are freely available and can be downloaded from the American National Corpus website (ANC): <http://www.anc.org/data/masc/downloads/data-download/>. Second, a computer software called *AntConc* was used to search for expressions for interactional strategies. AntConc, developed by Laurence Anthony, is a free concordance program that allows you to check frequency, view concordances of keywords in context (KWIC), and view the extended context of the keywords searched. Once the transcripts of the spoken corpora were loaded into AntConc, the expressions were searched using the tool. For example, the expression "I mean" was searched, and all sentences containing "I mean" were displayed on the main screen. The sentences that matched the students' language level were further examined by looking at the extended context, and the relevant parts were extracted by the researcher. Only the excerpts containing one or two common expressions for each strategy were used for the teaching materials. Below is a sample excerpt for clarification requests and a follow-up question.

#### Figure 4

##### *An Excerpt From a Spoken Corpus*

Mary: Do you play any games or anything?  
 Arthur: Yeah. Um, Connect Four and um, Guess Who?, and Dominoes.  
 Mary: What about computer lab?  
 Arthur: Computer lab?  
 Mary: What do you do in computer lab?  
 Arthur: I, uh, just play games.

1. Why do you think Arthur asks the question " computer lab?"

Learners are expected to read the dialogue given in Figure 4 and answer questions that help raise awareness of the purpose and use of clarification requests. As can be seen in the excerpt, Arthur uses clarification requests by asking, "computer lab?" This procedure was followed in the creation of the instructional materials, i.e., all strategy training instructional materials contained one to three excerpts and were followed by relevant questions.

**Explicit Instruction.** After the awareness-raising part, the new strategy is presented, explained, and modeled in the explicit teaching part. The teacher first explained the meaning of the strategy to be introduced and why it is used in conversations. Then specific interactional expressions were covered with the students, including their meaning, pronunciation, and how they are used in sentences. More specifically, the teacher and learners discuss how the predetermined expressions can be used when speaking to facilitate communication and solve possible communication problems. At this stage, learners are encouraged to ask and answer questions about the strategies.

**Practice.** In the third phase of strategy training, participants were first given a controlled or semi-controlled task in the form of gap-filling, matching, spelling, or categorizing to get learners to produce the intended language features (Brown, 2001). Later, they were given a free practice pair task with the goal of encouraging the use of the intended strategy while allowing learners to produce the language in a more spontaneous manner (Brown, 2001).

### ***Lesson Plans for Strategy Training Sessions***

The researcher created lesson plans that were tailored to the goals of the interaction strategy instruction for each week (see Appendix H for lesson plans). The lesson plans were created because they allow teachers to set lesson objectives, address appropriate resources, and design tasks effectively (Lee & Takahashi, 2011). A total of eight lesson plans were created based on the steps described in Rubin et al. (2007) for teaching learning strategies. The basic components of a lesson plan such as allocated time, objectives,



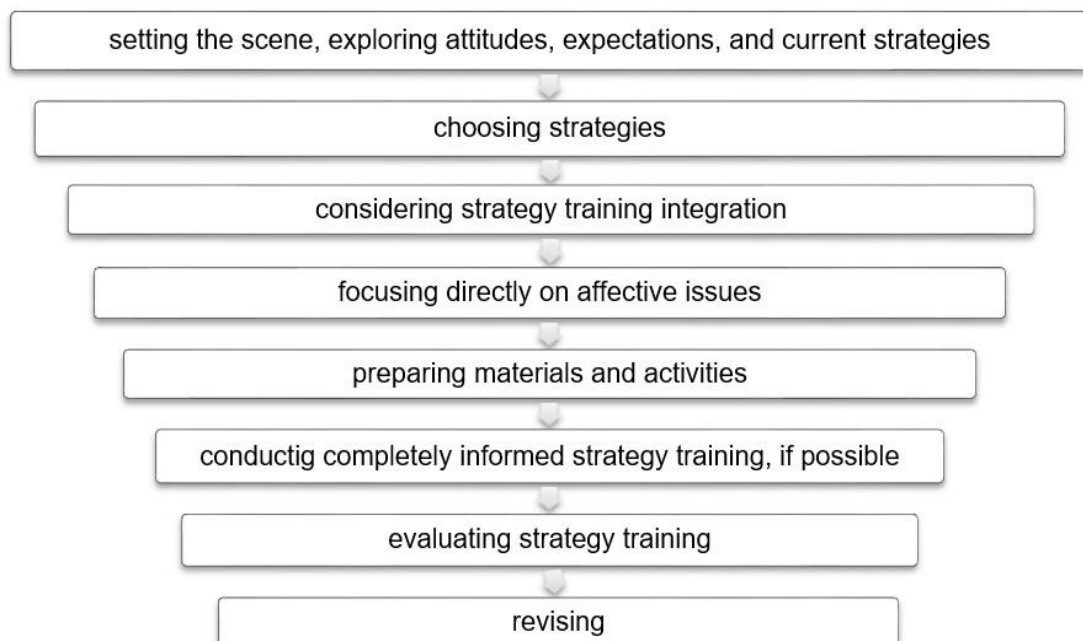
guidelines directing teachers through the session, materials, and instructions (Çiçek & Tok, 2014) were included in the lesson plan.

### The Training Model

In the present study, the strategy training model of Oxford et al. (1990) was employed in order to introduce interactional strategies to the experimental group. The steps are presented in the Figure 5. In the first step of strategy training, which includes "setting the scene, exploring attitudes, expectations, and current strategies" (Oxford et al., 1990, p.209), affective factors were first explored as suggested. According to the researcher's observations and the students' own statements, speaking emerged as the most frightening skill for the students. Considering that they are also evaluated by pair tasks with oral exams, they feel the need to improve their communication skills, especially in pair tasks. Apart from this, the time allotted for strategy training was also taken into consideration and the decision was made on an eight-week training.

### Figure 5

*Strategy Training Model by Oxford et al. (1990. pp. 209-210)*



After setting the scene, the decision regarding the strategies to be introduced were made. The selection of strategies to be taught was based on the "relevance of strategies" criteria specified in Oxford et al. (1990, p. 209) since the training was designed to achieve a specific goal, namely, to enhance collaboration. To this end, relevant strategies were explored in the literature. Since Storch's guidelines (2002) were utilized in order to specify the interaction patterns, his definition of features for collaborative interaction was outlined. Accordingly, Storch (2002) postulates that collaborative pairs take turns asking and answering questions; ask for help and give help when necessary; repeat each other's utterances, or extend statements; and give positive and negative feedback. Thus, four interactional strategies were finally selected to be introduced in the treatment sessions:

1. Extending conversation
2. Appealing and giving assistance
3. Giving feedback (positive & negative)
4. Requesting and giving confirmation and clarification

The aforementioned strategies were then organized in terms of the sub-strategies that posit. Table 5 presents the main interactional strategies with their sub-strategies and predetermined expressions.

**Table 5**

*Interactional Strategies with Their Sub Strategies and Pre-determined Expressions*

Main Interactional Strategies	Interactional Strategies	Predetermined Expressions
Extending Conversation	Asking for opinion giving opinion	I think you are wrong because ...
		What about you?
		I imagine/suppose
		Do you know what I think? I think ...
		What do you think?
		It appears/seems to me ...
		Do you think ...?
		As far as I can tell ...
		Does that make sense to you?
		In my opinion, ...
		Personally, I believe/think/feel ...
I honestly feel ...		
What is your opinion about...?		

	<p>Do you agree? It's quite obvious that ... Do you agree with me? If you ask me ... I don't agree with you</p>
Asking Follow-up questions	<p>Why? Why not? Why do you think so? Why did you say that? What makes you say that? Wh- questions</p>
Appealing and Giving Assistance	<p>Appealing for assistance</p> <p>How do you say ....? How do you say it in English? What do you call it? What does .... mean? Can you write it down? What do you call the person who ....? What do you call the thing which ....? What's the word for ... /to describe (it) ...? I can't remember / I've forgotten the word for ... What's the name of ...?</p>
Giving assistance	<p>Is it ....? Could it be .....? You mean .....? Are you saying ... ?</p>
Giving positive feedback	<p><i>Praise</i>: "good," "great," "excellent," "nice," <i>Affirmation</i>: "yes," "correct," "OK," "that's right," etc. <i>Repetition</i>: repeating the correct response of the student.</p>
Giving feedback	<p>Giving negative feedback</p> <p>Sorry, I didn't understand (the word) ... What do you mean? What does ... mean? Sorry, I'm lost. I don't get you/it/the point. Don't you mean ...? Sorry, I don't/didn't quite follow you I'm not sure I understand you. What are you saying/trying to say? Could you explain this word, please? I'm afraid I don't understand. I don't quite see what you mean/what you're getting at I'm sorry, I'm not quite clear on ... What do you mean by ...? 'Trade convention'/'Curriculum'/?/etc. (echoing the problem word with a question intonation).</p>
Confirmation Requests	<p>If I (have) understood you correctly .... Do you mean...? You mean ... right? You said ... right? So you're saying.... Question repeats = beige? (with a rising intonation) Is that right?</p>

Requesting and giving confirmation and clarification	Is that correct? Am I right? Isn't it?
Offering clarification and confirmation	I mean... I meant to say... What I mean is... That is what I mean by saying .... In other words, ... For example, ... So, basically... So the basic idea is that... Yeah, yes, that's right.

As shown in Table 5, all main strategies were classified into two sub-strategies: "asking for opinion and giving opinion" and "asking follow-up questions" under extending conversation; "appealing for assistance" and "giving assistance" under appealing and giving assistance; "giving positive feedback" and "giving negative feedback" under giving feedback; " confirmation requests" and "offering clarification and confirmation" under requesting and giving confirmation and clarification. As a result of the classification, a final decision was made on the choice of strategy and the eight sub-strategies given above. In the final step of specifying the expressions to be introduced, not all possible expressions were included in the list of strategy phrases, but those that the researcher found useful based on both their usage commonality and their appropriateness to the level of the participants.

As for the third step of the strategy training model, integrating the strategy training is proposed. Although Oxford et al. (1990) recommend strategy training be integrated into daily language instruction, it was not probable for the researcher to integrate all strategies into the curriculum because both the time for such integration was limited and the content of the student book did not allow for the integration of one strategy for each week. Therefore, the strategy sessions were delivered in a non-integrated manner. Separate courses were scheduled for each week of training.

The fourth step of the training model is to focus on affective issues. Although learners seem to be anxious when they perform alone, the researcher's observations and

the learners' statements indicate that they feel more comfortable when they work with one or more interlocutors. As for the motivational issues, the participants are highly motivated to learn the interaction strategies because their speaking ability is tested through pair-tasks in oral tests. They also feel the need to improve their communicative skills since they are going to study in language departments after completing their preparatory education.

In the fifth stage of the model, the materials and activities are prepared. The researcher designed the materials for interactional strategy training for each week. Oxford et al. (1990) posit that the materials and activities should be designed to attract learners' attention, and be meaningful and varied. Therefore, all materials were created by the researcher taking into account these features. All eight training sheets, their contents, and the activities for controlled and free practice are described in detail in the section "research materials".

Conducting fully informed strategy training is the sixth step of the training. This phase is the core of the model, as the introduction to the strategies occurs in this phase. Overt teaching of the strategies was preferred to covert teaching because the teaching strategies were not seen as a threat to learners' existing cultural beliefs and attitudes about language learning. Among the suggestions of Oxford et al. (1990), demonstrating the strategies, helping them understand the benefits of the training, giving them opportunities to practice the strategies, helping them transfer their strategic knowledge to new tasks, and leading them to assess their strategy use and its effectiveness (p. 210) were followed by the researcher in each training session.

The final step in the intervention sessions is to evaluate the success of the strategy training. Oxford et al. (1990) propose a set of criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of strategy training. Among the criteria, two were selected by the researcher: progress on similar or the same tasks before and after training, and improved self-direction and responsibility. Briefly, to examine the effectiveness of strategy training pre-task, post-task and delayed post tasks, self-evaluation sheet and interviews were used.

## Data Collection Procedure

The present study was conducted during the fall and spring semesters of 2019-2020. Before the study began, the approval was obtained from the ethics committee (Appendix K). After the materials and data collection instruments were designed by the researcher, they were pilot tested in the 5th week of the fall term. In week 7, the participants were informed about the scope of the study and were guaranteed that the tasks and classroom activities that were to be conducted as part of the study would not affect their grades. They were also informed that they could withdraw at any time. Upon answering the students' questions, written copies of the consent forms were signed by the participants. After the forms were collected, participants in both the experimental and control groups were given a speaking task that paralleled the pre-task, post-task, and delayed post-task to familiarize students with the task type and reduce anxiety stemming from the new task type and the recording equipment. The participants were video recorded, but they were not included in the data. After the preparation phase was completed, the main study began with the pre-tasks. An overview of the data collection procedure can be found in Table 6.

In the 8th week of the semester, the pre-tasks were administered to both groups. Participants were randomly assigned into pairs to perform the pre-tasks. All three instruments, namely pre-task, post-task, and delayed post-task, were performed by the same pairs. The tasks were video-recorded in case some verbal and nonverbal features might be of use (Richards, 2003) while making decisions on the interactional patterns. It was also anticipated that video recordings might be particularly useful for decoding unclear speech through lip-reading and for distinguishing speakers in moments of overlapping speech.

**Table 6***Data Collection Procedure*

	Participants	Time & Duration	Procedure
<i>Pre-task</i>	Control & Experimental Groups <i>N</i> = 28	Before the intervention  10-15 minutes	Decision-making task In pairs Video-recorded Transcribed
<i>Intervention</i>  <i>(Interactional strategy training)</i>	Experimental Group  <i>N</i> = 14	8 weeks 8 x 90 minutes	<u>Experimental Group</u> Interactional strategy sheets (x8) Self-evaluation forms (x8)  <u>Control Group</u> Regular classroom activities & 8 speaking pair tasks in interactional strategy sheets
<i>Post-task</i>	Control & Experimental Groups <i>N</i> = 28	After the intervention  10-15 minutes	Decision-making task In pairs Video-recorded Transcribed
<i>A Semi-structured interview</i>	Experimental Group <i>N</i> = 14	8-10 minutes	Audio-recorded Transcribed
<i>Delayed post task</i>	Control & Experimental Groups <i>N</i> = 28	8 weeks after the intervention  10-15 minutes	Decision-making task Pairs Video-recorded Transcribed

Classroom design during the task performance was also taken into consideration. The tasks were given to two pairs at a time to make the participants feel more comfortable, to create a more natural environment, and to prevent the participants from feeling like they were in the spotlight because the camera was there. The pairs were videotaped simultaneously. Each pair was placed in the far corner of the classroom so that the participants' voices did not overlap. The dyads were informed that they had 2 minutes to

take a look at the task and that they were free to ask questions before beginning the task. The interaction tasks were performed under the supervision of the researcher. After completing the task, the other two dyads were invited inside and were given the pre-task.

One day after the pre-task, the intervention sessions began. The treatment for the experimental group ( $N = 14$ ) took place over eight 90-minute blocks, during which the interactional strategies were introduced and practiced. To maintain the teaching style across the eight treatment sessions, the researcher adhered to a carefully scripted lesson plan that had been prepared for each session and used interactional strategy sheets. All sessions took place during the regular instructional hours. Participants were first given the strategy training sheets, were guided in reading corpus-driven dialogues, and answered the corresponding questions. After a brief question-answer session, learners were instructed in the strategy in question, and predetermined formulaic sequences and phrases were covered in detail. Instruction was followed by controlled and free speaking tasks. After the free speaking task, learners were given self-evaluation forms to evaluate their performance on the pair task and to determine the extent to which they were able to apply the strategy covered in each session. This training procedure was followed for eight weeks.

For the duration of the eight-week strategy instruction, the control group ( $N = 14$ ) didn't receive any explicit strategy training. However, they performed the same paired tasks, which were given to the experimental group in the treatment sessions following the explicit strategy training, to control for the practice effect and to standardize the conditions for the experimental and control groups as much as possible.

After completion of the training sessions, participants in both groups received the post-task in accordance with the same method as for the pre-task. Two days later, focus group one-on-one interviews were conducted with all participants in the experimental group, and they were audiotaped. The interviews were undertaken in the participants' native language. During the interview, respondents were encouraged to contribute more and



elaborate on their responses using questions categorized in Richards (2003), such as checking/reflecting, follow up, structuring, and probing questions.

The delayed post-tasks were administered to both groups eight weeks after the end of the training sessions in the same procedure as for the pre- and post-tasks. Since the four-week winter semester break began after the post-test, the participants received no instruction during this period.

### **Data Analysis**

Data in this study were collected through pre-task, post-task and delayed post tasks, self-evaluation forms and semi-structured interviews. The approach to data analysis used in this study was mono data - multi analysis approach. Although the data were qualitative in nature, both qualitative and quantitative analyses were performed (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) state that when testing the hypothesis through analyzing learner language, qualitative data is usually gathered in the form of audio and video-recording, but that does not mean that quantifying the data by reducing it to a numerical measure is impossible. Quite the contrary, researchers resort to this type of analysis, called enumeration, to represent frequencies (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). In interactional analysis, quantification of data is usually preferred to examine how negotiation takes place depending on the setting, task type and the roles of the speakers (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). In the present study, it was used to investigate to what extent the target interactional strategies were used in dyads with different interaction roles. In addition to quantification, the findings were also presented discursively by discussing linguistic features in context and providing relevant examples. All in all, depending on the purpose of the study, qualitative data collection methods can be successfully used in line with quantitative data analysis. Table 7 shows the data collection instruments and data analysis methods for each research question.

**Table 7***Data Collection Instruments and Data Analysis Methods*

<i>Research Questions</i>	<i>Data Collection Instrument</i>	<i>Data-analysis</i>
1. What interaction patterns are formed by the dyads in the experimental and control groups across three testing times (pre-task post-task and delayed post-task)?	Pre-task Post task Delayed-post task	Content analysis (A priori coding)
2. Does the interactional strategy training have any immediate and long-term impact on the patterns of interaction in pair work?	Pre-task Post task Delayed-post task Self-evaluation forms Interviews	Content analysis
3. With what frequency do the participants use interactional strategies before the training after the training and eight weeks after the training?	Pre-task Post task Delayed-post task	Frequency analysis Descriptive Analysis
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the interactional strategy use of the participants in experimental and control groups in three testing times?	Pre-task Post task Delayed-post task	2x3 Mixed ANOVA
5. Is there a relationship between the strategy use of the dyads and their interaction patterns?	Pre-task Post task Delayed-post task	Content analysis Frequency analysis
6. How do the learners in the experimental group perceive the effectiveness of interactional strategy training in enhancing their collaboration?	Self-evaluation forms Interviews	Content analysis (open coding)

To answer the first and second research questions, the audiovisual data collected through pre, post and delayed post tasks were first transcribed. An important consideration in transcribing learner samples for analysis is the method of transcription. Since transcribing data takes a lot of time even with a broad system of notation, it is best if researchers adopt the method that are applicable to the purpose of their research (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Richards, 2003). For this reason, the researcher used the transcription conventions that can facilitate the process of determining interaction patterns and interactional strategies. (See Appendix I for the transcription conventions adapted from Richards (2003)). Conversations were transcribed on word documents verbatim. Each line was numbered for ease of reference in data analysis and presentation of findings. Once the videos were transcribed, they were first examined for patterns of interaction identified by Storch (2001, 2002), and later expanded by Galaczi (2008), Watanabe & Swain (2007) and Tan et al. (2010).

Among the methods used to create codes, a priori (deductive) coding was employed. A priori coding could mean using the existing codes already specified in the literature, hypothesis, or theoretical framework rather than developing them during data analysis (Miles et al., 2018). In this study, the transcripts of the pair conversations were examined to categorize them into interactional patterns, namely collaborative, dominant/dominant, dominant/passive, and expert/novice, expert/passive, cooperative and blend. In analyzing the transcripts for the codes, Creswell & Creswell (2018) approaches a priori coding with caution, stating that analysis with this coding system is limited to pre-existing codes. He advises researchers not to limit themselves and to be open to possible codes that may emerge during the course of the analysis. Following the recommendation, the researcher remained alert for novel patterns or those that had already been found and described in the literature.

In order not to overlook any details and to ensure consistency with the patterns identified (in other words, inter-rater reliability), the researcher created Table 8 drawing from

the characteristics of each interactional pattern described by Storch (2001, 2002) and other scholars.

**Table 8**

*Checklist for Interaction Patterns Based on Storch (2001, 2002), Watanabe & Swain (2007) and Tan et al. (2010)*

Interaction Pattern	Characteristics of Dyads
Collaborative	<p>Dyads contribute equally and engage in interaction.</p> <p>Dyads discuss their views and reach an agreement.</p> <p>Both speakers accept or finish what their interlocutor says.</p> <p>Both speakers requests information and provide feedback.</p> <p>Both speakers appeal or provide assistance when necessary.</p>
Dominant/Dominant	<p>Dyads do not engage with each other's contributions.</p> <p>Dyads insist on their own opinions, sometimes demonstrate tensions</p> <p>Dyads do not try to reach an agreement</p> <p>Feedback is given, but does not lead to repairs</p> <p>Speakers make few requests for information and provide little information</p>
Dominant / Passive	<p>One member of the pair dominates the interaction, the other does not participate and stays passive</p> <p>One member of the dyad dominates the interaction and do not attempt to involve/ help the other.</p> <p>One member of the dyad controls the conversation and ignores his partners' views/suggestions.</p> <p>The dominant member makes individual decisions and the passive member accepts them.</p> <p>The dominant member uses the pronoun "I" more than "we"</p>
Expert / Novice	<p>There is little negotiation because one of the members does not contribute</p> <p>One member of the dyad dominates the interaction, but tries to involve the other member</p> <p>One member of the pair helps the other learn by giving feedback the expert gives suggestions, but does not try to impose his/her own views</p> <p>The novice member accepts and repeats explanations</p>
Expert / Passive	<p>One member of the pair helps the other learn by giving feedback</p> <p>One member of the dyad dominates the interaction, but tries to involve the other member</p>

Watanabe & Swain (2007)	The expert gives suggestions and feedback, but does not try to impose his/her own views the passive member does not respond to the attempts above, and remains reluctant.
Cooperative	None of the participants control the task Participation and engagement is minimal for both interlocutors The interlocutors focus only on their contribution without engagement
Tan et al, (2010)	No tension is demonstrated between the dyads The interlocutors did not start discussions and ask questions about their sentences.

After the table was created, it was evaluated by the same instructor who served as the independent coder for the pre-task, post-task, and delayed post-task. The coder reviewed and evaluated the "feature table" in terms of content and language. Some items were edited to achieve clarity. Overall, patterns of interaction for pre-task, post-task, and delayed post-task were determined based on 1) pattern of contribution 2) decision-making behavior, 3) the nature of assistance 4) discourse and linguistic features (Storch, 2002).

In order to answer research question 3, which investigates the frequency of interactional strategies in pair-tasks before the training, after the training, and eight weeks after the training, a number descriptive and frequency analyses were computed. First, for the analysis of the interactional strategies, the transcripts of pair interactions collected through video recordings were analyzed using a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software package (ATLAS ti.). The pre-determined expressions found in the transcripts were enumerated and coded under each interaction strategy using ATLAS.ti. The number of strategies employed by the dyads in the experimental and control groups were presented through descriptive and frequency analysis in SPSS (see Appendix J for a screenshot of data analysis on ATLAS ti.).

In an attempt to answer question 4, which examines whether there is a significant difference in the use of interaction strategies across three testing times, a 2x3 Mixed Anova

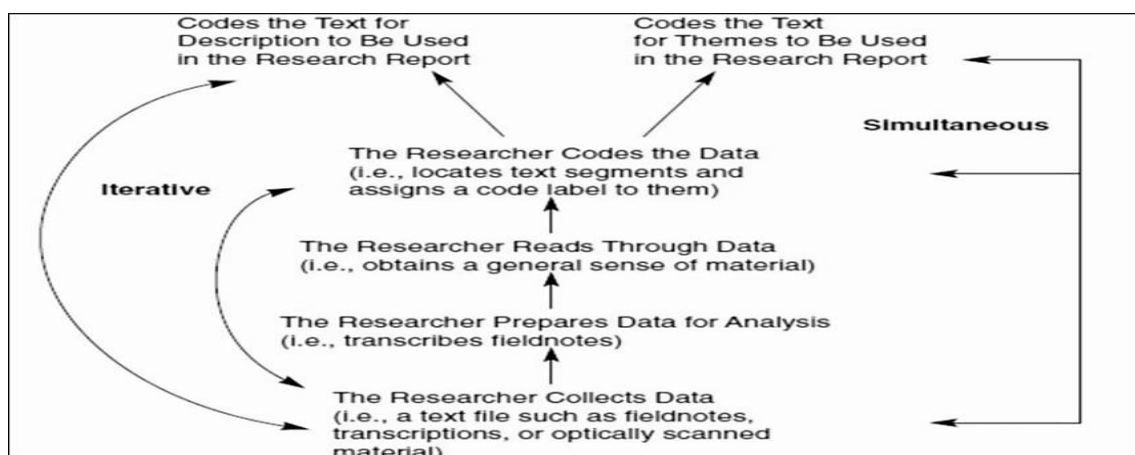
was conducted in SPSS. The frequency of strategies in each group was compared to find out if there was significant change within and between groups.

With the aim of answering the research question 5, which explores the relationship between the strategy use of dyads and their interaction patterns, the number of strategies employed by pairs with different interaction patterns was compared. The numbers already gathered for the analysis of question number 3 and the interaction patterns that were already identified for research question 1 were compared to find out if there is a link between the two.

To answer question six, the data collected throughout the interviews and self-evaluation forms were analyzed using inductive content analysis based on the steps defined in Creswell (2015). According to the data analysis spiral depicted in *Figure 6*, the collected data from interviews and self-evaluation forms were processed in several steps. Firstly, the data were organized and transcribed, followed by a thorough examination of the transcripts to identify meaningful units. Subsequently, the responses were subjected to open coding, with the identified codes being documented. These codes were then grouped and ranked to uncover emerging themes and codes. To ensure the reliability and validity of the findings, another expert in research methods reviewed the clustering and ranking process. Finally, the results were tabulated and presented to facilitate further discussion.

**Figure 6**

*Qualitative Process of Data Analysis (Creswell, 2015, p. 236)*



## **Reliability and Validity Issues**

Validity and reliability are two essential concepts to consider when ensuring the robustness of an empirical study. Patton (2002) replaces the traditional terms reliability and validity with "trustworthiness," explaining trustworthiness under the notions of credibility, confirmability, transferability, and reliability. Some of these terms were adopted in this study to ensure the credibility of the results.

Triangulation stands out as a term that enhances the credibility of research. In this study, triangulation was achieved through the use of data collection tools such as pair tasks, self-evaluation forms, and interviews. It is also ensured through the use of both quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods.

Another method to ensure the credibility of the present study was Prolonged Engagement. Prolonged engagement refers to the researcher's engagement in the field to understand the setting, culture, and subject (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To achieve it, the researcher spent time in the classroom and with the participants to build rapport and trust.

Peer debriefing (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was also utilized by the researcher to enhance conformability and dependability of the study. The assistance of a researcher familiar with the phenomenon under scrutiny and the research methods was believed to improve validation. Thus, a colleague with a degree from MA, who was familiar with interaction patterns, evaluated and reviewed materials and tasks and took part in data analysis as a co-rater.

The researcher also received assistance from an external auditor, who reviewed the entire study and provided a critical evaluation of the process and the product (Creswell, 2015). In the present study, a colleague other than the co-rater was asked to evaluate whether the findings and interpretations were supported by the available data.

Regarding the transferability of inquiry, the researcher provided thick descriptions for parts such as the literature review, participant profiles, and the setting. Detailed

information was also provided for each step of the process, including the creation and piloting of the materials, data collection tools, and data analysis for researchers wishing to generalize or transfer the findings to their context (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).



## Chapter 4

### Findings

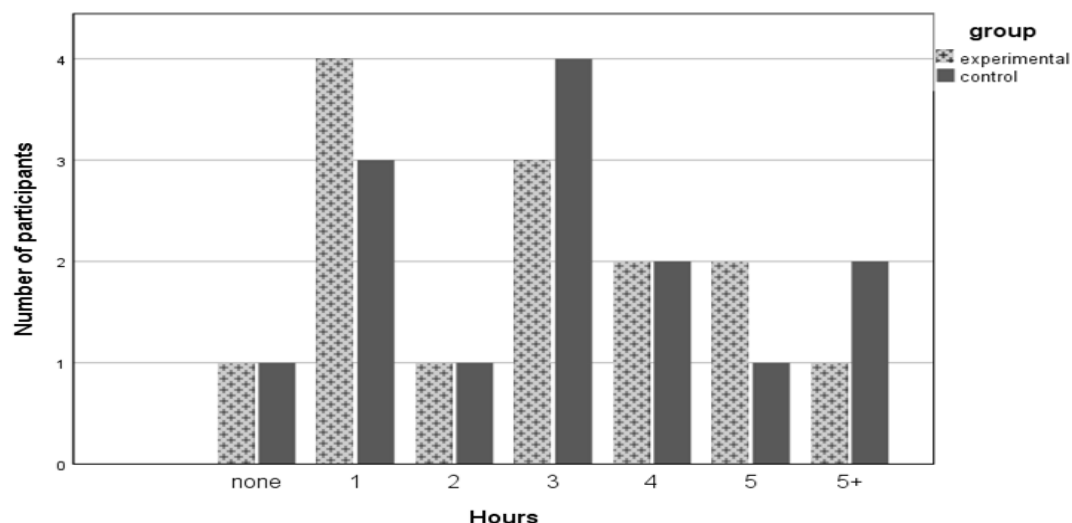
This chapter presents the results of the analyses of the participants' performance on various outcome measures. First, the background questionnaire was summarized. Second, the results regarding the patterns of interaction identified in pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test were presented. Next, the groups were compared to investigate the efficiency of the strategy training. After that, the quantitative findings concerning the strategy counts were presented for three testing times, as well as the statistical comparison of the experimental and control group. Following that, the findings of the analyses of the self-evaluation forms and semi-structured interviews were summarized.

#### The Background Questionnaire

Prior to the strategy training, the participants in the experimental and the control group was given a background questionnaire in order to explore the previous experiences of the participants with English related activities outside the school, control the confounding variables, and ensure the homogeneity of the groups. Figure 7 presents the descriptive statistics on the number of hours spent on speaking English outside the class in a week.

**Figure 7**

*The Number of Hours Spent by Groups Speaking English Outside in a Week*



As can be seen in Figure 7, overall, the groups spoke similar amounts of English outside the classroom. In the experimental group, the highest rated duration is 1 hour ( $N = 4$ ) followed by three hours ( $N = 3$ ), four hours ( $N = 2$ ) and five hours ( $N = 2$ ). On the other hand, in the control group, 4 participants reported speaking 3 hours of English, followed by 1 hour ( $N = 3$ ). While 2 participants spoke English outside for about 4 hours, another 2 students indicated that they practiced English for more than 5 hours. In conclusion, although there is variety in the time spent practicing English in the groups, they are homogenous when the total duration is considered.

In addition to the overall English speaking practice, respondents were also surveyed on other English-related activities, such as watching TV series, YouTube videos, and videos on social media, listening to songs and websites, and using English apps and websites. The frequency of respondents is given in Table 9.

**Table 9**

*The Number of Hours Spent by Groups on English Related Activities*

Groups	Hours	TV series	Songs	Podcasts	Social	
					Media / YouTube	Application / Website
Experimental Group	None	1	0	5	0	0
	1	1	3	3	2	3
	2	4	1	0	0	2
	3	1	2	4	2	3
	4	1	1	1	5	3
	5	1	0	0	2	2
	5+	5	7	1	3	1
Control Group	None	1	0	8	0	1
	1	0	1	2	0	2
	2	0	1	1	3	3
	3	5	3	0	3	3
	4	2	3	1	1	0
	5	2	2	1	4	2
	5+	4	4	1	3	3

Overall, Table 9 shows that participants in the experimental and control groups have similar experiences and habits of English-related activities and spend similar amounts of time on them. While both groups spend the most time watching TV series and listening to English songs, they spend the least time listening to podcasts. Nearly half of the students stated that they spend 5 or more than 5 hours watching TV series and listening to songs. This is followed by social media and YouTube use as the third most popular activity in both groups. Application and website use come fourth in popularity. Regarding podcast use, 8 participants in the experimental group and 10 in the control group indicated that they either do not listen to podcasts at all or only listen to them for one hour per week. All in all, it can be concluded that the groups are homogeneous in terms of the factors that may have an effect on the performance of the participants in the three testing times. Moreover, according to the results of the Oxford Quick Placement Test (2004), only students with an A2 level were included in the study. All of this, taken together, suggests that any difference in the two groups may be attributed to the intervention, but not to the aforementioned variables.

### **The Exploration of the Interaction Patterns and the Effectiveness of the Interactional Strategy Training**

In order to answer the first research question, which investigates the interaction patterns adopted by the participants in three testing times, and to answer the second research question, which aims to explore whether training learners with interactional strategies has an impact on participants' interaction patterns, interaction patterns were first identified for the pre-task, immediate post-task and the delayed post-task. The transcribed paired conversations were examined for features identifying collaborative, dominant/dominant, dominant/ passive, expert/novice, expert/passive, blend, and cooperative interaction. For the identification of the interaction patterns, the specified characteristics for interaction patterns based on Storch (2002), Watanabe & Swain (2007), Galaczi (2008) and Tan et al. (2010) were used. The results for the experimental group are presented in Table 10.

**Table 10**

*Patterns of Interaction Adopted by the Dyads in the Experimental Group in the Pre-Task*

Dyads	Pre-task
Betty - Chloe	Dominant / Passive
Holly - Maya	Dominant / Passive
Kai - Iris	Expert / novice
Mina- Sally	Collaborative
Fiona - Millie	Dominant /dominant
Victor- Daisy	Dominant / Passive
Faith - Dylan	Dominant - dominant

As seen in Table 10, the participants in the experimental group had a non-collaborative orientation in the pre-task, which was administrated before the training. The most common pattern identified in the pre-task was the dominant / passive pattern, which was found in three out of seven dyadic interactions. Sample excerpts from each interaction type are presented under respective titles. Line numbers in the excerpts represent the original line numbers in participant interactions.

### ***Dominant / Passive Pattern***

As a representation of the kind of relationship and features that indicate dominant / passive pattern, Chloe and Betty's conversation can be exemplified.

#### ***Excerpt 1. Chloe / Betty - Pre-task***

- 51 Chloe: a::nd desk ... double bed .. television .. chair...
- 52 Betty: chair... first of a::ll. I think... You don't need to buy a coffee table.
- 53 Chloe: yes, yes
- 54 Betty: Just a minute (.2) I like, I love drinking coffee
- 55 Chloe: yes
- 56 Betty: so, we should bu::y?
- 57 Chloe but I think we don't need bu::y ... it because because we put ... we can put it
- 58 table
- 59 Betty: on [the table, yeah]
- 60 Chloe: [another table]
- 61 Betty: yes, we can... put it on the table.
- 62 Chloe: yes

- 63 Betty: OK the::n we can buy bedside lamp ... because if we want reading ... if we  
 64 want to read a book, we can light and we can read a book.  
 65 Chloe: yes, [you're right]  
 66 Betty: [I will write it]

In excerpt 1, it can be observed that the contribution of the dyads is not equal. While Betty initiates turns and introduces new ideas (lines 52, 63), Chloe's contribution is usually limited to short answers and confirmations of Betty's utterances (lines 53, 55, 62, 65). In terms of the mutuality between the speakers, Betty seems to dominate the talk with self-directed utterances (lines 54, 66). Moreover, there is no overt intention to involve Chloe to the talk. After expressing her opinion, she makes individual choices without asking Chloe's opinion (lines 63, 66). On the other hand, Chloe remains mostly passive and follows Betty, except in line 57, where she expresses her own opinion. Besides, as can be seen in lines 59 and 61, Betty's feedback is ignored by Chloe and does not lead to repair, which makes it obvious that the interaction between Betty and Chloe bears features of a dominant / passive pattern.

### ***Dominant / Dominant Pattern***

The second most common pattern of interaction in the pre-task is the dominant / dominant pattern with two instances. The excerpt that exemplifies this pattern comes from the interaction of Millie and Fiona discussing the items they want to buy for their new apartment.

#### *Excerpt 2. Pre-task – Millie / Fiona*

- 34 Millie: maybe:: they may have a discount for curtains .. a:s they are .. expensive for  
 35 students.  
 36 Fiona: erm, a drawer  
 37 Mille: drawers... I think I we don't need a drawers ..because erm .. no:: maybe you  
 38 are students about painting,  
 39 Fiona: yes  
 40 Millie: you need to it, but we study English, we don't it .. we don't need it.  
 41 Fiona: I think we: need it because some erm... some.. small clothes ... that we, that  
 42 we use:: use, maybe:: we can use it and put it [in drawers]  
 43 Millie: [I think], it is interesting .. way  
 44 Fiona: I think ((writes something on sheet, probably the Turkish meaning)) I know.. like that.

- 45 Milie: *Drawers şey değil mi? Çizim, tablo?* (doesn't drawer mean drawing, painting?)  
 46 Fiona: I gu..  
 47 Milie: don't Turkish  
 48 Fiona: OK  
 49 Milie: Sofa, wardrobe, television,  
 50 Fiona: bookshelf  
 51 Milie: erm.. maybe:: we have:: we need to have a single bed, but if you are .. you  
 52 have friend from class, you wanted invite him.

In excerpt 2, the level of equality between the interactants is high, although it is not the case for mutuality between them. Both dyads contribute to the task. However, they do not seem to be engaged with each other's opinions. As seen in lines 36, 50, and 51, both dyads ignore their partners' previous utterance, and change the subject focusing on their own ideas. They rarely request for information. Unresolved misunderstandings are also evident in the excerpt. Millie confuses the word drawer with painting and insists that they do not need it as they are studying English (lines 37, 40). Fiona knows the correct meaning, and also insists that they need it for their clothes (line 41). Unable to clear up the misunderstanding, they fall back on their native language (line 45). Millie's warning not to use Turkish may have left the problem unresolved since they change the subject without discussing it (line 49). Both dyads' attempts to control the direction of the task, their disregard for the other's opinion, and their failure to reach an agreement indicate the dominant/dominant pattern.

### ***Expert / Novice Pattern***

In the pre-task, only one of seven pairs formed an expert /novice pattern. During the interaction, Iris assumed the role of expert, while Kai took the role of novice. Excerpt 3 shows some typical features of the expert/novice pattern formed by Iris and Kai.

#### ***Excerpt 3. Pre-task – Iris / Kai***

- 5 Iris: I think we should err prefer.. prefer to buy a single bed or double bed? Umm... Which  
 6 one do you choose?  
 7 Kai: hmmm I think double bed because err I don't want to err double err two person err so:  
 8 Iris: don't want to sleep...

- 9 Kai: yes
- 10 Iris: with two person.
- 11 Kai: a:nd so .. I think ... I want to double that.
- 12 Iris: I agree with you ... because it price is more reasonable than single bed.
- 13 Kai: yes I think erm I think .. we bu::y double bed erm we should double bed err and
- 14 maybe: .. we bu:y err wardrobe because err everywhere...
- 15 Iris: we have to put [ our ]
- 16 Kai: [if untidy]
- 17 Iris: yes
- 18 Kai: maybe
- 19 Iris: we have to put our clothes somewhere.
- 20 Kai: yes [err it]
- 21 Iris: so:: it is necessary
- 22 Kai: it ..it is or fifteen dollar is cheap
- 23 Iris: yes, it is cheap... what else?
- 24 Kai: a:nd maybe mirror err because we have ... we don't have in dormitory .. mirror err I
- 25 think err we need a:: a mirror.

In Excerpt 3, Iris seems to be more actively leading the task and extending the conversation (line 18), but she does not attempt to dominate the task or assume an authoritarian role. Instead, she encourages Kai to participate by asking her opinion (lines 5, 6, 23). She also assists Kai and completes her utterances when she needs help (lines 7, 9). All in all, we can assume that Iris takes the role of an expert. On the other hand, Kai does not remain passive, but she responds to the questions and participates in the talk (lines 7, 23), expressing her own opinion (lines 10, 12), proving that she listens and accepts Iris's utterances by giving positive feedback (lines 6, 17, 19). From this, we can conclude that Kai behaves like a novice in this conversation.

### ***Collaborative Pattern***

Only one pair shows a cooperative interaction pattern in the pre-task. The interaction between Mina and Sally exhibits many features observed in a collaborative interaction. The following is an excerpt that contains some of these features:

#### ***Excerpt 4. Pre-task – Sally / Mina***

- 1 Sally: I think .. we don't need it.. bedside lamp?

- 2 Mina: why do you think so?  
 3 Sally: because bedside lamp erm..I don't erm ever use erm home .. before  
 4 Mina: yes  
 5 Sally: erm and you?  
 6 Mina: I think .. this unnecessary .. I agree with you.  
 7 Sally: OK,  
 8 Mina: you're right  
 9 Sally: OK.. Then we pass it?  
 10 Mina: yes, we pass it.  
 11 Sally: single bed, or double bed?  
 12 Mina: I think we should bu::y single bed.  
 13 Sally: single be::d  
 14 Mina: yes  
 15 Sally: erm.. Me too, me to, because:: erm ((laughs)) I want to:: sleep in single bed.  
 16 Mina: yes  
 17 Sally: OK, we choose two single bed?  
 18 Mina: yes... thirty dollar dollar.

The conversation in excerpt 4 shows both high mutuality and high equality. The amount of the contribution seems to be equal, as neither speaker tries to dominate the task. They also engage with each other's utterances. The interactants switch roles between listener to speaker as the interaction progresses. The most salient feature observed in this excerpt is that the dyads ask each other's opinion before coming to a conclusion (lines 5, 11). They also ask follow-up questions (line 2) and ask for confirmation before moving on (lines 5, 9, 17). In addition, the participants constantly provide positive feedback as an indicator of active listening and confirmation (lines 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 16, 17). The repetition of the partner's previous utterance also indicates collaborative interaction.

### **Interaction Patterns Adopted by the Experimental Group in the Post-task**

The qualitative analysis of the peer interactions for the post-test were performed and the results are presented with pre-test and delayed post-test in table 11. What stands out in this table is that there is an obvious change from non-collaborative to collaborative. Although there is a non-collaborative tendency in the pre-task, five out of seven pairs work collaboratively in the post task. Among them, there are two pairs that worked in the



dominant/passive pattern in the pre-task. There was also one expert/novice and one dominant/dominant dyad in the pre-task. The dyads who did not form a collaborative pattern also switched to more collaborative patterns. One pair that previously worked in the dominant/passive pattern switched to the expert/novice pattern, and one pair that adopted the dominant/dominant pattern in the post-task formed a blended interaction pattern. This result suggests that the participants positively changed the way they interacted with their conversational partners and began to work more collaboratively in the post-task. Thus, this finding indicates that training learners with interactional strategies may have contributed to their interactional behavior.

**Table 11**

*Patterns of Interaction Adopted by the Dyads in the Experimental Group*

Dyads	Pre-task	Post-task	Delayed Post-task
Betty - Chloe	Dominant / Passive	Collaborative	Collaborative
Holly - Maya	Dominant / Passive	Collaborative	Collaborative
Kai - Iris	Expert / novice	Collaborative	Collaborative
Mina- Sally	Collaborative	Collaborative	Collaborative
Fiona - Millie	Dominant / dominant	Collaborative	Collaborative
Victor- Daisy	Dominant / Passive	Expert / novice	Expert / novice
Faith - Dylan	Dominant - dominant	Blend	Collaborative

To get a clearer picture of the changes in the way participants interact, compare them to dyads' pre-task performance, and identify the differences, an in-depth analysis of peer interactions are performed and presented. The excerpt below shows the collaborative interaction between Millie and Fiona, who adopted a dominant/dominant pattern in the pre-task.

*Excerpt 5. Millie & Fiona - Immediate Post-task*

- 62 Millie: shall we turn on the next one? It is a compass  
 63 Fiona: yes, a compass erm...  
 64 Millie: what is your idea about this?  
 65 Fiona: when we go:: somewhere erm to: gather food or drinking erm ...  
 66 Millie: you mean that you search ... you look for something?  
 67 Fiona: yes

- 68 Millie: in the dark or,...
- 69 Fiona: I think we can go:: erm ...
- 70 Millie: anytime
- 71 Fiona: a day in a day , not at night.
- 72 Millie: OK
- 73 Fiona: so:: maybe we can not go back to our camp, campsite.
- 74 Millie: erm.. You mean that you are lost?... you know...
- 75 Fiona: we can lost, [so::]
- 76 Millie: [yes], correct
- 77 Fiona: we can take ... compass with us.
- 78 Millie: yes. You know that erm ... compass in the past, there wasn't no compass and in the
- 79 past, people in the past used to use ant ant's place a:nd,
- 80 Fiona: anthill?
- 81 Millie: not until
- 82 Fiona: anthill
- 83 Millie: what do you mean anthill?
- 84 Fiona: it is like, ... as far as I know erm ... it is like nest of [erm ants]
- 85 Millie: [yes, yes] I mean this... and they decide it erm ... they can no:: they could
- 86 their way thanks to:: ant.
- 87 Fiona: and also, they look up for, look up to stars

Regarding the equality between the interlocutors, it is clear that Millie and Fiona participate equally in the conversation and exchange their utterances in an orderly fashion. Neither speaker attempts to dominate the conversation or adopt an authoritarian stance. It is also clear that both interactants are trying to engage the other in the task. First, Millie takes the turn and introduces the word compass as one of the items to take to a desert island (line 62). Next, Millie asks for her partner's opinion to encourage her (line 64). As Fiona talks about the item compass, Millie asks for confirmations (lines 66, 74) and asks follow-up questions (line 68). Fiona clarifies her remarks and expands the topic (lines 65, 71, 73). Millie continues to expand the topic and begins to talk about what people used to do before the invention of the compass (lines 78-79). When she uses the phrase "ant's place," she helps her partner by introducing the word "anthill" with a rising intonation, meaning "You mean anthill?" (line 80). Millie's misunderstanding is resolved by her request for clarification (line 83) and Fiona's clarification (line 84). After the resolution, Fiona further

elaborates on the previous idea about the uses of the compass (line 87). Furthermore, the dyad's constant positive feedback (lines 63, 67, 72, 76, 78, 85) throughout the interaction contributes to the collaborative environment. In terms of discourse moves, we can observe that this excerpt is rich in interactional strategies such as asking for opinion and giving opinion, clarification requests, giving help, confirmation requests and provision of clarification and confirmation, which are considered salient features of collaborative speech. Considering that this pair formed a dominant/dominant pattern in the pre-task, it seems that their interaction went through a transition process and evolved into a collaborative interaction. It can be observed that this dyad was able to transform their conversation, in which the dyads did not engage in their partner's talk, focused on their own contribution and were mostly self-centered, into an interaction that shows high engagement, exchange of ideas, turn taking, extension of utterances, etc.

In addition to improvements identified in the interactions of dominant participants, it has been observed that passive interactants also show a progression in speaking more collaboratively with their partners. To exemplify this, a collaborative interaction is retrieved from the exchanges between Victor and Daisy during their talk on the items they want to take with them on a deserted Island. In the pre-task, this pair worked in a dominant / passive pattern. Victor was the dominant dyad, while Daisy was the passive interactant.

*Excerpt 6. Victor & Daisy – Immediate Post-task*

- 135 Victor: but .. these two item axe and knife works the same in the same same way.  
 136 Daisy: erm..  
 137 Victor: you understand me?  
 138 Daisy: I understand, but we choose a knife?  
 139 Victor: yes, we choose a knife .. so: .. again choose a different kind of knife  
 140 unnecessary .. would be unnecessary. What is your opinion?  
 141 Daisy: you could be right, but I erm ... I don't think so:: ... because an axe erm ... is is  
 142 more important than a knife ... because maybe .. maybe we want to cut  
 143 plants .. to:: ... *yakmak (burn)* I don't I [don't remember ... this word.]  
 144 Victor: to:: to make a fire.  
 145 Daisy: to make a fire ... erm .. I think erm .. an axe is more important than a knife.

- 146 Victor: actually ... when I look .. your opinion ... in your erm... perspective ... this  
 147 could be:: you're, you're right because erm .. to make a fire: a knife is not enough  
 148 ... [to cut]  
 149 Daisy: [to cut] plants  
 150 Victor: ye::s and .. I .. didn't .. I dint think in your way.  
 151 Daisy: Erm .. so:: we: we can change...

As can be seen in Excerpt 6, the interaction between Victor and Daisy exhibits a high degree of equality and mutuality. Both Victor and Daisy exchange a similar number of turns with similar length and hold the ground evenly. Their interaction shows no signs of dominance. Both speakers initiate and extend topics (lines 135, 138, 139-143, 144-146). Throughout the excerpt, it is clear that the dyads seek opinions (line 141) and exchange ideas (141, 145, 146), suggesting collaboration in decision making process. Disagreements are also resolved through interaction and reasoning. Daisy, for example, disagrees that Victor prefers the knife to the axe. However, without ignoring Victor's thoughts, she accepts Victor's statement by saying "you could be right," and then expresses her opinion on the issue (line 141). While trying to justify her opinion, she cannot remember the word "to make fire" and asks for help by saying "I don't remember the word". Victor immediately assists her partner by providing the word (line 144) and Daisy repeats the expression. Victor expresses her agreement with Daisy and changes his mind about taking a knife. Their exchange of about 15 lines shows how much the dyads engage with each other's contribution.

As for the features that distinguish their interaction pattern, the excerpt shows the use of comprehension checks (line 137), confirmation requests (line 138), asking for help (line 143), giving help (line 144), asking for opinion (line 140), giving opinion (lines 141, 145, 147), and positive feedback (lines 139, 141, 147, 150). The high number of interactional strategies utilized by the speaker further contributes to the collaboration between the interactants.

Compared to their pre-task performance, it is clear that Victor, who was the dominant speaker in the pre-task, acts more cooperatively and supportively and also respects his partner's contribution. His efforts to share the floor with his partner show the remarkable change he has undergone. On the other hand, the passive interactant Daisy, who usually remained shy and reluctant during the pre-task, contributes more actively to the conversation, initiating and expanding topics, justifying her ideas, requesting and providing confirmations and clarifications.

Another transition to collaborative pattern occurs in the dyad who exhibited the characteristics of an expert / novice interaction pattern. Excerpt 7 illustrates some features of the collaborative talk between Iris and Kai. In the pre-task, Iris was the expert while Kai was the Novice.

#### Excerpt 7. Iris & Kai – Immediate Post-task

- 36 Kai: I think ... do you know what I think, I think erm a lamp is vital ((incorrect pronunciation  
37 of the word vital)) ((Iris looks confused))  
38 Kai: vital  
39 Iris: vital, you mean vital?  
40 Kai: vital for us ... because when we:: go there, erm ... everywhere... it can be dark  
41 everywhere,  
42 Iris: yes  
43 Kai: so:: erm.. we need we can need lamp... do you:: what what do you think?  
44 Iris: [In my opinion,]  
45 Kai: [for this item]  
46 Iris: erm a lamp is an important item,  
47 Kai: yes  
48 Iris: because:: at night, as you know we:: we are in  
49 Kai: if we meet .. wild animals.  
50 Iris: yes, there might be::  
51 Kai: or bump needle,  
52 Iris: yes, there might be animals,  
53 Kai: yeah  
54 Iris: and  
55 Kai: so:  
56 Iris: it is necessary  
57 Kai: yeah  
58 Iris: so:: we can add it too?  
59 Kai: yeah  
60 Iris: OK, a lamp.  
61 Kai: let's move to the next item ... erm (3.)  
62 Iris: Ok  
63 Kai: is axe important

As it is evidenced by excerpt 7, the interaction between Iris and Kai is an example of a collaborative talk with short turns. Although the speakers interrupt their partners' speech, they do not seem to feel disturbed, as the interruptions are usually in the form of acknowledgement tokens such as "yes", "yeah" "OK" or an extension of the previous utterance (lines 49, 51, 54). Such attempts do not imply any motivation to take the floor and dominate the conversation. On the contrary, these short turns may also be an indicator of the dyads' willingness to engage with the other's contribution. Moreover, this excerpt exemplifies how collaborative pairs can support each other during interaction. While Kai is talking about the importance of taking the item "lamp" she uses the word "vital" with an incorrect pronunciation (line 36). The look of confusion on Iris's face prompts Kai to pronounce the word one again (line 38). Following that, Iris requests confirmation in order to verify that she heard the right word (line 39). Kai immediately adopts Iris's pronunciation and repeats the word with the correct pronunciation. In short, Iris's request for confirmation leads to an other-initiated repair. Similar to her pre-task role, Iris takes an active role throughout the interaction, supporting her partner, asking for confirmations, and extending her partner's contribution. Thus, her cooperative attitude, which was also observed in the pre-task, is supported by the rich use of interactional strategies. In the case of Kai, it is evident that her interactional behavior changed significantly from her pre-task performance to post-task. During her pre-task performance, Kai's contribution was very limited and restricted to responses to questions and initiations from Iris. She accepted and repeated explanations but was unable to initiate one. However, during her interaction in the immediate post-task, she initiates topics and expresses her own ideas (lines 36-37, 61, 63), asks for opinion (lines 43, 63), responds to Iris's utterances (lines 40, 49, 51), and provides constant feedback in the form of acknowledgements and confirmations (lines 47, 53, 57). Compared to her pre-task performance, she takes a relatively more active role. Her contribution to the task increases the degree of equality and mutuality between the dyads and forms a collaborative interaction pattern.

In the experimental group, only one group formed an interaction that did not exactly fit a pattern in the initial analysis. The exchange between Dylan and Faith, which showed a dominant-dominant interaction pattern in the pre-task, exhibited features of both a dominant-dominant and a collaborative interaction in the post-task. To illustrate these features, two dialogs were presented in Excerpt 8 and Excerpt 9.

*Excerpt 8. Dylan & Faith – Immediate Post-task*

- 337 Dylan: but if it is not afraid of you, what can you do?  
 338 Faith: yeah, they don't afraid of gun .. too maybe.  
 339 Dylan: no: Faith  
 340 Faith: why? why? ((rising intonation)) ((smiles))  
 341 Dylan: OK ... let's talk about the other things  
 342 Faith: no we can just .. ohh other things OK we can .. we just [need have a chance]  
 343 Dylan: [because I chose a gun]  
 344 Faith: because we: selected six items.  
 345 Dylan: teacher, we write six item... we [have one more.]  
 346 Faith: [yes .. we will ] choose another time, another one.  
 347 Dylan: possible items  
 348 Faith: I am still suggesting a knife.  
 349 Dylan: a knife? ... NO: a gun ((both laugh))

Excerpt 8 illustrates a typical dominant-dominant interaction between Faith and Dylan. After a long exchange of about 20 turns, Faith and Dylan cannot agree on whether to take a knife or a gun. In line 339, Dylan says no without giving a reason, and it seems that Faith expresses her dissatisfaction by asking why with rising intonation (line 340). However, she also smiles as she does so since they are friends. Without responding to Faith's question, Dylan changes the subject (line 341). Although Faith shows her unwillingness to change the subject by giving negative feedback (line 342), she later admits it and follows Dylan. Meanwhile, Dylan interrupts the conversation and uses first-person language (line 343), showing his intention to make individualized decisions. Faith, however, insists on the necessity of the knife (line 348) and Dylan shows no signs of agreement saying "no" in an authoritarian tone (line 349).

Disagreements and unwillingness to engage in shared decision making evident in some parts of the interaction might at first glance indicate a dominant-dominant pattern. However, both Dylan and Faith smile and laugh too often, even at times when they have disagreements. The part in excerpt 9 where they finally decide to use the gun shows the positive atmosphere.

*Excerpt 9. Dylan & Faith – Immediate Post-task*

- 346 Faith: I am still suggesting a knife.  
 347 Dylan: a knife? ... no: a gun ((both laugh))  
 348 Faith: Ok .. Ok  
 349 Dylan: Ok a gun  
 350 Faith: but if we:: will die, it will be:: your problem.  
 351 Dylan: No:: [we won't die]  
 352 Faith: [it will be your fault] ... everything will be your fault ((both smile))  
 353 Dylan: you can sure of that ((both laugh))  
 354 Faith: you will protect me from wild animals.  
 355 Dylan: yes  
 356 Faith: Maybe you will sacrifice yourself ... it is not my problem ((both smile))

As seen in Excerpt 9, Faith's conditional agreement to receive the gun leads to an exchange of eight turns (lines 348 - 356). Dylan promises to protect Faith as he convinces Faith (line 355). The dyads smile and laugh during the exchange, showing the positive and constructive environment between the speakers. As for the salient features identified in this conversational exchange, it is evident that the dyads exhibit the characteristics of collaborative speech. Excerpt 10 illustrates some of these features.

*Excerpt 10. Dylan & Faith – Immediate Post-task*

- 83 Faith: yes better a:nd ... first I think we don't need a tent because it will be erm (4.0) damage  
 84 for a while, after a while... after for a while.  
 85 Dylan: In my opinion erm ... a tent is the most important thing.  
 86 Faith: oh why do you think so?  
 87 Dylan: Because a tent is also can provide, can protect you from the small animals.  
 88 Faith: [ah you mean insects]?  
 89 Dylan: [like mosque]  
 90 Faith: ah mosquitos  
 91 Dylan: yes



- 92 Faith: you mean mosquitos?  
 93 Dylan: mosquitos mosquitos ((both laugh))  
 94 Faith: OK  
 95 Dylan: mosquito::s erm..  
 96 Faith: oh you're right actually

As can be seen in excerpt 10, the exchange presupposes both equality and mutuality. In contrast to the part of the conversation in which the dyads insist on their own opinions, making individualized decisions and ignoring each other's opinions, in this exchange, both Faith and Dylan switch back and forth between the roles of speaker and listener, initiate topics (lines 83, 85, 87), and extend on each other's remarks (lines 88, 89), and ask follow-up questions (line 86). They also help each other when they are in need. Even though Dylan has not asked for help, Faith introduces the word "insect" through a confirmation check (line 88) when Dylan says "little animals." Dylan wants clarify himself by giving the example "mosquitoes," but he has trouble pronouncing the word correctly (line 89). Faith immediately jumps in and helps Dylan by giving the correct pronunciation (line 90). The feedback leads to repair, and Dylan repeats the word with a correct pronunciation (line 93). All in all, Dylan and Faith, who formed a dominant/dominant interaction pattern in the pre-task, seem to maintain the level of equality with their balanced conversation in the post-task. Most of the change takes place concerning mutuality, in that in the pre-task, the interactants were not engaged with each other's opinions, change topics without extending on them (fast topic decay, Galaczi, 2008), and attempt to dominate the talk. In the post-task, they still insist on their opinions and try to reach agreement, but their interaction exhibits many of the characteristics of a collaborative conversation mentioned above. With this in mind, this interaction has been termed a *blended interaction* (Galaczi, 2008).

### **Interaction Patterns Adopted by the Experimental Group in the Delayed Post-Task**

The analysis of the experimental group interactions in the delayed post-task showed that six out of seven groups formed a collaborative interaction. Furthermore, six out of seven dyads formed the same interaction pattern as in the immediate post-task. Of these, five

groups worked in a collaborative pattern, while one dyad worked in an expert/novice pattern. Only one dyad changed their interaction from a blend to a collaborative. Some sample exchanges from the learners' interaction in the delayed post-task, in which the dyads are asked to select seven occupations to take with them on a plane on their way to a new life on another planet.

*Excerpt 11. Kai & Iris – delayed Post-task*

- 79 Kai: and umm (2.0) a farmer is important.  
 80 Iris: yes  
 81 Kai: I think because to produce ... a [new food]  
 82 Iris: [but why] do you think so? what makes you say that?  
 83 Kai: because ... to produce new things like potatoes, potatoes or pepper erm because we  
 84 live in .. we live in an area... we need to eat some products ... and  
 85 we have to produce some erm ... some vegetables or fruits.  
 86 Iris: so: the basic idea is that erm we produce something for humanity.  
 87 Kai: humanity yes .. so:: we so:  
 88 Iris: actually you're totally right... I agree with you.  
 89 Kai: yes .. so: we can write farmer.  
 90 Iris: I mean to stay alive.. we have to eat and ...  
 91 Kai: yes we have [to produce something]  
 92 Iris: [to eat something] ...we have to produce something  
 93 Kai: yes.. yes you're right.  
 94 Iris: so: I am adding this?  
 95 Kai: yes .. and we can add this.

The exchange in excerpt 11 shows an obviously equal contribution of the dyads. Both interactants seem to be involved in the conversation, given that they both initiate (lines 79, 81, 83, 90) and extend (lines 86, 91, 92) topics. The expansion is sometimes initiated with a follow-up question (line 82). Iris's paraphrase in line 86 and her clarification with the paraphrase "I mean" may also indicate her intention to elaborate her own utterances and not to cause any communication breakdowns. The positive feedback in the form of acknowledgement tokens such as "yes, you are right, you're absolutely right" and the repetition of the partner's previous utterance (lines 87, 92, 95) is also a salient feature of a collaborative talk. The use of the pronoun "we" (lines 89, 90, 91, 95) and confirmation check (line 94) also indicate learners' efforts to make joint decisions. In line 94, although Iris and

Kai use the first person singular, which may be an indication of dominance (Storch, 2002), the interactants are not trying to impose their views, but to express their opinions and clarify themselves. All in all, the interaction between Kai and Iris indicates a collaborative interaction with rich use of interactional features.

*Excerpt 12. Millie & Fiona - Delayed Post-task*

- 50 Millie: the other one is a scientist.... personally a scientist is erm .. so crucial for space .. and  
 51 you know that these days scientist try to discover ... and find out the space and maybe  
 52 they have ... and more important information than us ...so: we should choose one  
 53 ... and you?  
 54 Fiona: I think this is the second important thing.  
 55 Millie: after teacher?  
 56 Fiona: after teacher [yes.]  
 57 Millie: [yes] you're right  
 58 Fiona: but erm ... which may be the most important thing ... because thanks to them  
 59 Millie: yes  
 60 Fiona: thanks to: a scientist ... we can go... we: ...  
 61 Millie: you mean that erm .. we can research anything thanks to them?  
 62 Fiona: yes  
 63 Millie: you're right.  
 64 Fiona: and then a teacher erm .. learn from a scientist and teach what she or he learn. And  
 65 erm ...I think our ... our...  
 66 Millie: our idea.  
 67 Fiona: yes changed  
 68 Millie: Ok  
 69 Fiona: so: ... I'll write scientist as first?  
 70 Millie: Ok ... and then teacher.

Excerpt 12 is an example of typical collaborative speech. Both equality and mutuality between the interactants are high, given the salient features of collaborative speech. Both Millie and Fiona contribute equally to the task and do not attempt to dominate or lead the task. They alternate between the roles of speaker and listener. As for the mutuality, both speakers initiate topics and extends on them (lines 50-53, 58, 60), ask for and give opinions (lines 50, 53, 54, 65), clarify their own utterances (lines 51, 52, 58) and ask for clarifications (line 61), give help when their partner cannot find the right word to express their idea (line 66), give positive feedback (56, 57, 59, 62, 63, 67, 68, 70), and encourage their partner to

extend on the topic (line 53). Thus, we can conclude that Millie and Fiona, who worked collaboratively in the post-task, managed to maintain the level of collaboration between them by applying several interaction strategies that they were taught during the training period.

The fact that six out of the seven dyads formed the same pattern of interaction as in the immediate post task sets the only dyad that showed a transition apart from the others. Faith and Dylan, who formed a dominant-dominant interaction in the pre-task and a blended interaction in the post-task, worked collaboratively in the delayed post-task. An excerpt from their exchange in the delayed post-task illustrates the nature of their interaction.

*Excerpt 13. Faith & Dylan - Delayed Post-task*

- 45 Dylan: scientist .. I think erm ... engineer... engineer is the third one.  
 46 Faith: um.. Why do you think so?  
 47 Dylan: we can we can.. It can make ... the plan of structure that builder building.  
 48 Faith: hmm  
 49 Dylan: yes  
 50 Faith: you may be right actually... but you know a new planet. A new area for to live erm we  
 51 need to search them... and we cannot do it by alone ... scientist is knowledge about  
 52 them .. you know material like that.  
 53 Dylan: maybe but .. yes  
 54 Faith: yeah  
 55 Dylan: maybe it can bu:t I don't know. (2.0) we already ... we will already take the astronaut  
 56 I, I think we don't need a scientist because ...  
 57 Faith: you think the astronaut know the same information as ... [scientist]?  
 58 Dylan: [yes] we don't need scientist.  
 59 Faith: then, I will write engineer?  
 60 Dylan: OK.

Excerpt 13 illustrates an example of collaborative interaction between Faith and Dylan in the delayed-post task. Similar to the pre-task and post-task, the pair is trying to make a decision, but disagree on whether they should take a scientist or an engineer on the spaceship. In the delayed post task, it is clear that the interactants have differing opinions like they do on the post-test. Compared to the pre-task and post-task the speakers

act more cooperatively to reach an agreement and make joint decisions. This is evident in the dyads' efforts to ask for reasons for their decision and to justify their point of view. Even at times when the dyads disagree, they first acknowledge their conversational partner's point of view by using phrases such as "maybe," "maybe you can," "you may be right," (lines 50, 53, 55) before making their counterargument. Considering that the dyad employed negative feedback such as "no" constantly, used first person singular, and made individualized decisions in the pre-task and to some extent in the post-task, there is an obvious transition to work more collaboratively in the delayed post-task. The dyads' insistence on their point of view and authoritarian behaviors are not observed in the delayed post-task. On the contrary, they exchange ideas and ask for confirmation to encourage their partner to participate in decision making.

In summary, detailed examination of dyadic interaction in the experimental group reveals that all the dyads have developed a more collaborative interaction in the immediate post-task and the delayed post-task. Positive change in dyads' interactional skills with more instances of collaborative moves, turn taking, extensions, questions, confirmations and clarifications is evident. The interactions between the participants turned out to be higher in equality and mutuality. The findings suggest that the reason for the learners' collaborative orientation could be the interaction strategy training. However, to support this hypothesis, the interactions of the dyads in the control group that did not receive strategy training must also be examined.

### **Patterns of Interaction Formed by the Dyads in the Control Group**

In order to control for some external variables that might affect the change in the interaction patterns of the experimental group, the control group was also given the pre-task, the post task, and the delayed-post-task. Just as in the analysis of the interactions in the experimental group, the conversations were transcribed and were later analyzed for the

interaction patterns. The patterns formed by the dyads in the control group are presented in table 12.

**Table 12**

*The Interaction Patterns Formed by the Dyads in the Control Group*

Dyads	Pre-task	Post-task	Delayed post-task
Ann - Ollie	Dominant- dominant	Dominant - dominant	Dominant -dominant
Blake - Bruce	Collaborative	Dominant - passive	Collaborative
Macy - Shea	Dominant-dominant	Collaborative	Dominant- dominant
Amy - Matt	Expert - passive	Expert – Novice	Expert – Novice
Gwen - Sarah	Expert - novice	Collaborative	Collaborative
Mary -Bella	Dominant/ dominant	Dominant – dominant?	Expert / novice
Sofie - Zadie	Dominant / passive	Dominant /passive	Expert /passive

As can be seen in Table 12, the dyads in the pre-task mostly adopted a non-collaborative interaction. Three dyads formed a dominant / dominant pattern, one a dominant / passive pattern, and one an expert / passive pattern. Being in a more collaborative end, one dyad interacted in the expert / novice pattern. Only one dyad formed a collaborative pattern. In the post-task, conducted 8 weeks after the pre-task, the pattern of three dyads remained the same, and these pairs continued to form the dominant / dominant and dominant / passive patterns. Two of the dyads moved to a collaborative interaction from dominant/dominant and expert/novice pattern. Only one of the groups switched to a non-collaborative interaction. In the delayed post-task, two dyads worked collaboratively, while 2 formed a dominant / dominant pattern and two formed an expert / novice pattern. There was only one dyad that adopted an expert/passive pattern. In summary, there is a shift toward more collaborative interactions, but compared to the experimental group, the transition from non-collaborative to collaborative interactions is less evident in the control group. Six of the eight dyads that received interactional strategy training were able to adopt a collaborative pattern in the post-task. The other two dyads formed a blended and an expert / novice pattern that also exhibited characteristics of a collaborative talk. In the delayed post-task, the strategy group was able to maintain the level

of collaboration and formed interactions of high mutuality and equality. To make a more in-depth comparison, excerpts from the exchanges of the dyads in the control group are presented in the following sections.

### ***Dominant / Dominant Pattern of Interaction***

The pattern dominant / dominant is the most frequently adopted pattern in the pre-task, with three occurrences. The excerpt ... was presented as an example of a typical exchange between a dominant / dominant dyad.

#### *Excerpt 14 - Macy & Sarah - Pre-task*

- 26 Macy: we are ... we study ... we should study  
 27 Sarah: yes ... I:: like reading book so:: bookshelf  
 28 Macy: bookshelf? ((questioning tone))  
 29 Sarah: I want to buy  
 30 Macy: I think we don't need bookshelf err we:: ...I don't know... I think we:: we don't need.  
 31 Sarah: I think we should buy because I have a lot of books. I have to put somewhere.  
 32 Macy: OK ((with an unpleasant tone))

#### *Excerpt 15 - Macy & Sarah - Pre-task*

- 38 Macy: we shouldn't look ((writing)) ten dollars and we buy drawers and chair  
 39 Sarah: err we buy  
 40 Macy: we bought desk but err we didn't buy chair.  
 41 Sarah: I think it's not important  
 42 Macy: Important... we need something so:: we need two chair  
 43 Sarah: OK

As seen in excerpts 14 and 15, Macy and Sarah contribute equally to the task, and they both express their opinions about the items they would like to purchase for their apartment. However, the mutuality between the interactants is low for several reasons. First, both Macy and Sarah attempt to take control of the task and make individualized decisions without convincing their partners, suggesting that they fail to make joint decisions. In Excerpt 14, Sarah insists on buying a bookshelf, while Macy does not want to buy it. Macy. Sarah ignores Macy and constructs self-centered statements in the first person singular (I) (lines 27, 29, 31). Macy, on the other hand, does not like the idea, but she cannot extend

on her partner's ideas or give reasons why a bookshelf is not necessary (line 30). Although Macy accepts the purchase of a bookshelf, the way she says "OK" at the end (line 32) indicates that she is not satisfied with the decision. In the second excerpt, Macy behaves in the opposite way, because she is the one who insists on buying a chair, while Sarah does not want it. Without exchanging opinions and reasons, the interactants make individualized decisions (lines 41, 42). Sarah gives up and accepts the decision in this exchange. In summary, Macy and Sarah form a dominant/dominant pattern as both parties take an authoritarian role, make little attempt to find a common ground, and ignore their partner's ideas.

A less commonly formed interaction pattern in the pre-task was an expert / passive pattern. Excerpt 16 illustrates the nature of interaction between Amy and Matt.

*Excerpt 16 Amy & Matt - Pre-task*

- 3 Amy: I think we need mirror, and mirror is important for me, I don't know you. And we have  
 4 to take bookshelf or...chair. Actually I agree with you our need is the same, and  
 5 hmm... You can write our needs. We have to take television because when we are  
 6 together, we can bored and we have to watch something. Hmm... Aside from hmm...  
 7 ((long silence)) We have to take clock because we have to learn time.
- 8 Matt: Yes, you are right I agree with you... What else?
- 9 Amy: I think hmm... Paintings or mmm... coffee table is not important for us.
- 10 Matt: Yes, I agree. So do I. I think so.
- 11 Amy: Hmm, the most important thing for us is single bed or chair... because we have to  
 12 ((hand gestures and body language imply hesitation)) sleep ((hesitation)) single, yes.  
 13 (4.0) ((Matt is taking notes on the sheet)) we have two desk mmm... because we have  
 14 some... goods, and we have to put our goods in somewhere because desk is  
 15 important very us... important very for us. Hmm... ((looking for items))
- 16 Matt: I think mirror is important for us because we can see our reflection and without mirror...  
 17 we don't see anything, on our
- 18 Amy: Yes you are right, and...What do you think about curtains?
- 19 Matt: ((looks confused))
- 20 Amy: ((Points at the word)) *perde* (curtains) ((smiling))

Excerpt 16 shows an obviously unequal participation of the speakers. During the task, Amy contributes much more to the task than Matt as seen in her long turns (lines 3-7, 11-15). Although she waits between lines and give a chance to take the turn, Matt seems



unwilling to initiate topics or elaborate on them, mostly acknowledging Amy's opinions and decisions and giving positive feedback (lines 8, 10). The only instance Matt responds to Amy's comments is in lines (16-17). Amy also tries to encourage Matt to contribute by asking his opinion (line 18), but he is unable to respond, probably because he does not know the word. Noticing Matt's confusion, she points to the word "curtains" and provides the Turkish meaning, which helps resolve the confusion (line 20). Analysis of the excerpt and the entire transcribed conversation reveals that Amy is directing and controlling the task. She initiates and extends topics and makes most of the decisions. However, unlike a dominant interactant, she does not try to impose her views or ignore her partner. She waits for her partner to take to turn, frequently asks for his opinion, and offers help when needed. For this reason, she takes on the role of an expert. Meanwhile, Matt does not respond to the above attempts and usually remains passive. His contribution is mostly limited to acknowledgement tokens and positive feedback, which puts him in a passive role. In summary, the dyad in the post-task forms an expert/passive pattern.

### **Post Task Performance of the Control Group**

In the immediate post-task, administrated eight weeks after the pre-task, the dyads in the control group has shown a slight transition process from non-collaborative to collaborative, except for one dyad. Two out of eight dyads adopted a collaborative pattern of interaction in the post task. First, an excerpt from the interaction between Sarah and Gwen are presented in Excerpt 17. In the pre-task, Gwen assumed the role of an expert and Sara assumed the role of a novice.

#### *Excerpt 17 Sarah & Gwen - Post-task*

- 95 Sarah: umm ropes (2.0) what is your opinion about this?  
 96 Gwen: what should we:: do with ropes? .. erm ..  
 97 Sarah: I think ... it is not important.  
 98 Gwen: yes.  
 99 Sarah: I:: don't know .. what we will do  
 100 Gwen: with ropes .. [yes]

- 101 Sarah: [yes]  
 102 Gwen: so:  
 103 Sarah: it is not important.  
 104 Gwen: an axe /ekz/  
 105 Sarah: axe ((corrects pronunciation))  
 106 Gwen: axe ((repeats the correct pronunciation))  
 107 Sarah: erm.. We have knife already .. so: ... I think .. we .. we have not nececes ... we::  
 108 need it. We have not  
 109 Gwen: we don't need it.  
 110 Sarah: yes  
 111 Gwen: you're right

Excerpt 17 demonstrates an example of a talk both high in equality and mutuality. Both Gwen and Sarah contribute equally to the conversation. Their roles alternate between listener and speaker. In terms of mutuality, both interactants seem to engage with the talk and their partner's contribution. Both Sarah and Gwen ask for opinions (lines 95, 96) and express their opinions (lines 97, 99, 107, 109). They complete each other's utterances (lines 99-100, 102- 103). Gwen, who was an expert in the pre-task, maintains her supportive role with opinion questions and positive feedback (lines 98, 111). Sarah, on the other hand, who assumed the role of a novice in the pre-task, takes a more active role in the post-task. She asks for opinion (line 95), expresses her opinion (lines 97, 103, 107), gives positive feedback (lines 101, 110) and negative feedback that leads to transfer of knowledge (line 105). All of this taken together suggests that the dyad forms a collaborative pattern in the immediate post-task.

Another example of a collaborative exchange comes from the interaction between Shea and Macy. The dyad adopted a dominant / dominant interaction pattern in the pre-task.

*Excerpt 18 - Macy & Shea - Post-task*

- 43 Shea: and no:w .. a bottle of insect repellent. What .. what is this?  
 44 Macy: Probably .. I know repellent .. it is .. to go away.  
 45 Shea: oh  
 46 Macy: to .. to save erm from [insect]

- 47 Shea: [from] insect our body.  
 48 Macy: yes .. I think it is important .. because .. on the island  
 49 Shea: there are [a lot of insects]  
 50 Macy: [a lot of insects] and maybe: they are erm ... dangerous for us.  
 51 Shea: yes .. dangerous and .. they bites me  
 52 Macy: us  
 53 Shea: I can't sleep ((both laugh))  
 54 Macy: maybe: they can be die ((writes))

As illustrated in Excerpt 18, Macy and Shea complete the task with an interaction of medium to high equality and mutuality. As can be seen from the length of the turns, the participants contribute equally to the task. Regarding mutuality, it seems that the interactants seem to engage with each other's contribution. Considering that both interactants mostly tried to dominate the task and ignored each other's contribution in the pre-task, it is obvious that there is a shift towards a more collaborative interaction in the post-task. This is manifested in the speakers' efforts to make joint decisions and in their topic extension moves (lines 46-51). In line 43, Shea asks for help with the meaning of the item "insect repellent". Macy tries to explain the words with two turns (lines 44, 46). Having understood the meaning, she expands on Macy's utterance, which is followed by Macy's expansion as well. In line 51, Shea's use of the pronoun "me" is immediately corrected by an explicit correction (line 52). However, Shea uses the pronoun "I" ignoring the negative feedback. It could be because she was trying to talk about a personal experience when she says "I can't sleep". In addition to the interactional features of the interaction, the smiles and laughter during the task indicate a positive atmosphere. All in all, Macy and Shea's conversation indicates a collaborative pattern.

Considering the changes in groups from pre-test to post test, all groups except for one moved from non-collaborative to collaborative. Blake and Bruce, who formed a collaborative interaction pattern in the pre-task adopted a dominant / passive interaction type in the post task. Exchanges that illustrate their nature of interaction is presented in excerpt 19.

*Excerpt 19 - Blake & Bruce - Post-task*

- 55 Blake: yeah any erm... (2.0) harm animals.  
 56 Bruce: yes ... it is ... necessary ... because  
 57 Blake: yes ... but ... I think there isn't any harm animals in that island... I think.  
 58 Bruce: yes .. I agree with you.  
 59 Blake: so:: we can skip ...this .. erm a lighter  
 60 Bruce: lighter  
 61 Blake: It is *çakmak* (lighter)  
 62 Bruce: yes  
 63 Blake: I think it is [necessary]  
 64 Bruce: [necessary] because of we will be hungry.  
 65 Blake: we:: erm.. didn't try erm .. so much  
 66 Bruce: yes  
 67 Blake: thanks to this.  
 68 Bruce: necessary ((Blake is writing reasons)) (15.0)  
 69 Blake: erm.. Ropes.

As can be seen in Excerpt 19 and the rest of their talk, there is an unequal participation of the speakers. Blake does most of the talking and dominates the conversation. Throughout the interaction, she initiates topics and leads the task as seen in lines 57, 59, 63, 65, 69. Sometimes the reason Blake contributes more than Bruce is because of his unwillingness to talk. However, Blake does not try to encourage Bruce to participate by using strategies such as opinion questions and follow-up questions. She even interrupts Bruce's speech, as seen in lines 56-57. After Blake has decided on the need for a lighter and Bruce has confirmed this (lines 59-67), Blake begins to write the reasons for choosing the item on the activity sheet. For fifteen seconds, Blake writes alone without communicating her opinion, and Bruce waits silently in the meantime (line 68). Throughout the whole interaction, Bruce's contribution is generally limited to short answers, acknowledgement tokens and confirmations (lines 56, 58, 62, 66, 68). There is only one instance in the excerpt where he expands on his partner's utterance (line 64), but this is ignored by his partner as she changes the subject (line 65). In summary, the interactional behavior of both Blake and Bruce shifts from a collaborative to a non-collaborative pattern of interaction that forms a dominant / passive pattern.

Three dyads adopt the same non-collaborative interaction pattern in the post-task. Sofie and Zadie adopt a dominant / passive pattern both in the pre-task and immediate post-task. Similarly, Ollie and Ann, and Mary and Bella form a dominant/dominant interaction pattern in both testing times. Exchanges from the interaction between Ann and Ollie can be seen in Excerpt 20.

*Excerpt 20 - Ollie & Ann - Post-task*

- 208 Ollie: and I think ... and I thought that we [have fresh water banana trees]  
 209 Ann: [but we use it ... to ...]  
 210 Ollie: and coconut palms ... erm ... We can we:  
 211 Ann: we use it a watch ... to:: [to know the]  
 212 Ollie: [cannot be hungry]  
 213 Ann: to know clock  
 214 Ollie: sorry ... [ I think...]  
 215 Ann: [a watch]  
 216 Ollie: a watch  
 217 Ann: we ca:n  
 218 Ollie: then we can look at the first and...  
 219 Ann: lamp ... not necessary  
 220 Ollie: ((reading other items silently)) a compass  
 221 Ann: knife mirror [tent]  
 222 Ollie: [gun]  
 223 Ann: lighter ropes  
 224 Ollie: ropes  
 225 Ann: fishing rod.. I think  
 226 Ollie: axe.. lighter [watch]  
 227 Ann: [axe]  
 228 Ollie: axe ...not axe I think it isn't important for us.  
 229 Ann: I think that it is important for u:s a watch  
 230 Ollie: a watch a  
 231 Ann: because we use it to: know .. clock  
 232 Ollie: but where we: .. in in a::  
 233 Ann: put  
 234 Ollie: deserted island .. I think it is not a .. necessary .. thing for us.  
 235 Ann: a box of matches .. for for a for [light]

In excerpt 20, the level of equality between the interactants is high although this is not the case for mutuality between them. Both Ann and Ollie contribute equally to the task.

However, they do not seem to engage with each other's opinions. There is no effort at joint construction. The dyads interrupt each other too often, but not to give positive feedback or acknowledgement. The dyads focus mainly on their own contribution without listening and responding to what their partner is saying. For example, Ollie focuses on finishing her own sentence, as seen in lines 208, 210, 212, while Ann is also busy in focusing on her own contribution (lines 209, 211, 213, 215). The nature of the interaction is no different in the rest of the exchange either. Lines 218 to 225 show that the exchange lacks cohesion due to self-focused talk. It is difficult to understand the topic under focus, as both speakers initiate topics without developing and expanding on the previous topic. Another salient feature of the talk is the frequent negative feedback (lines 219, 228) and disagreements (lines 232, 234). In this excerpt and in the rest of the interaction, the interactants rarely ask for opinions or ask follow-up questions, which reduces the mutuality between the speakers. With interactants making little effort to engage in the shared decision-making process, and both dyads' attempts to control the direction of the task, ignoring each other's opinions, and failing to reach agreement, it is evident that the dyad adopts a dominant/dominant pattern in the post-task.

### **Interaction Patterns Formed by the Control Group in the Delayed Post-Task**

The control group mostly formed a more collaborative interaction in the delayed post-task when compared to the pre-task and immediate post-task. Three dyads maintained the same pattern, one moved from dominant / dominant to expert / novice and one moved from dominant / passive to expert / passive interaction pattern. Only one dyad moved from collaborative to dominant / dominant pattern. Among the interactions which moved from non-collaborative to collaborative, the interaction between Bruce and Blake is given as an example in excerpt 21.

#### *Excerpt 21 - Blake & Bruce - Delayed Post-task*

27 Blake: umm what's your choice? ... if you want ... you can choose.

- 28 Bruce: umm .. I think ... umm (4.0) I think I think is electrician ... because erm .. we: we  
 29 have to electric .. we have .. some *ışık* (light) ... do you know?  
 30 Blake: yes [I know] umm  
 31 Bruce: *ışık* (light) its name  
 32 Blake: light  
 33 Bruce: light yes... because in dark .. we can not see anyone ...  
 34 Blake: uh huh  
 35 Bruce: an electrician is important ... I think... what about you?  
 36 Blake: I agree with you::  
 37 Bruce: you can you can wait for electrician... if you: choose anyone .. you can say.  
 38 Blake: I think .. builder.  
 39 Bruce: a builder .. yes.  
 40 Blake: because we: ... must stay ... in somewhere ... and we erm .. don't erm don't build  
 41 something.  
 42 Bruce: yes .. yes .. you're right.  
 43 Blake: a builder ... it's like one ... the reason is we: need stay ... in somewhere ((writing))  
 44 Bruce: in somewhere (2.0)

As can be seen in Excerpt 21, the interaction between Blake and Bruce is moderate to high in terms of both in equality and mutuality. The interactants contribute equally to the task as seen by the turns they take and the length of their turns. As for mutuality, both Blake and Bruce seem to be engaged with each other's contribution. Blake, who has taken a dominant role in the post-task, is more willing to encourage Bruce to contribute and share the floor by asking for his opinion (line 27). She also gives help when Bruce needs it: For example, he asks for help when he cannot remember the word "light." Because he asks the question "Do you know?" (line 29), Blake mistakes the question for a comprehension check and says "yes." Realizing this, Bruce says "*ışık* (light) its name", and Blake provides help (line 32). Bruce's repetition with an acknowledgement token indicates that the exchange leads to a transfer of knowledge. As in the case of Bruce, who was the passive interactant in the post-task, he is more willing to contribute in the delayed post-task. He asks for opinion (line 35), provides opinion (lines 28-29, 36), and extends her partner's contribution (lines 33, 37). Both Bruce and Blake frequently provide positive feedback (lines 33, 34, 36, 39, 42). Taken the degree of mutuality and equality, we can conclude that the interaction between this dyad is a collaborative interaction. It is important to note that this dyad also

adopted a collaborative pattern in the pre-task. Only in the immediate posttest did they form a non-collaborative pattern.

While Bruce and Blake formed interaction patterns in the order collaborative > dominant/passive > collaborative, a dyad in the delayed post-task moved in a non-collaborative direction in the order dominant/dominant > collaborative > dominant/dominant. Excerpt 22 illustrates the exchanges exemplifying their interaction in the delayed-post task.

*Excerpt 22 - Macy & Shea – Delayed Post-task*

- 68 Macy: he or she erm ... provide justice.... because so erm .. we should choose.  
 69 Shea: yes ... now we have to choose one of them.. judge or erm ... the other.  
 70 Macy: judge I think  
 71 Shea: umm astronaut.  
 72 Macy: but ... we talked about it ... I said that  
 73 Shea: I still think ...it's very important job.  
 74 Macy: I think erm ... a judge more important ... a judge is more important than an  
 75 astronaut.  
 76 Shea: what can we do? Umm (3.0)  
 77 Macy: we don't need an astronaut ... we choose we choose [a scientist]  
 78 Shea: [but umm] we go a different planet ... and they know how to live in this planet ... they  
 79 know how to move in this planet.  
 80 Macy: but a scientist erm [can study can study]  
 81 Shea: [you say a scientist also know] ((raised voice)) ... also know this information.  
 82 Macy: yes but erm ... he ... can search about this planet.

Excerpt 22 shows an interaction high in equality but low in mutuality. Although both speakers contribute equally to the talk, they do not seem to engage with the other's opinion. Both interactants attempt to control the task and insist on their ideas without asking for reasons. For example, although Macy and Shea have previously discussed the professions "judge" and "astronaut", and they were not able to reach an agreement before. In their second attempt, they still insist on their choice, as seen in lines 70-74. In line 72, Mary's attempt to clarify her point is interrupted by Shea (line 73), which probably makes Mary understand that Shea is not interested in the explanation, and she is not willing to change her mind. Although Shea suggests in the following line that they need to find common



ground (line 76), Macy is now unwilling (lines 77, 80). Macy's insistence leads to frustration and she raises her voice while making a confirmation request (line 81). The interactants' disagreement with each other usually manifests itself in their oppositions to their partners' utterances that begin with "but" sentences (lines 72, 78, 80, 82). In summary, no or little attempts to elicit opinions and reach agreement, frequent oppositions, disengagement with ideas, coupled with raised voices show that the dyad employs a dominant/dominant pattern. Considering that the dyad also adopted a dominant/dominant pattern in the pre-task and shifted to a collaborative pattern in the post-task, the dyad could have a tendency to be non-collaborative, but could work collaboratively in the post-task.

In summary, analysis of the paired interactions of the dyads in the control group reveals that two dyads have shifted their interactions to collaborative in the post-task. In the delayed post-task, two more dyads started to collaborate more, exhibiting an expert-novice pattern. The results suggest that two dyads in the control group, whose members participated in paired speaking task for 8 weeks, showed collaboration in the post-task and in the delayed post-task interactions. Although the expert/novice pattern formed by the dyads in the control group contained instances of collaborative moves, these moves were more evident in the experimental group. On the other hand, the comprehensive analysis of the experimental group's peer conversations in the pre-task, post-task, and delayed post-task indicates that the dyads developed more collaborative interaction from the pre-test to the immediate post-test. After being trained in interaction strategies for eight weeks, the participants began to collaborate by initiating and extending topics, making joint decisions, and solving problems. The use of various interaction strategies also increased in the post-task and delayed post-task. The delayed post-task analysis also showed that learners were able to maintain the level of collaboration eight weeks after the training, which could mean that the training had a long-term effect on learners' pair interaction. In the light of the findings, it can be concluded that interactional strategy training had an impact on the

interactional behavior of the dyads, resulting in more collaborative interaction with more frequent use of interactional strategies.

### The Frequency of Interactional Strategy Use in Groups

In order to answer research question 3, which investigates the frequency of interactional strategies in pair-tasks before the training, after the training, and eight weeks after the training, a number descriptive and frequency analyses were computed. First, preliminary analyses were conducted in order to ensure that there is no violation of the assumptions of normality and linearity. A Shapiro-Wilk test has shown no significant deviation from normality for pre-task  $W(14) = .954$ ,  $p = .621$ , post-task  $W(14) = .929$ ,  $p = .294$  and delayed post-task  $W(14) = .910$ ,  $p = .158$ . The values for Skewness and Kurtosis were also examined for normality. Skewness values fell between .348 and -.864 while Kurtosis values ranged between .038 and -.873. The values in the range of -1.5 and +1.5 are considered to be acceptable in order for normal distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The observations of Q-Q Plots and Histograms also show that the data for pre-test and delayed-posttest is normally distributed, which allows for parametric tests.

To explore the participants' overall use of strategies in pre-task, post-task and delayed post-task, a descriptive analysis was computed for the control and experimental groups.

**Table 13**

*Descriptive Statistics for the Strategy Use of Control and Experimental Groups*

Tests	Groups	Dyads	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Pre-task	Experimental	7	90.57	17.24
	Control	7	77.57	34.04
Post-task	Experimental	7	179.28	52.77
	Control	7	95.28	31.49
Delayed post-task	Experimental	7	183.57	73.82
	Control	7	102.14	37.89

As shown in Table 13, the mean score for the experimental group was 90.57 ( $SD = 17.24$ ), whereas it was 77.57 ( $SD = 34.04$ ) for the control group. After the intervention, the experimental group almost doubled the number of interactional strategies they used ( $M = 179.28$ ,  $SD = 52.77$ ). On the other hand, the control group also showed an increase ( $M = 95.28$ ,  $SD = 31.49$ ), although it was smaller compared to the experimental group. In the delayed post-task, which was given 8 weeks after the intervention, both groups used more strategies than in the post-tasks. While the mean score for the experimental group was found to be 183.57 ( $SD = 17.24$ ), it was 102.14 ( $SD = 17.24$ ) for the control group. These values indicate that both groups showed improvement. However, the degree of increase in strategy use in the conversations of the pairs in the experimental group is much higher.

### Types of Strategies Employed by Groups

After determining the total number of strategies used in the groups, it is also important to examine the individual types of strategies used by each group before strategy training, after training, and eight weeks after training.

**Table 14**

*Descriptive Statistics for Strategy Use in Pre-task by Groups*

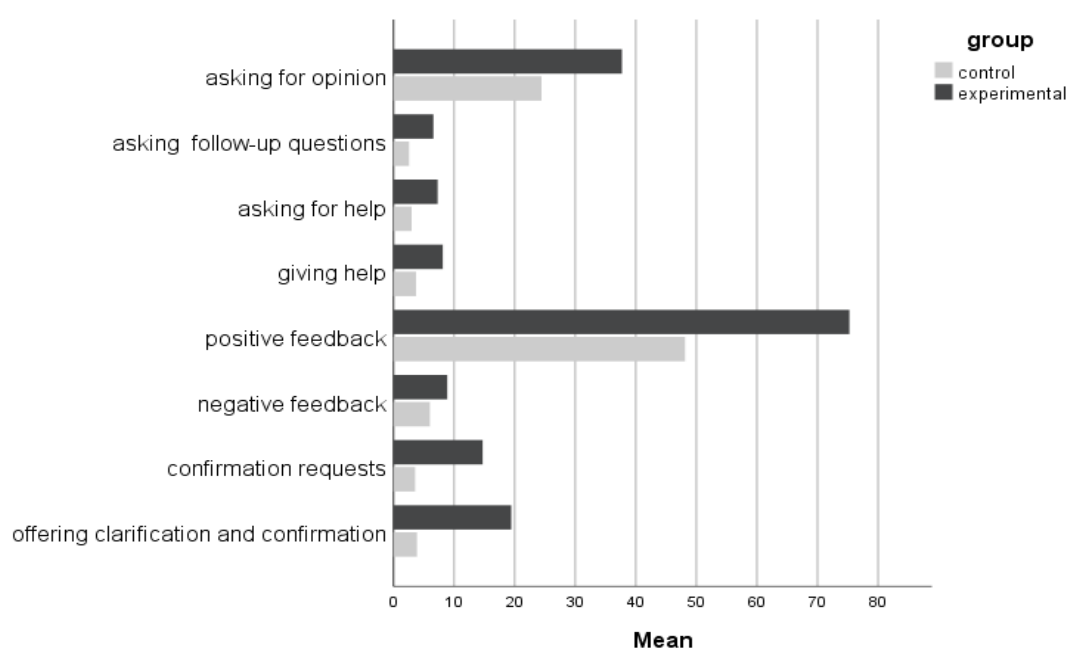
Interactional Strategies	Groups	Dyads	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Asking for opinion and giving opinion	experimental	7	26.43	9.21
	control	7	19.14	6.91
Asking follow-up questions	experimental	7	4.57	2.57
	control	7	3.29	2.05
Asking for help	experimental	7	2.00	1.00
	control	7	1.29	1.38
Giving help	experimental	7	1.43	1.61
	control	7	2.14	1.57
Positive feedback	experimental	7	44.71	10.54
	control	7	42.86	22.00
Negative-feedback	experimental	7	2.71	1.49
	control	7	2.86	2.61
Confirmation request	experimental	7	4.14	2.91
	control	7	2.86	2.85
Offering clarification and confirmation	experimental	7	4.57	2.57
	control	7	3.14	3.53

Table 14 presents the mean values for eight strategies used by participants in the experimental and control groups. The table shows that positive feedback was the most frequently employed strategy in both the experimental ( $M = 44.71$ ,  $SD = 10.54$ ) and control groups ( $M = 42.86$ ,  $SD = 22.00$ ). In the experimental group second most frequently used strategy was *asking for opinion and giving opinion* ( $M = 95.28$ ,  $SD = 31.49$ ), followed by two equally frequently used strategies: *asking follow-up questions* ( $M = 4.57$ ,  $SD = 2.57$ ), and *offering clarification and confirmation* ( $M = 4.57$ ,  $SD = 2.57$ ). As for the least frequently used strategy, the experimental group employed *giving help* strategy the least frequently ( $M = 95.28$ ,  $SD = 31.49$ ).

The same with the experimental group, second most frequent strategy was found to be *asking for opinion and giving opinion* ( $M = 26.43$ ,  $SD = 9.21$ ) followed by asking follow-up questions ( $M = 3.29$ ,  $SD = 2.05$ ), *offering clarification and confirmation* ( $M = 3.14$ ,  $SD = 3.53$ ). Regarding the least frequently used strategies, the control group used the strategy of *asking for help* the least ( $M = 95.28$ ,  $SD = 31.49$ ). These results suggest that the strategy use of the participants in both groups show similar patterns with means closer to each other.

### Figure 8

*Strategy Use of the Control and Experimental Group in the Post-task*



As can be clearly seen in Figure 8, the strategies "positive feedback" and "asking for opinion and giving opinion" are by far the most frequently used strategies in both groups. However, the order of use of other strategies varies between groups. In the experimental group, the third most frequently used strategy is "offering clarification and confirmation." This is followed by "confirmation requests", "negative feedback", "giving help", "asking for help", and "asking follow-up questions". In contrast, in the control group, "negative feedback" was the third most frequently used strategy, followed by "offering clarification and confirmation," "giving help," "confirmation requests," "ask for help," and "asking follow-up questions." In terms of differences in strategy use between the groups, participants in the strategy group outperformed the control group in all interactional strategies. The largest mean difference lies in the strategy of positive feedback ( $MD = 27.14$ ), followed by offering clarification and confirmation ( $MD = 15.57$ ), asking for opinion and giving opinion ( $MD = 13.28$ ), confirmation request ( $MD = 11.14$ ), giving help ( $MD = 4.42$ ), asking for help ( $MD = 4.28$ ), asking follow-up questions ( $MD = 4.00$ ), negative feedback ( $MD = 2.85$ ).

A comparison of the pre-task and post-task performance of the strategy group is essential to obtain a more in-depth understanding of the improvement made by the strategy group and to investigate which strategies learners could employ after receiving strategy training. Additionally, this comparison is required in order to investigate which strategies learners could employ after receiving strategy training. The results are visualized in the bar chart in Figure 9.

**Figure 9**

*Strategy Use in Pre-task and Post-task by the Experimental Group*

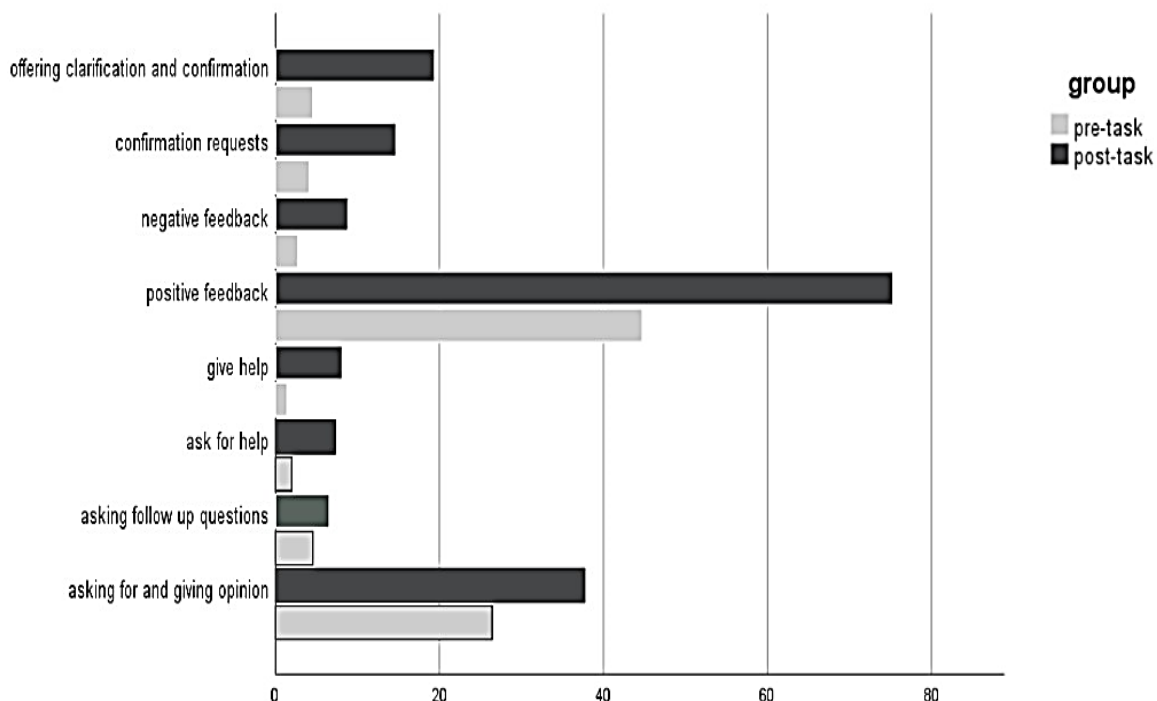


Figure 9 shows that the learners in the experimental group performed better on all strategy types in the post-task. Positive feedback and asking for opinion and giving opinion are the most frequently used strategies in both the pre-task and the immediate post-task. When comparing mean scores, the largest difference is in the use of positive feedback with a 30 points mean difference, followed by offering clarification and confirmation ( $MD = 14.86$ ), asking for opinion and giving opinion ( $MD = 11.28$ ), confirmation requests ( $MD = 10.57$ ), giving help ( $MD = 6.71$ ), negative feedback ( $MD = 6.15$ ), and asking follow-up questions ( $MD = 2$ ). In addition to this, it is important to note that even if the mean differences are small, learners multiplied the use of giving help, offering clarification and confirmation, confirmation requests and giving help by at least three times, indicating a greater effect of training in the use of strategies that were rarely used in the pre-task.

**Table 15***Descriptive Statistics for Strategy Use in Delayed Post-task by Groups*

Interactional Strategies	Group	Dyads	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Asking for opinion / giving opinion	experimental	7	33,57	14,639
	control	7	31,71	12,996
Asking follow-up questions	experimental	7	6,71	2,563
	control	7	2,00	2,449
Asking for help	experimental	7	3,86	4,298
	control	7	1,86	1,676
Giving help	experimental	7	10,57	6,079
	control	7	3,14	2,795
Positive feedback	experimental	7	85,00	47,756
	control	7	52,14	19,954
Negative feedback	experimental	7	8,14	5,178
	control	7	3,43	3,101
Confirmation request	experimental	7	16,14	7,777
	control	7	3,86	3,579
Offering clarification / confirmation	experimental	7	19,57	10,628
	control	7	4,00	3,559

As seen in table 15 participants in the experimental group performed better in all strategy types than the participants in the control group. The most frequently used strategy in the experimental group is positive feedback ( $M = 85$ ,  $SD = 47.77$ ), followed by asking for opinion and giving opinion ( $M = 33.57$ ,  $SD = 14.63$ ), Offering clarification and confirmation ( $M = 19.57$ ,  $SD = 10.62$ ), confirmation requests ( $M = 16.14$ ,  $SD = 7.77$ ), giving help ( $M = 10.57$ ,  $SD = 6.07$ ), negative feedback ( $M = 8.14$ ,  $SD = 5.17$ ), asking follow-up questions ( $M = 6.71$ ,  $SD = 2.56$ ), and asking for help ( $M = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 4.29$ ). Similar to the experimental group, top most commonly strategies are positive feedback ( $M = 52.14$ ,  $SD = 19.95$ ), asking for opinion and giving opinion ( $M = 31.71$ ,  $SD = 12.99$ ), Offering clarification and confirmation ( $M = 4$ ,  $SD = 3.55$ ), and confirmation requests ( $M = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 3.57$ ). The only difference in the groups is that the control group utilized negative feedback ( $M = 3.43$ ,  $SD = 3.10$ ) as the fourth most commonly used strategy followed by giving help ( $M = 3.14$ ,  $SD = 2.79$ ), asking follow-up ( $M = 2$ ,  $SD = 2.44$ ), and asking for help ( $M = 1.86$ ,  $SD = 1.67$ ). These findings

indicate that the groups utilize strategies in a similar order, with a higher frequency in the experimental group.

### The Impact of Interactional Strategy Training on Strategy Use

In order to answer research question 4 which investigates whether there is a statistically significant difference between the interactional strategy use of the participants in experimental and control groups in three testing times, a number of statistical analysis were conducted. As for the first step, independent samples t-test was performed for the pre-task to find out whether the groups were similar in their use of interactional strategies before the intervention. Since the data was normally distributed, the parametric tests were run.

**Table 16**

*Independent Samples T-Test for Pre-Task Scores of the Control and Experimental Group*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means				
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p.</i>	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Dif.
Pre-test	2.56	.136	.901	12	.385	13	14.42

The results presented in Table 16 indicate that there is no significant difference between the experimental ( $M = 90.57$ ,  $SD = 17.24$ ) and control group ( $M = 77.57$ ,  $SD = 34.04$ ) in the use of interactional strategies in the pre-task ( $[t(12) = .901, p = .385]$ ). These results indicate that although the control group made use of more interactional strategies in the pre-task, when comparing the means, this difference is not significant. Therefore, we can assume that the groups were similar before the strategy training began.

In the second step of the analysis, a 2x3 mixed ANOVA was conducted to examine whether interactional strategy training had a significant impact on the participants' strategy use across three time intervals. The assumptions of homogeneity of variances were tested using Levene's Test. It was found that the variances of the groups are approximately equal for pre-task ( $F(1, 12) = 2.56, p = .136$ ), post-task ( $F(1, 12) = 3.94, p = .070$ ) and delayed post-task ( $F(1, 51) = 3.93, p = .075$ ). Mauchly's Test of Sphericity indicated that the



assumption of sphericity was not violated,  $\chi^2(2) = 1.250$ ,  $p = .535$ , and thus there is no need to modify the degrees of freedom.

**Table 17**

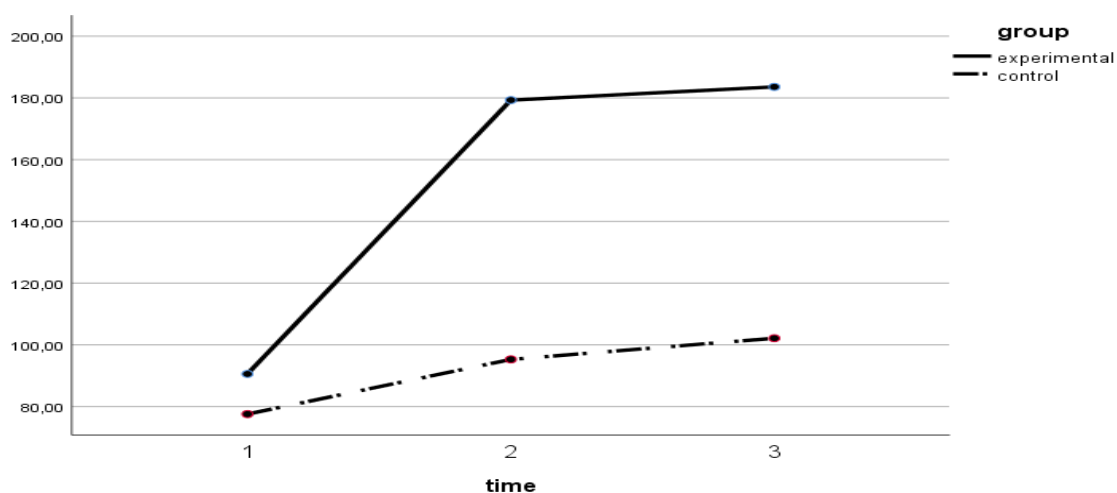
*Within Subject Effects for the Control and the Experimental Group*

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
time	Sphericity Assumed	29486.61	2	5675.88	10.54	.001	.468
time*group	Sphericity Assumed	11351.76	2	5675.88	4.05	.030	.253

Table 17 shows within subject effects for the control and experimental group. The main effect of time (pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test) on participants' use of interactional strategies was significant  $F(2,24) = 10.54$ ,  $p = .001$ , with a large effect ( $\eta_p^2 = .46$ ), which indicates a significant change in strategy use across the whole sample. This effect was qualified with a significant time and group (experimental/control) interaction effect,  $F(2,24) = 4.05$ ,  $p = .030$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .25$ . This finding reveals that the experimental and control groups are different in strategy use over three testing periods, and that the experimental and control groups change in different ways. In Figure 10, the direction of the change in the strategy use and the nature of the interaction between time and the groups is visualized.

**Figure 10**

*Strategy Use by the Groups over Three Testing Periods*



As seen in Figure 10, the pairs in both groups have an increase in the total number of strategies for the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test. However, the changes in frequency of strategy use from pre-task to post-task are not parallel in the two groups. The sharp increase in the graph demonstrates that the gains made by the experimental group is much larger than the control group. Strategy use in the experimental group also increases in the delayed post-task, but only slightly. Similarly, pairs in the control group use interactional strategies in both the post-task and the delayed post-task. The increase from post-task to delayed post-task is smaller than the increase from pre-task to post-task.

In order to support the findings presented in the line chart above statistically, and to determine where differences lie in strategy use over time, post-hoc pairwise comparisons were also performed.

**Table 18**

*Pairwise Comparisons of Strategy Use by Control and the Experimental Group*

Group	(I) time	(J) time	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. <sup>b</sup>	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
experimental	1	2	-88.71	22.93	.008	-144.82	-32.601
		3	-93.00	31.42	.025	-169.90	-16.09
	2	3	-4.28	27.47	.881	-71.51	62.94
control	1	2	-17.71	5.58	.019	-31.38	-4.04
		3	-24.57	4.36	.001	-35.26	-13.88
	2	3	-6.85	8.83	.467	-28.46	14.75

Table 18 indicates follow-up pairwise comparisons of strategy use between the control and experimental groups. The table shows that strategy use in the experimental group increased from time 1 to time 2 ( $p = .008$ ,  $d = 2.25$ ), and from time 1 to time 3 ( $p = .025$ ,  $d = 1.73$ ) with a large effect size. On the other hand, there was not a statistically significant difference between time 2 and time 3 ( $p = .881$ ,  $d = .05$ ). This finding indicates that participants in the experimental group significantly improved their strategy use in the post-task and delayed post-task compared to the pre-task. In addition, the nonsignificant difference between the immediate and delayed post-task indicates that although the

strategy group was unable to achieve a significant improvement in strategy use, they were able to maintain the gains 8 weeks after strategy training. As for the control group, a statistically significant difference was found between time 1 and 2 ( $p = .019$ ,  $d = .53$ ) with a moderate effect size, and time 1 and time 3 ( $p = .001$ ,  $d = .70$ ) with a moderate effect size. Similar to the experimental group, no significant difference was found between time 2 and 3 ( $p = .467$ ,  $d = .20$ ). All these findings imply that both groups increase their strategy use in post and delayed post-tasks although the increase in the delayed post-task is not significant. However, the effect sizes demonstrate that the experimental groups' improvement is greater than the control group when the distance is considered from pre-task to post task and pre-task to delayed post task.

In addition to the statistical data supporting the efficiency of strategy training, there is another data that complements this finding and is worth emphasizing; task durations and word counts. Average task duration was computed by dividing total task duration by the number of pairs. Likewise, average word count was computed by dividing total words that the participants produced by the number of pairs. Table 19 below shows total task durations by groups.

**Table 19**

*Average Task Duration by Groups.*

Groups	Pre-task	Post-task	Delayed post-task
Control	12 min.	13.88 min.	13.14 min.
Experimental	13.42 min.	18.57 min.	18.71 min.

As can be seen in table 19 total task duration for the control group was 12 minutes, while it was 13.42 minutes for the experimental group. In the post-task, performed 8 weeks after the pre-task, the task duration increases in both groups. However, in the experimental group, participants spoke much longer (18.57 min.) than in the control group (13.88 min.). In the delayed post-task, both groups completed tasks at similar lengths as their post-task. The comparison of the pre-task and delayed post-task for the experimental group reveals a

significant change, indicating that the strategy training may have helped the participants speak more. Average word counts presented in table 20 support the findings from task durations.

**Table 20**

*Average Word Count by Groups*

Groups	Pre-task	Post-task	Delayed post-task
Control	1077 words	1427 words	1448 words
Experimental	1368 words	2168 words	2128 words

Table 20 shows that the average words produced by the pairs in the post-task has increased for both groups, but the increase is much larger in the experimental group. A very slight decrease in the delayed post-task further indicates that the strategy group was able to stabilize their speech production even eight weeks after the training. For the control group, on the other hand, the table shows a steady increase in word use from the pre-task to the post-task.

To summarize, the sharp increases in word counts and task durations in the experimental group implies that interactional strategy training affected not only the number of strategies, but also the speech production and duration. Learners that received strategy training started to use more strategies, talked for longer durations and produced more words.

**The Relationship Between the Strategy Use in Pair-tasks and the Interaction Patterns**

With the aim of answering the 5th research question, which examines the relationship between dyads' strategy use and their interaction patterns, the number of strategies employed by pairs with different interaction patterns was compared. In the first step of the analysis, the total number of strategies for each dyad was calculated for the pre-, post-, and delayed post-task. The average number of strategies was calculated by dividing

the total number of strategies used in the interactions with different patterns by the number of dyads adopting that pattern. For the control group, the average number of strategies employed in each interaction pattern is presented in Table 21.

**Table 21**

*Average Strategy Counts by the Interaction Patterns in the Control group*

Patterns of Interaction	Pre-task	Post-task	Delayed post-task
Dominant/Passive	48	83	-
Expert /Passive	50	73	67
Dominant/ dominant	71.3	92.5	83
Expert / Novice	120	84	105
Collaborative	91	121	136
Blend	-	-	-

As seen in table 21, the peers in collaborative and expert/passive patterns employed the highest number of strategies in all three tasks, followed by dominant/dominant, expert/passive and dominant/passive pattern. In the pre-task, the peers working in the expert/novice pattern reached the highest average strategy count (120). This was followed by collaborative and dominant/dominant dyads. In the post-task, the collaborative dyads held the highest number of strategy use (121) followed by the dominant/dominant (92.5) and expert passive pattern (73). Likewise, noticeably greater number of interactional strategies were employed by collaborative dyads in the delayed post-task (136), followed by expert/passive and dominant/dominant patterns.

Similar findings were obtained when the interactional strategies were counted for the experimental group. As demonstrated in table 22, collaborative dyads had the greatest average strategy count across all three testing times. The only exception was noted as the pattern "Blend". The blended pattern has the highest count in the post-task (229). However, this data may not be comparable as only one pair formed a blended pattern in the control and experimental group. when analyzed individually, the pre-task saw the greatest average strategy count in collaborative dyads followed by expert/novice (91), dominant /dominant

(87.6) and dominant passive dyads (82.5). In the post-task the blended dyad used considerably more interactional strategies than the others. Collaborative (176) and expert/novice (143) dyads were followed by the blended pattern. Similar to the pre-test, collaborative pattern reached the greatest number of strategy count (192.2), leaving expert/novice pattern (130) behind.

**Table 22**

*Average Strategy Counts by the Interaction Patterns in the Control Group*

Patterns of Interaction	Pre-task	Post-task	Delayed post-task
Dominant/Passive	82.5	-	-
Expert /Passive	-	-	-
Dominant/ dominant	87.6	-	-
Expert / Novice	91	143	130
Collaborative	115	176	192.2
Blend	-	229	-

To summarize, more interactional strategies were utilized by both the control and the experimental group in pair-tasks followed by expert /novice and dominant /dominant patterns. On the contrary, dyads working in dominant/passive and expert/passive patterns used the fewest strategies. This finding indicate that the participants that form patterns with a collaborative orientation such as collaborative and expert/novice tend to employ more interactional strategies than the ones who form non-collaborative patterns such as dominant/dominant, dominant/passive or expert passive. Among these, dominant/dominant dyads seem to utilize noticeably more strategies probably because the contribution of the interlocutors is equal in a dominant/dominant pattern, leading more exchanges while both equality and mutuality is low for dominant/ passive and expert/passive patterns.

Another finding worth noting in the data is the number of strategies used by collaborative pairs in groups. It was noted earlier that the level of collaborativeness in the control and the experimental group was not similar in collaborative interactions. Although some pairs in the control group started to work more collaboratively in the post-task and the delayed post-task, it was observed that they were not as collaborative as the experimental

group. This result is also supported with this finding, which shows that the number of interactional strategies are greater in the interactions of collaborative pairs in the experimental group than the ones in the control group. This suggests that the participants, who received strategy training formed collaborative interactions richer in strategies than the control group.

### **Learner's Perceptions on the Effectiveness of Interactional Strategy Training**

The examination of interactional patterns and strategy usage in the experimental and control groups revealed that interactional strategy training had a positive influence on the participants in enhancing the collaboration between the dyads and promoting the use of interactional strategies. To support this finding and to answer research question 6, which seeks to determine how the learners in the experimental group perceive the effectiveness of the interactional strategy training in improving their collaboration, all participants in the experimental group ( $N = 14$ ) were given self-evaluation forms each week after the training sessions and were interviewed at the end of the training. First, the findings regarding each week's self-evaluation form are presented under respective titles.

#### ***Learner Perceptions on Week 1***

In the first week of training, the participants were introduced to the strategy of "asking for opinion and giving opinion". Learners were first introduced to the strategy through the strategy sheet, and then completed a speaking task as a free exercise. After this paired speaking task, the participants were given *self-evaluation forms* that contained two parts: self-evaluation questionnaire and open-ended self-reflection questions that explore the strengths, weaknesses and plans for future tasks. The results of the students' responses to the questionnaire can be found in table 23.

**Table 23***Self-Evaluation Questionnaire for Week 1*

Items	Agree	Partially Agree	Disagree
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	64.3	28.6	7.1
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	57.1	35.7	7.1
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	57.1	42.9	0
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	42.9	50	7.1
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the talk	50	28.6	21.4
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the talk.	50	35.7	14.3
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	7.1	35.7	57.1
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	14.3	21.4	64.3
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	7.1	28.6	64.3
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	64.3	35.7	0
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	71.4	28.6	0

The results of the questionnaire in Table 23 indicate that the participants had somewhat positive feelings about the first week's task. More than half of the respondents indicated that they participated equally in the conversation (64.3%) and actively contributed (57.1%). This is also confirmed by the responses to items 7 and 8, which do not indicate dominance by interactants. However, the participants were not completely satisfied with the mutuality of the interaction, as almost half of them either partially agreed (35.7%) or disagreed (7.1%) with item 2. Regarding the use of strategies, 64.3% of the participants reported that they used expressions for "asking for opinion and giving opinion", and they were also able to contribute more using these strategies (71.4%).

The learners' comments on the overall evaluation of the training, their strengths and weaknesses, and their plans for future tasks also revealed that the majority of the learners could understand and use the strategy of "asking for opinion and giving opinion". Most of them were familiar with using the strategies because they could ask for opinion or give an opinion before the strategy training. However, some mentioned that they did not know and had not used any expressions other than "I think" before the training. On this issue, Fiona said:



*We had fun while talking to my partner. I used different phrases other than "I think" to express my opinion.*

Analysis of learner interactions in the pre-task and the post-task supports this view in that the strategy group was able to use a variety of expressions to ask for opinion and give opinion in the post-task, while these expressions were limited to expressions such as "I think" and "in my opinion" in the pre-task. It is noteworthy that participants were able to learn and employ these strategies in both the post-task and the delayed post-task. Regarding the strengths in the pair- task, the participants believe that they produced more output and used strategies as much as possible. Iris also mentioned how she switched back and forth between the role of speaker and listener saying:

*As much as I could express my opinions, I also listened to my partner's ideas carefully. I could express my ideas through longer sentences.*

In the section where participants were asked to write down their weaknesses, three participants mentioned that they had some problems maintaining the conversation and reported that they would like to work on this the next time they talk to their partner. Two participants expressed their dissatisfaction of frequent disagreements during the task and stated that these led to communication breakdowns. Having the same concerns, Millie said:

*We had conversing opinions on some topics, and we I had difficulties in understanding her point of view from time to time.*

To summarize, while the participants were evaluating their performance on the task for the first week, they placed most of their attention on their own contribution and offered few or no remarks on the contribution of their partner. In most cases, they provided comments on how they expressed themselves as well as on the actions they took or did not take throughout the process.

### ***Learner Perceptions on Week 2***

In the second week of training, the participants were introduced to the strategy of "asking follow-up questions" Similar to the first week, they received the training and then

completed a speaking task as a free exercise. The results of the students' responses to the questionnaire can be found in table 24.

**Table 24**

*Self-Evaluation Questionnaire for Week 2*

Items	Agree	Partially Agree	Disagree
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	66.7	33.3	0
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	75	25	0
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	66.7	25	8.3
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	66.7	25	8.3
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the conversation.	66.7	16.7	16.7
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the talk.	66.7	16.7	16.7
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	8.3	16.7	75
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	8.3	16.7	75
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	0	25	75
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	50	41.7	8.3
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	50	41.7	8.3

As can be seen in table 24, the participants had a more favorable opinion of their production output on the task after the second week than they did after the first week. 66.7% of the pupils had the opinion that they talked evenly, engaged actively, and provided helpful suggestions. Regarding how they felt about the degree of mutuality that existed between them, three-quarters of the participants said that they encouraged one another to talk (66.7%) and shared views in a way that was mutual (75%). In addition to this, the vast majority of them were of the opinion that none of the interactants dominated the conversation (75%). When compared to the first week, it is clear that students have the belief that they are capable of taking part in an interaction that is greater in both equality and mutuality.

The results of the questionnaire are supported by the remarks made by the strategy group, which state that the respondents consider their overall performance to have been more effective than the task assigned in the first week. During the task, ten of the fifteen participants indicated that they were able to voice their ideas and offer follow-up questions.

Two interviewees, Fiona and Millie, were asked their thoughts on this topic, and they responded as follow:

*On the topics we had conversing ideas, I could convince my partner using the strategies. (Fiona)*

*I could listen to my partner and expressed my own opinion. I asked questions and could convince my partner. (Millie)*

In the second week, the students started to reflect more not only on their performance, but also on their partners' performance. Their comments given below reveal how they also monitor their partner's contribution:

*During the task, we took turns to speak out our opinions. We gave each other opportunity to contribute (Iris)*

*I encouraged my partner to say more (Maya)*

Dylan and Faith, who worked together in the task, seem to observe each other's performance critically and drew the same conclusion. This is evident in their reflections given as follows:

*My partner could explain himself and talk more, but I could not say much. (Dylan)*

*My partner could not participate in the talk as much as I did. We could not have an effective interaction. Next time, I will encourage my partner to participate more in the talk. (Faith)*

Regarding the weaknesses in the second week's task and the plans for future tasks, half of the participants stated their displeasure with their pronunciation and hesitation during the talk. the respondents reported their plans about speaking more fluently in the following task. Three students criticized themselves for talking too much, and one for not contributing enough to the talk. Kai and Daisy put their concerns in words the following way:

*I talked too much and did not give much chance to my partner to speak. Next time I will encourage my partner to speak more (Kai)*

*Maybe because of the topic, I was a bit passive in this task. I plan to do practice loudly to talk more next time (Daisy)*

### **Learner Perceptions on Week 3**

In the third week of the interactional strategy training, the participants were introduced to the strategy of "appealing for assistance". Learners' responses to the questionnaire, which was administered after the strategy training and the following speaking task, are shown in Table 25.

**Table 25**

#### *Self-Evaluation Questionnaire for Week 3*

<b>Items</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Partially Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	75	16.7	8.3
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	83.3	16.7	0
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	83.3	16.7	0
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	66.7	33.3	0
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the talk	75	25	0
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the talk.	66.7	16.7	16.7
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	16.7	25	58.3
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	0	8.3	91.7
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	0	0	100
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	50	50	0
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	33.3	58.3	8.3

As can be seen in Table 25, the participants felt that they participated in the talk both equally (75%) and mutually (83.3%). Most of them believed that they were active during the talk (85%), contributed useful ideas (66.7%), and encouraged each other to talk (75%; 66.7%). All the participants believed that they engaged with each other's contributions (%100). As for the use of follow-up strategies, half of the participants (50%) indicated that they used the strategies, while the other half stated that they used the strategies partially. 58.3% of the participants partially agreed that they could contribute more to the talk using the strategies. The level of agreement with this statement (item 11) is lower compared to the first two weeks. This is surprising considering that participants frequently mentioned

how effective the interaction was. The following quotes illustrate how learners rated their own task performance and that of their partners.

*As I remember interaction strategies well this week, I could use them more, and for this reason this week was better. We could understand each other, and I think I encouraged my partner to speak more. (Millie)*

*I tried to speak and contribute in order not to stay passive during the interaction. I stated my ideas effectively (Mina)*

*We both contributed and assisted each other when we hesitated (Victor)*

*We exchanged a lot of ideas. We could ask whether we agree with each other's opinion. (Iris)*

Although most of the students were happy with their interaction and general task performance, some were also critical about their relationship with their partner. Two participants expressed their weaknesses as follow:

*I forgot to give my partner more time to speak. Next time I will also wait for my partner to say more. (Maya)*

*I thought a lot about my sentences and thoughts, so I could not focus on what my partner said. Next time I talk, I will not think about my contribution only and focus more on my partner's contribution. (Fiona)*

The participants were mostly satisfied with their contribution in the task, but some still mentioned that they could not use strategies as much as they expected. These respondents reasoned this by stating that they did not feel the need to use them frequently. For example, some indicated that they did not ask follow-up questions as much as they asked for opinions. Dylan, who mentioned that he did not use follow-up questions much, says:

*I used the same phrases during the interaction. I plan to use a variety of strategies next time.*

### ***Learner Perceptions on Week 4***

On the fourth week of the training, the participants were introduced to the strategy of “giving assistance”. The findings regarding the questionnaire given after the training session are presented in table 26.

**Table 26**

#### *Self-Evaluation Questionnaire for Week 4*

<b>Items</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Partially agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	85.7	14.3	0
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	92.9	7.1	0
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	85.7	14.3	0
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	78.6	21.4	0
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the talk.	42.9	42.9	14.3
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the talk.	35.7	50	14.3
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	7.1	35.7	57.1
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	0	35.7	64.3
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	7.1	7.1	85.7
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	28.6	71.4	0
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	28.6	71.4	0

Table 26 shows the highest rate of agreement among learners regarding the equality and mutuality of their interaction in the first four weeks. Almost all participants agreed that they could have a collaborative talk. 92.9 percent of learners agreed that their interaction had a high degree of mutuality. The majority of learners either partially (42.9%) or completely (42.9%) agreed that they encouraged their partner to contribute to the talk. While learners believe they contributed equally to the task, 35.7 percent of the participants indicated that they partially agreed with items seven and eight, meaning that either they or their partner may have dominated the talk at some points in the interaction. In the reflection section, Chloe and Maya comment:

*I could not use the strategies as much as I wanted, and my partner was more active than me. I will try to contribute more next time (Chloe)*

*I think I did not give my partner much chance to speak, and we could not organize our ideas well. Next time, I will listen to my partner more and give her chance to speak (Maya)*

As the learners received interactional strategy training, they seemed to be more aware of their behavior toward their partner. They gain awareness not only of language use in dyadic interaction, but also of the kind of personal relationship they need to maintain. Concerned with affective issues, Fiona and Millie seem to be dissatisfied with their behavior toward their partner. They express these concerns by saying:

*I think I was a little rude while talking and interrupted my partner. Next time, I will try to be politer. I will also use different phrases more rather than the ones I know. (Fiona)*

*Sometimes I believe that my idea is the best one, and I act rude towards my partner. I will be politer next time. (Millie)*

As for the gains from the strategy training and the way they interacted, the strategy group mentioned that they received a lot from the strategy training session on the strategy “giving assistance”. The participants mentioned that they could help each other with unknown words, pronunciation mistakes, construction sentences and hesitations. For example, Mina says that she could ask for help and receive help saying:

*I did not know how to pronounce some words, but thanks to the strategies, I could ask my partner, and learned from her. (Mina)*

### ***Learner Perceptions on Week 5***

On the fifth week of the strategy training, the participants were introduced with the “positive feedback” strategy. The results from the task evaluation questionnaire are presented in table 27.

**Table 27***Self-Evaluation Questionnaire for Week 5*

Items	Agree	Partially Agree	Disagree
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	85.7	14.3	0
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	92.9	7.1	0
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	85.7	14.3	0
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	78.6	21.4	0
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the talk.	71.4	21.4	7.1
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the talk.	57.1	35.7	7.1
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	7.1	14.3	78.6
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	7.1	0	92.9
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	7.1	21.4	71.4
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	50	50	0
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	35.7	64.3	0

As shown in Table 27, the participants positively perceived their performance on the task given to them after the introduction with positive feedback. Similar to the previous week, they mostly thought that they were able to speak in a balanced manner (85.7%). Participants' highest level of agreement was in relation to the mutuality of their interaction during the task. 92.9% of the participants felt that they were able to exchange ideas mutually and understand each other. Similarly, 92.9% of them stated that they did not dominate the interaction. Only 7.1% of the learners felt that they could not engage with each other's contribution. Regarding the use of the positive feedback strategy, half of the participants (50%) were able to use the strategy during the task, while the other half (50%) were able to use these strategies to some extent. More than half of the students (64.3%) partially agreed that they could participate more using the positive feedback strategies.

In their comments on the task performance of themselves and their partners, the students seem to become more aware of the level of collaborativeness of their interaction, to compare their performance in terms of collaboration and cooperativeness, and to understand whether they interacted on equal and mutual terms. The following quotes from students illustrate how students perceived their improvements:



*I am happy that we are learning new strategies every week. As the time passes, I improve my speaking and interaction skills thanks to these strategies. (Victor)*

*Day by day, we understand each other and talk more. When one of us do not know a word, we help each other. I think used strategies more, I could participate in the conversation more. I helped my partner understand some words. (Holly)*

*Compared to last week, I encouraged and supported my partner to talk more. We could both talk and understand each other. (Kai)*

Giving positive feedback is a strategy that participants already used before the training, but the comments show that before the training, participants only used the most common strategies such as "yes" and "OK". Four participants mentioned that they tried to use a variety of expressions for positive feedback during their interaction. Reflecting on this, Faith states:

*While giving positive feedback, I realized that I used "yes" a lot, and so did my partner. I need to use it less and try to use other phrases more.*

Some participants were also aware of their weaknesses, and areas to improve. Two participants stated that they forgot some of the strategies taught in the previous weeks. One of these participants' comments:

*We contributed equally to the task. The only problem is that I forgot some strategies taught in the first weeks. I will try to remember them since I need them when I talk (Iris)*

The comments about the strategies introduced in previous weeks are valuable and significant as they imply that the participants evaluate their improvement cumulatively, considering the training as a whole. Besides, Iris's comment shows that she wants to use the strategies as she feels that she needs them to talk better, not just for the sake of using them. Although not many weaknesses were noted in the comments section, one was made by Chloe in the following quote:

*I was able to use the introduced strategies, but was a bit passive compared to my partner. I talked less and could not really lead the task. Next time, I will definitely try to be more active and lead the task. (Chloe)*

### **Learner Perceptions on Week 6**

On the sixth week of the training, the participants were introduced “negative feedback” strategy. The findings regarding the questionnaire given after the training session are presented in table 28.

**Table 28**

*Self-Evaluation Questionnaire for Week 6*

<b>Items</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Partially Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	100	0	0
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	91.7	8.3	0
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	91.7	8.3	0
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	75	25	0
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the talk.	83.3	16.7	0
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the talk.	66.7	25	8.3
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	8.3	8.3	83.3
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	16.7	0	83.3
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	16.7	16.7	66.7
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	75	25	0
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	66.7	33.3	0

Table 28 shows that participants had the highest agreement with the equality of their interaction in the first six weeks. All participants (100%) indicated that they contributed to the talk in a balanced way. Most students also agreed that they interacted with a high level of mutuality (91.7%), participated actively (91.7%), and with useful ideas (75%). They believe they encouraged their partner (83.3%) and were encouraged to talk (66.7%). 83.3% of the participants believed that none of the interactants dominated the talk. The percentages regarding agreement with the use of the negative feedback strategy (75%) and agreement with the effectiveness of the strategies in contributing participation (66.7%) were the highest after six weeks of strategy training.

The participants' overall comments, and their comments on strengths and weaknesses also point out the success of strategy training. 10 student mentioned that they could use negative feedback strategies effectively during the talk and had a better interaction that week.

*We were better in this task compared the others. We could express ourselves using the strategies. I listened to my partner's opinions, gave feedback and asked her to elaborate on her ideas. (Mina)*

*I am not sure, but maybe because of this week's strategies, I had the opportunity to use them more and talk better (Millie)*

Some participants commented on the areas they were not satisfied with, but also mentioned how they dealt with those problems through working collaboratively. The following quotes show learner reflections:

*Although I used the strategies during the task, I was a bit passive during the interaction. I forgot my words, but my partner helped me remember those words. Next time I plan to be more active during the task. (Daisy)*

*While I was talking, I sometimes diverted from the topic, and my partner had difficulty in understanding me, but it did not turn out to be something negative as we had the chance to talk more thanks to that. (Millie)*

Based on the findings from the questionnaire and the comment section, it can be concluded that the participants mostly benefited from “negative feedback” training and could use the strategy in the follow-up speaking task. However, the frequency analysis has shown that the second least employed strategy by the experimental group is the strategy of “negative feedback”. The reasons for not employing this strategy in the post task, will be presented based on interview findings.

### ***Learner Perceptions on Week 7***

In week seven, the participants were introduced the strategy “confirmation requests”. The results of the students' response to the questionnaire, which was given after the training session, are presented in table 29.

**Table 29***Self-Evaluation Questionnaire for Week 7*

Items	Agree	Partially Agree	Disagree
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	69.2	30.8	0
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	69.2	23.1	7.7
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	69.2	23.1	7.7
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	46.2	46.2	7.7
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the talk	38.5	38.5	23.1
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the talk.	38.5	30.8	30.8
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	7.7	7.7	84.6
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	15.4	7.7	76.9
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	0	38.5	61.5
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	30.8	53.8	15.4
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	30.8	61.5	7.7

As seen in Table 29, more than half of the participants (69.2%) felt that they were able to have a balanced conversation, exchange ideas mutually, and actively participate. Regarding encouragement, 38.5% of the learners indicated that they were able to encourage their partner and were encouraged during the talk, while the others indicated that they were either not able to encourage their partner (23.1%) or only partially encouraged them (38.5%). The level of agreement on these items is lower than the previous week, indicating that the participants had a less collaborative interaction compared to the previous week. Learners' statements on the use of "confirmation requests" (item 10) also indicate that they were not able to use the strategies as much as in the previous week (partially agree: 53.8%, disagree: 15.4%).

Findings regarding a less collaborative speech is also evident in the comments of the participants. A high number of the students stated that they were not happy with their task performance that day. They said that they could not use the strategies as much as they want. The reason why participants hesitated a lot and could not express themselves could be the speaking task. Three students mentioned that they hesitated a lot while giving the recipe for the meal. On the issue, Dylan comments:

*When I was giving the recipe for the meal, I had difficulties in saying it, so my partner had more chances to use the strategies than me.*

Four students mentioned that they could talk as they expected, but did not use the expressions for confirmation requests. These participants were happy with the collaborativeness of their interaction although it was not the case for the strategy use, as seen in the extract below:

*We could understand and support each other. We helped each other for the words we could not remember. I could talk effectively, but I could not use some of the strategies. Next time I will revise and use the strategies more. (Iris)*

Since confirmation request strategy is used in a more limited context than asking for opinion, asking follow-up questions etc., learners may have not felt the need to use them. Supporting this hypothesis, Millie explains why she did not use confirmation requests much saying:

*We both contributed and helped each other during the task. I could understand almost everything my partner said, so I did not have to use confirmation requests, but I realized that I could use them when I need.*

To summarize, the participants may not have used confirmation requests as much as the previous strategies for two reasons: the topic given for speaking task (telling a recipe) and the reduced need for confirmation requests due to the fact that interactants could understand each other.

### ***Learner Perceptions on Week 8***

In the last week of the training, the participants received instruction on the strategy “giving clarification and confirmation”. The findings from the task evaluation questionnaire are presented in table 30.

**Table 30***Self-Evaluation Questionnaire for Week 8*

Items	Agree	Partially Agree	Disagree
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.	100	0	0
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.	100	0	0
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.	78.6	14.3	7.1
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.	64.3	21.4	14.3
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the talk	64.3	14.3	21.4
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the talk.	78.6	21.4	0
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.	0	7.1	92.9
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.	0	7.1	92.9
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.	0	7.1	92.9
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.	64.3	35.7	0
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.	71.4	21.4	7.1

As seen in Table 30, the participants rated their performance on the pair tasks highly for both equality and mutuality. All participants (100%) indicated that both they and their partner contributed equally to the conversation and exchanged their opinions with each other. More than half of the students also reported that they encouraged their partner to talk (64.3%) and were encouraged by their partner (78.6%). Almost all participants (92.9%) disagreed with the statement that they or their partner dominated the talk, supporting their belief in the equality of the interaction. The following statements illustrate the gains made by the participants:

*It was the best pair task we had so far. We talked a lot. My partner asked me questions when she did not understand me, and I could express myself very well. I even paid attention to my partner's body language to check if she understands me or not. I will try to use strategies more effectively when I struggle talking. (Betty)*

*We were engaged with each other's contribution. We could understand and complete each other. I asked my partner questions to clarify the topics we talked on (Daisy)*

*I helped my partner when she did not understand some parts. I could use the clarification strategies (Fiona)*

*We did perfect in this talk. We both contributed and understood each other. We used the strategies effectively. I helped my partner when she hesitated, and I could express myself clearly (Holly)*

Holly's comments are particularly noteworthy because she and her partner Maya were the ones who said that their interactions in the first few weeks were not as collaborative as they would have liked. They reported constant communication breakdowns and misunderstandings. As the weeks progressed, they seemed to work together better and more collaboratively. Finally, the dyad, who worked in the dominant/passive interaction pattern in the pre-task, was able to interact collaboratively in the post-task and the delayed post-task. Apart from the change observed in the interaction between Holly and Maya, the transition process of the other dyads is also evident in self-evaluation forms. Not only did the dyads learn about interaction strategies, they also developed an awareness of their interactive behavior and their partners. They monitored their contribution in the talks and were able to adjust their behavior, resulting in more collaborative dialogues.

### **Interview Reflections on the Strategy Training**

In addition to the data from the self-evaluation forms, semi-structured interviews were also conducted to further investigate how learners in the experimental group perceived the effectiveness of the interactional strategy training. All 14 participants in the training group were interviewed about their perceptions of task performance before and after the training, the strategies utilized more or less after strategy training and their reasoning behind it, and their perceptions of the effectiveness of strategy training on interactional patterns. The transcripts were analyzed through open coding, and the codes obtained were noted. Finally, the codes obtained were clustered and organized to identify the emergent themes and codes. The most salient themes, evidenced by excerpts, are presented in this section. As a result of the analysis, four main themes were identified (see Figure 11).

**Figure 11**

*Recurring Themes Associated with the Strategy Training*

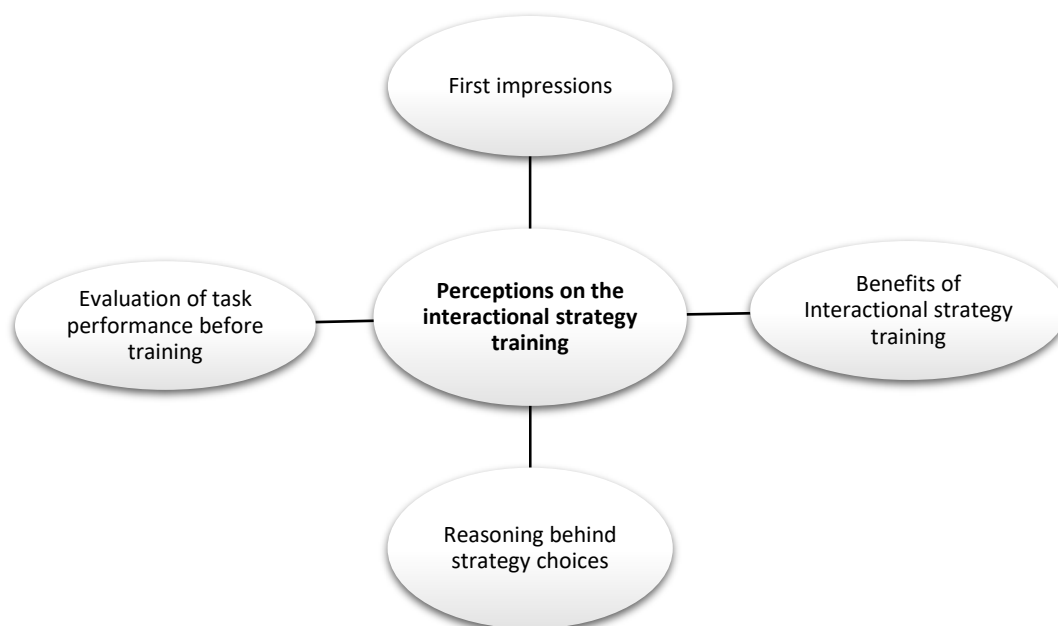


Figure 11 shows the main themes that emerged from the content analysis, namely first impressions of the training, evaluation of task performance before the training, benefits of interactional strategy training, and reasoning behind strategy choices. For each main theme, there are also sub-themes, and for this reason, they are presented under thematic groups given below.

#### **Thematic group 1: First impressions**

A recurrent theme in the interviews were the participants' first impressions on the strategy training. The respondents discussed how they felt about the strategy training and mentioned their first impressions of the training. All fourteen participants evaluated their experience of strategy training as positive and expressed their satisfaction with both the training process and the outcome. The sub-categories emerged from the theme were identified as exciting, challenging, and beneficial.

**Exciting.** A majority of the participants expressed their excitement at the beginning of the strategy training. Victor commented on how he got thrilled saying:



*I got too excited when we first started because I did not know how to speak well. I thought it would go very well and it went well.*

Similar to Victor, Holly and Dylan base their excitement on their willingness to improve speaking skills.

*At first, when we started learning strategies, I was very excited because was going to learn how to speak. At first, I was not sure if I could learn and use the strategies, but I have seen a great progress in myself thanks to these strategies.*

*Actually, at first, I thought that these strategies would benefit me in the future, I thought they could improve my speaking. That's why I started working with enthusiasm, which I think turned out to be good.*

The above given quotes lead to the conclusion that participants were particularly pleased as they expected the training to improve their speaking skills. One of the participants claimed that they had never been taught speaking skills before. Considering that speaking is one of the areas students struggle a lot, introducing interactional strategies may have been a welcome addition to the joy.

**Challenging.** In addition to the enthusiasm that was sparked in some of the participants, a few of the students also made comments on how challenging they felt at the beginning of the training process. Some others voiced their concern by bringing up the anxiety they have when it comes to speaking.

*Since I did not learn anything about speaking before, I had difficulties at first adapting to the training (Fiona)*

Although a few respondents commented on the challenges of the training process, their following statements revealed that that it was worth the hard work. Iris and Mary describe their feelings with the following remarks:

*First of all, I felt that this would be a long and difficult process, but from the day I received this training, I felt that it would improve my speaking. (Iris)*

*This training process was an intense but a very beneficial one for me and my speaking skills. (Mary)*

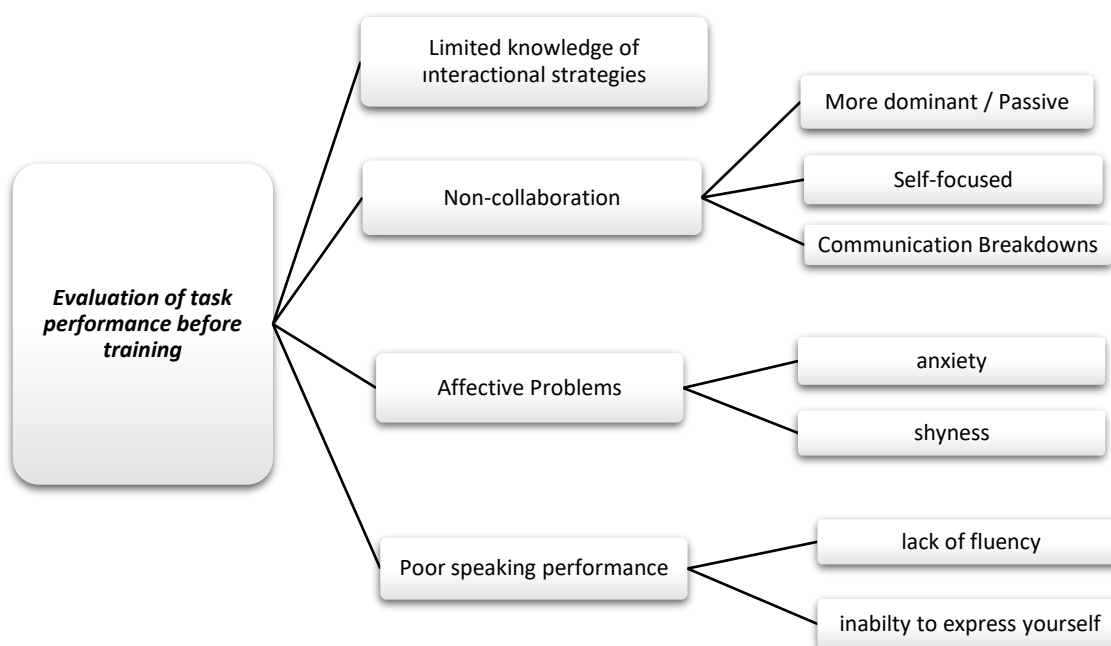
**Beneficial.** A common view among the interviewees was that they all felt that interactional strategy training would enhance their speaking and interactional skills. They constantly mentioned contentedness of the whole the process. Betty summarizes her training experience in the following statement:

*I felt that it could help me speak better .... towards the end of the training, I realized how inadequate I was at the beginning. I started to learn how I could establish a better interaction, so I felt like I was improving. From the beginning to the end, I was able to notice my improvement visibly in interactions.*

**Thematic Group 2: Evaluation of Task Performance Before Training.** The second theme that emerged from the analysis concerns participants' self-perception and interactional performance prior to interactional strategy training. The subthemes are presented in Figure 12.

**Figure 12**

*Sub-themes and Codes for the Theme Evaluation of Task Performance Before Training*



**Limited Knowledge of Interactional Strategies.** All participants in the experimental group specifically emphasized that they were either unaware of the strategies or unable to use them during their interactions prior to the strategy training. The majority of respondents indicated that they only used the most commonly used strategies, such as asking for an opinion and giving an opinion. They also added that their knowledge of interactional phrases was limited to only some common phrases such as "I think". From the participants' comments, it is understood that they became aware of the existence of many strategies and interactional moves during the training.

*Before the training, did not know any strategies, for instance, I always said I think, I think, and nothing else. (Mary)*

**Non-Collaboration.** Another problem most frequently cited by the participants was their non-collaborative interactions. Twelve participants indicated that they were unable to work collaboratively with their partners prior to the training. When they were asked, these interviewees specifically pointed out the problem they observed in their interactions. While some stated they were passive, others felt they were too dominant. The following excerpts show how participants perceived their interactional behavior before the training:

*I didn't know what it meant to participate actively, I was just trying to dominate the talk without listening to my partner. I did not care what she was saying. (Millie)*

*At the beginning of the training, my partner was more dominant than me. I couldn't talk much. I was thinking a lot about how to make a sentence or what to say in a particular situation. Therefore, our communication was poor, we could not cooperate. (Chloe)*

In addition to the inequality of the participants' contributions, they were also critical of themselves for not achieving mutuality in their interactions with peers. The majority of learners indicated that they were too preoccupied with their own contribution and ignored their partners. They felt that their interaction was far from the natural interactions that include exchanging of ideas, turn taking moves etc. With this in mind, Sally, Holly, and Faith evaluated their task performance before the training as follows:

*We did not use to exchange ideas with each other before. she was talking, I was talking. She was talking, I was talking, but, for example, I did not used to ask what her opinion was, so we didn't interact much with each other. (Sally)*

*Before the training, I did not use to contribute much to the conversation. I would just listen to my partner, and then say a few sentences, but I would not give any feedback or ask questions to my partner. (Holly)*

*I was just trying to be active, talk as much as possible, and explain my point without listening to my partner. (Faith)*

A great number of participants also expressed their dissatisfaction with the constant communication breakdowns. They stated that they had great difficulty understanding and explaining themselves to each other, which led to communication breakdowns. They seemed to feel that they were unable to understand each other and establish effective communication without strategic knowledge. Two respondents attributed these communication breakdowns to a lack of interactional strategies with the following remarks:

*At first, for example, when there were things that I did not understand, I did not know what to say, how to ask about it. I did not try to understand; I would skip those sentences. (Victor)*

*When I wanted to say something, and did not know the word, we would not try asking our partner, we would just pass it and keep talking without understanding. (Kai)*

The findings in regards to the participants' perceptions of their non-collaborativeness before the training were consistent with the results of the pre-task analysis. In the video analysis, it was found that the majority of the participants exhibited a non-collaborative orientation. As observed by the participants during the interview, both the mutuality and the equality between interlocutors were low. In addition, the participants experienced many unresolved communication breakdowns.

**Affective Problems.** While commenting on their peer task performances before the training, the participants frequently talked about the affective barriers to their speaking. They

stated that could not control their anxiety and shyness, which greatly affected their speaking performance.

*At first, I was too passive, too shy. I thought people would laugh at me when I talk, but now feel that I could express myself (Kai)*

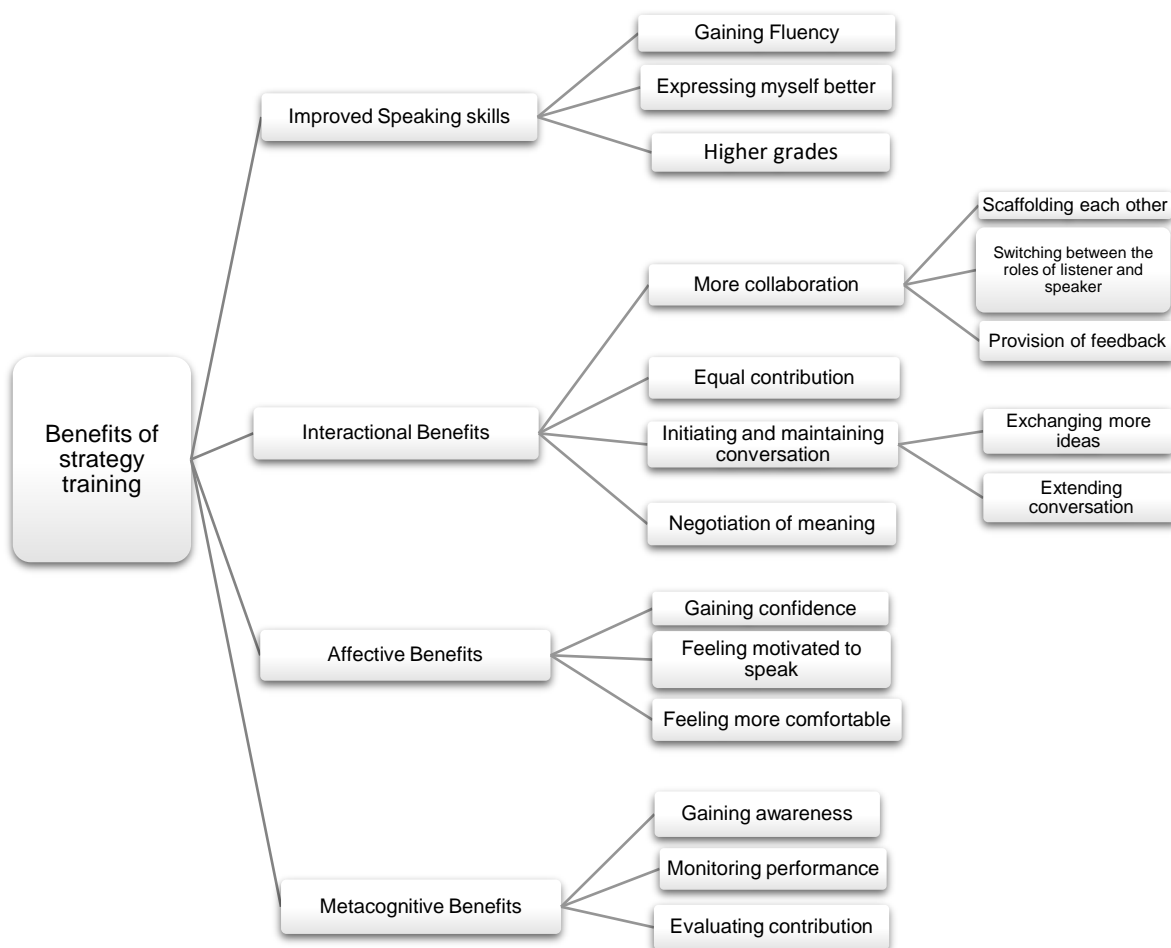
*Before learning the strategies, I had the fear of making mistakes while speaking (Betty)*

**Poor Speaking Performance.** Another sub-theme identified in the analysis was the participants' negative perceptions of their general speaking skills. Before the training, the participants felt that their speech lacked fluency. Five participants stated that they could not speak fluently, hesitated a lot, and had to take long pauses during interactions. As one interviewee put it:

*At first, I was not fluent at all, I hesitated too much because I did not know what to say. I was too anxious. (Daisy)*

Daisy's hesitation combined with her lack of strategies could explain her passive role in the pre-task. Furthermore, some participants indicated that they had trouble expressing themselves and struggled a lot during the interactions. In these moments, they were aware that they usually tended to avoid the challenge and change the subject, leaving the problem unsolved.

**Thematic Group 3. Benefits of Strategy Training.** In response to the interview question inquiring whether the interactional training affected the participants in any way, all fourteen participants agreed that they had benefited greatly from the strategy training. Following the positive response, participants were encouraged to discuss the gains. The subthemes shown in Figure 13 emerged from their responses.

**Figure 13***Emerging Sub-themes Regarding Learner Benefits*

As shown in Figure 13, the participants emphasized four main benefits of interactional strategy training: a) improved speaking skills, b) interactional benefits, c) affective benefits, and d) metacognitive benefits. Each of these categories was elaborated in detail in the following sections with reference to subcategories and codes.

***Improved Speaking Skills.*** The majority of the participants expressed satisfaction with the improvement in their speaking skills, not only in their interactions with peers, but in speaking English in general. Just as they mentioned when evaluating their performance before the training that they did not speak fluently and had difficulty expressing themselves, the participants indicated that the strategy training made them somewhat more fluent and able to express themselves better. Victor, one of these participants, believes that the

interactional strategies helped him solve communication problems and be strategic, which made him a more fluent speaker than he used to be.

*It was actually helpful because when I hesitated at some parts of the speech or didn't understand something and things like that, I didn't know how to react, what to ask, how to make my speech more fluent. I think I've made some progress thanks to the strategy training (Victor)*

From the participant comments, it is understood that improved speaking performance also affected their academic success. Three participants indicated that the strategy training not only improved their speaking skills, but also helped them receive high marks on the oral test. Since their oral test included a pair-task component, they believed this contributed to their speaking performance. Betty enthusiastically reflects on the issue saying:

*Strategy training was definitely helpful. I saw the difference in my last oral tests. I got 95 on my last oral test; but I failed the preparatory exam because of speaking (laughs). I was so disgraced; but later on, I learnt how to speak and feel like speaking a foreign language*

**Interactional Benefits.** Among all the benefits that the training brought, the most frequently mentioned gains were the interactional benefits. All participants noted that the training helped learners achieve better interaction with their partners. First, all participants indicated that they started working more collaboratively after the intervention. In particular, they mentioned that they were able to interact mutually and engage with one another. When the participants were asked to elaborate on their collaboration, the majority of the learners indicated that they began to assist their partner, ask for help more, and receive help during their interactions. The ways in which learners scaffolded each other were evidenced by the following statements:

*As I learned these strategies, I think I contributed a lot to my partner. For example, when I say something to my partner, when I help her, she understands it and she*

*keeps it in her mind. I teach her something she doesn't know, and thus, I think we are able to form a whole. (Milly)*

*When my friend couldn't express herself, I was trying to help her express himself by saying You this, you mean that etc. I was always doing things like this, not just in the post task, in other pair-tasks as well (Kai)*

From the above utterances, it seems that the learners could compensate for the other's insufficient knowledge and assist each other when they experience problems due to their limited language resources.

Another commonly cited change that participants noted in their interactions was that they became more aware of the importance of listening as well as speaking during their conversations. Participants admitted that they had not paid close attention to their conversational partner prior to the strategy training and had focused on their own contribution. The following comments from Betty illustrate her realization regarding listening to her partner:

*I stopped insisting on my own opinion and started to listen to my partner (laughs). One thing I never forget in my first video recording is that when my friend said "we should get a table", I just said "why", no why, no why". You know, I did not say anything else, did not listen to her. I didn't say "yes, actually, but I don't think so". I just said "no, why do you say that, we won't buy it" (laughs), so I really noticed my improvement. Now, what she says is more important for me.*

Emphasizing the significance of listening, the participants also reported that they learned to switch between the roles of speaker and listener during their interactions. They indicated that the knowledge of interactional strategies taught them how to listen and speak actively. In particular, turn taking skill was reported as a gain. That was brought up by Dylan in the following way:

*My partner used to be more dominant than me; I used to stay silent most of the time, but thanks to the interactional strategies, I can take over turns while she is speaking.*



While talking about the benefits of the training, a considerable number of students also commented on the progress they had made in giving each other feedback and how it enhanced collaboration in pair-task.

*Before the training, she was talking, I was listening, there was no feedback, or I was talking, but she was not responding at all. But after that, we did these things: "Why do you think like that. I asked why do you think that way?" We were able to give each other feedback. (Holly)*

*Our interaction has definitely improved. We helped each other more during the post-task. For example, I used a wrong word, he corrected me. I think it was the word "tie". I said "tie", he made a different suggestion at that moment. We both became more active compared to the pre-task. (Faith)*

Holly and Faith's utterances show that the learners were not only able to provide contextual feedback, but also linguistic feedback. Faith's example and the results from the post-task show that feedback given by the interlocutor pushes the speaker to reformulate his/her the original utterance, which ultimately contributes to better understanding and learning.

The second more commonly mentioned interactional benefit was noted as equal contribution. the majority of the participants noticed that they either talked less and remained passive, or talked a lot and dominated the talk. The respondents admitted that they noticed that this was a problem during the training. As the weeks progressed, they found that they were able to match the level of their contribution to their partner and eventually participate equally in the post-task.

*I was passive before. I got more active after the training ... My partner was more dominant, but later we could participate equally to the talk. None of us were passive or dominant (Iris)*

Participants' comments on the effects of the training also included their perceptions of change in their ability to initiate and maintain the conversation. A considerable number of the participants felt that they experienced problems initiating, extending, and maintaining conversations before the intervention. Some mentioned that their previous dialogs were

only in the form of questions and answers and were far from real communication. They specifically pointed out that they could extend the conversation by asking follow-up questions, giving their opinions or clarifying their opinions. Some indicated that the strategies allowed them to talk longer because they were more articulate. This was also evidenced by the overall count of task duration. The strategy group spoke significantly longer than the control group during the post-task and the delayed post-task. The following utterance represents Chloe's observed transition:

*The strategies definitely helped me because as I said before, in my previous interactions, I could only say my opinion in one or two sentences, and stop. But as I learned the strategies, I learned to establish a dialogue with my partner and it was really nice and effective for me.*

Finally, participants often talked about how learning interactional strategies had improved their ability to negotiate in meaning. As mentioned under the theme "evaluation of performance before the training", the participants noticed that they experienced many communication breakdowns because they did not know how to act at the time. They realized that they could establish better communication with their partners and understand each other better. The participants explained that they were able to ask questions when they could not understand a word or idea, or clarify themselves when they felt that their partner missed a point. The following comments from Victor show how he acted in the event of a communication breakdown before the training, and Holly's comment about what she did after the training:

*When I did not understand something, I used to act like I understood it and go on speaking because, for instance, I did not know how to ask for clarification and confirmation. (Victor)*

*In the post-task, I once did not understand my partner, and I gave her negative feedback saying "I don't understand you, could you please explain?" etc. (Holly)*

**Affective Benefits.** Prominent among the students when they talked about the benefits of strategy training was the affective benefits. Eight participants gladly uttered that they gained confidence in speaking and interacting with people. Kai's remark reveals the change in her emotions:

*Although I still can't speak very well, at least, I can speak freely without getting ashamed. I was not like this before. I was passive, and shy. I thought people would laugh at me, but now I don't think that way. I feel that I can express myself in any way. (Kai)*

Two participants also added that they even noticed changes in their body language. As one of these participants puts it:

*At first, I couldn't even look my partner in the eye. I mean, in the simplest way, I was able to improve my body language. (Victor)*

In addition to gaining confidence, the participants also noted that they felt more comfortable speaking in English and interacting with a partner. Daisy's comment indicates that the learning strategies improved the authenticity of her interaction.

*I started talking to my partner without fear, as if we were really chatting together, away from the anxiety of speaking a foreign language.*

As indicated by the interviewees' comments, the confidence gained by the participants along with more knowledge about the strategies seems to motivate the participants to speak. Some learners specifically used the word motivate and motivation during the interview. Daisy gives a picture of the level of her confidence before and after the intervention by saying:

*I was very anxious before. You know, when I came here, my English was not fluent. After learning the strategies, I started to believe in myself more. Before learning these strategies, you know, I didn't know what to say or where to speak, but after learning these, I felt more self-confident or I felt more motivated to speak.*

**Metacognitive Benefits.** In addition to the linguistic and interactional improvements noted by the learners, the participants also appear to have gained metacognitive awareness

regarding the regulation of their own learning process during the interactions. Learners explicitly stated that they had become aware of strategies, their purpose, and the timing of their use. From the learners' statements, it is understood that they got better in regulating the choice of interactional strategies. The following statements from Kai indicate the awareness she gained as a result of the strategy training:

*I used some strategies such as giving opinion and giving feedback before the training, but I did not know why I used them, and now, because I know what they are, even my mimics change according to the strategies.*

Participants also indicated that they developed an awareness not only of the use of strategies, but also of what constitutes collaborative speech. It seems that they improved their ability to monitor and evaluate both their contribution and that of their partner. They consistently mentioned that they were either less or more active before the training, but were able to regulate their contribution during the training and participate equally at the end. The following statements show the realization of some other areas:

*Until we received training on strategies I thought I could speak well, but I realized that I had a lot of things to improve, for example I realized that I was rude towards my partner before (Betty).*

*Thanks to these strategies, I have seen a lot of progress in myself. You know, I learned new things studying every week. I understood something even in Turkish, you know, thanks to these strategies, even in Turkish, there was no cooperation when we were speaking, thanks to them, I really give feedback even when I speak Turkish (Maya)*

Maya's statement is worth noting since she highlighted that she could adjust her interactional behavior not only in English interactions, but also in Turkish ones. In this sense, Chloe supports Maya's point with the following utterance:

*As we were establishing a dialogue, we learned to acknowledge our partner's opinion before disagreeing, and I learned that we should do the same in Turkish. Normally, we don't use it much in Turkish either (Chloe)*

**Thematic Group 4. Reasoning Behind Strategy Choices.** The final theme that emerges from the data is the rationale for the choice of strategy. The learners' own perceptions of the strategies they used most and least frequently in the post-task were elicited along with their reasons for doing so. In terms of the most frequently used strategies, the participants commonly named asking for opinion, giving opinion, and giving positive feedback. Some students also indicated that they were not previously aware of confirmation requests but were able to use them in the post-task. When asked why they were able to use them more than the others, a variety of responses were given. The majority of the participants felt that they used asking for opinion and giving opinion" strategies because they needed them more when speaking. Some also said that they had heard of these strategies before, and therefore felt more comfortable using them. Mary explained her reasoning with the following utterance:

*Because you know, people feel the need to express themselves more when interacting with the other person. These are the types of strategies that are mostly used, and that's why I focused on this and improved it.*

Regarding the use of confirmation requests, all three participants stated that this strategy was new to them, so they studied them more closely since they wanted use them during their interactions.

*Because when I received these trainings, I saw that I was weak in this area (confirmation requests), I worked a little more on my own, I improved myself and I was able to progress more in this (Victor).*

Regarding the learners' perceptions of the least frequently used strategies, negative feedback and offering clarification were considered the least frequently used strategies, followed by confirmation requests. For all the strategies, the most frequently cited reason was that the participants did not feel it was necessary to use them for certain reasons. A minority of students also mentioned that they could not remember these strategies during the interaction. These were articulated by the participants as follows:

*I used confirmation requests less than the other because I mostly understood my partner, and that's why did not feel the need to use them (Sally)*

*I did not give negative feedback because we could interact mutually. I did not need them (Fiona)*

All in all, the justifications for the most and least frequently used strategies were mainly related to the purpose of each strategy. From the participants' comments, it is clear that strategies such as asking for opinion and giving opinion and positive feedback were most used by the participants especially in the tasks that required an exchange of opinions. Similarly, the strategies that were used less were mainly attributed to a lower need. Some also added that they could not remember them during the tasks.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Discussion**

This section presents a comprehensive discussion of the findings in relation to the research aim of examining the impact of interaction strategies training on the level of collaboration among learners during peer interaction. This discussion encompasses an analysis of the data collected, which includes both qualitative and quantitative measures. The results will be interpreted and interpreted in light of the research questions and objectives outlined in the earlier sections of this dissertation. Additionally, the discussion will draw upon relevant literature and theoretical frameworks to provide a deeper understanding of the observed effects and implications of the interactional strategy training.

#### **The Discussion on the Effectiveness of the Interactional Strategy Training**

The primary goal of this study as stated in the first research question is to assess the potential impact of instructing learners in interactional strategies on the degree of collaboration that occurs between peers during interactions. Additionally, the study aims to investigate whether strategy training can facilitate the maintenance of a collaborative interaction pattern over an extended period of time.

In the pre-test phase, both the control group and the experimental group exhibited a low quality of peer interaction. The interactions of dyads were very typical of non-collaborative interaction with many problems cited in the literature. One prominent issue was the presence of dialogues that typically did not extend beyond the minimal exchanges necessary to complete the task, as students struggled to ask follow-up questions or encourage their partners to elaborate (Naughton, 2006). Furthermore, learners often reverted to their native language or engage in little exchange of ideas or reciprocity (Jacobs, 1998). These factors led to unnatural conversational exchanges without mutual engagement and satisfaction, deviating from the dynamics of real-life interaction.

There might be various reasons as to why learners might have formed non-collaborative interactions in the pre-test, forming dominant/dominant and dominant/passive patterns. Although the proficiency level of the participants might be a factor in affecting interactional patterns (Dao & McDonough, 2018; Storch & Aldosari, 2013), the learners in the present study were all at the same level, which points out another reason for efforts to dominate the interactions. The cultural background of the participants might have an influence on their participation and collaborativeness. Popov et al. (2019) argue that a student's cultural background can significantly impact his attitude towards peer collaboration and his level of engagement in collaborative problem-solving activities. Learners' attitudes towards feedback (Sato, 2013), directness of speech, and rate of hesitancy (Hodkinson & Poropat, 2014; Merkin, 2009) have also been found to be affected by culture. Turkey is a country with a high power distance (Hofstede Insights, 2023), which indicates that individuals with less power accept and anticipate unequal distributions of power within that society or organization. Thus, it is understandable that teacher-student interactions are mostly unequal and non-collaborative. In the present study, the participants are equal in power as their peers, so they are not expected to experience high power distance. However, interviews reveal that participants create a power distance even with their peers, thinking that their partner speaks English better than themselves or vice versa. Their belief, combined with cultural inclination, led to acceptance of the dominant speaker's authority and an unequal contribution. The dominants led the task, talked much, and listened less, while the passives mostly listened, were confirmed and led by the dominant. Interview findings and reflections also indicate low awareness of collaborative speech in the participants' mother tongue. Some participants mentioned that they did not know how to work collaboratively even in Turkish, implying that Turkish students may culturally have non-collaborative tendencies as they cannot create balance between equality and mutuality. However, no studies have been found on the cultural effects on the interaction patterns of Turkish EFL students. Further research is suggested on this to better understand the factors behind interactional behaviors.



Cultural background may affect not only interaction patterns but also the strategies used by the learners. Grainger (1997) suggests that cultural background is one of several interacting factors that can also impact strategy use in language learning. In particular, Grainger argues that learners' cultural backgrounds may influence the types of strategies they use as well as the frequency and effectiveness of these strategies. For example, learners from cultures that value cooperation and collaboration may be more likely to use collaborative learning strategies, such as peer feedback and discussion, compared to learners from cultures that prioritize individual achievement.

In addition to considering the cultural background of the learners, their educational background may also contribute to their non-collaborative behavior observed in the pre-test. Tatar (2005) highlights the impact of cultural influences on Turkish students' participation, stating that due to their educational background, Turkish students often exhibit limited engagement in class and minimal interaction with their peers or the subject matter. They may feel unfamiliar and anxious in classes that heavily rely on discussions, as such classroom dynamics are uncommon in their own educational context. Students tend to prefer classes where the teacher holds more authority over the course. Given that the participants in our study come from a similar educational environment described by Tatar (2005), their lack of familiarity with peer collaboration may have influenced their interactional behavior.

Despite the initial non-collaborative tendencies observed in the pre-test, the results of the post-test revealed a significant and positive impact of interactional strategy training on the quality of peer interactions. The training facilitated a noticeable transition from non-collaborative interaction patterns to more collaborative ones during pair tasks. The dyadic interactions underwent a transformative process, shifting from self-centered exchanges where participants focused mainly on their own contributions, lacked meaningful engagement, and failed to actively respond to their partner's speech, to a more interactive and engaged discourse. This transformation was characterized by increased engagement,

enhanced idea exchange, effective turn-taking, and the expansion of utterances. Learners who received interactional strategy training exhibited a greater inclination to engage in collaborative activities, share their ideas with peers, and demonstrate confidence in their communication abilities. These findings support prior research (Bejarano et al., 1997; Dao, 2020; Fujii et al., 2016; Lam, 2009; Nakatani, 2010; Naughton, 2006; Sayer, 2005; Xu & Kou, 2011) indicating the positive impact of strategy training on interaction quality. Although these previous studies did not specifically focus on interaction patterns, they consistently found that interactional strategy training improved overall interaction quality. However, in the study conducted by Benson et al. (2013), an increase in strategy usage was observed, but no significant difference was found in group discussion skills. Interestingly, the control group demonstrated greater improvement in this aspect. The authors suggested that these findings could potentially be attributed to factors such as participants' familiarity with each other and their individual communication styles.

Several factors may have contributed to the promotion of collaboration in dyadic interaction through strategy training. One potential catalyst for the shift towards collaborative dyadic interaction could be the increased recognition of interaction as a social phenomenon. The analysis of dyadic interactions in post-task, along with insights from interviews and self-reflection forms, reveals that learners' heightened awareness of effective collaboration extends beyond individual performance and encompasses the joint construction of interaction through mutual effort. This indicates that training in interactional strategies can positively impact the development of Interactional skills. In summary, the strategy training provided learners with instruction on these interactional strategies and how to apply them in peer interaction tasks, resulting in an enhanced interactional ability.

The findings presented in this study provide additional support to a theoretical perspective that views interaction not only as a mode of communication, but also as a cognitive tool (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Through strategy training, students acquired the ability to effectively engage in speaking tasks by using language as a tool for collaborative

construction of the necessary linguistic resources to convey their intended meaning and jointly develop knowledge about language. In this way, their dialogue served a dual purpose, facilitating both their second language (L2) learning and communication with one another.

Another potential factor that may have facilitated the transition to collaborative dyadic interaction is the impact of training on enhancing psychological readiness. The participants' willingness to engage in collaborative interactions and their ability to employ effective interaction strategies can be attributed to their *collaborative mindset*, which encompasses their attitude towards both the task and the individual they are interacting with, as defined by Sato and Viveros (2016). According to their hypothesis, learners who approach peer discussions with a collaborative mindset are more inclined to provide feedback to their partners, indicating that having a collaborative mindset is associated with increased engagement. Subsequently, Sato (2017) further defines this construct as an "interaction mindset," which refers to "a disposition toward the task and/or the interlocutor prior to and/or during the interaction" (p.255). The findings of Sato's (2017) study demonstrate that learners with a collaborative mindset are more likely to engage in feedback exchanges with their peers, and these exchanges are perceived as more productive and beneficial. The study concludes that learners' interaction mindsets can significantly influence the effectiveness of their interactions, and fostering a collaborative mindset can facilitate more effective and productive learning interactions. Building upon Sato's (2017) research, several other studies have explored collaborative mindsets and their impact on learning interactions. For instance, Kim et al. (2020) conducted a study on collaborative learning in online environments and found that learners with a collaborative mindset were more inclined to engage in effective communication and productive collaboration with their peers. Similarly, Zhao et al. (2021) investigated the influence of a collaborative mindset on problem-solving in a university context and observed that learners

with a collaborative mindset were more likely to employ effective problem-solving strategies and achieve better learning outcomes.

Consistent with previous research on the relationship between a collaborative mindset and effective interaction, the current study suggests that the training may have facilitated the development of a collaborative mindset among learners. This mindset likely enhanced their awareness of their partner's contributions and promoted mutual engagement during the interaction. The analysis of reflection forms and interviews reveals that the collaborative mindset nurtured through the strategy training likely encouraged students to perceive conversations as mutual progress and engage in active listening as much as speaking.

In line with the concept of a collaborative mindset, Dao and Sato (2021) further corroborate the relationship between emotional engagement and the extent of collaboration. Their findings indicate that as emotional engagement increases, so does the level of collaboration between pairs. Conversely, when learners demonstrate a higher degree of collaboration, they are more likely to experience a greater level of positive emotional involvement. These findings emphasize the significance of teachers enhancing and monitoring learners' emotional engagement, as it fluctuates throughout the course of interaction.

Supporting the notion of collaborative mindset, Dao and Sato (2021) also found a correlation between emotional engagement and the level of collaboration. It seems that when emotional engagement increase, the level of collaboration among pairs also increase, or when learners demonstrated a greater degree of collaboration, they are more likely to have a higher level of positive emotional involvement. The findings suggest that it is important for teachers to enhance and monitor learners' emotional engagement as they fluctuate during the course of interaction.

As for the comparison between the two groups, while the experimental group showed a more noticeable shift towards collaboration, it is worth noting that certain dyads

in the control group also demonstrated improvements in collaboration over time. This finding is consistent with the results of Chen's (2018) study, which investigated the interaction patterns of pairs in communicative tasks in a second language (L2) classroom. Although Chen's study did not involve a control group or strategy training, it shared similarities with the present study as both examined transitions in interaction patterns across multiple tasks. Similar to the control group in the present study, Chen (2018) observed a transition from non-collaborative to collaborative interaction during communicative tasks. The author suggests that the enhanced collaboration in the control group may be attributed to the practice effect and the participants' increased proficiency over time. Considering that the present study spanned 17 weeks and the participants received regular English courses, it is possible that they became more proficient in English, thus contributing to the observed improvements. The existing literature on task repetition and practice provides support for these findings. For instance, Akbari and Tavakoli (2019) investigated the impact of task repetition on peer interaction among EFL learners and found that repeated practice of speaking tasks facilitates peer interaction by enhancing learners' proficiency, confidence, and utilization of interactional strategies for negotiating meaning.

The nature of the tasks assigned to the control group on a weekly basis may have also contributed to the enhanced collaboration observed in some pairs within that group. According to King (2002), in addition to basic peer learning tasks, there are more advanced tasks that require a higher level of cognitive processing. These complex tasks involve collaborative problem-solving, analysis and synthesis of information to generate new knowledge, group decision-making, evaluation of each other's work, and peer tutoring. Such advanced tasks necessitate a greater level of cognitive processing, involving skills like critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making. In the present study, the practice tasks assigned to the control group involved higher levels of complexity, such as planning and decision-making, which can foster peer interaction by encouraging learners to work together and negotiate meaning. Therefore, it can be inferred that these practice tasks

facilitated peer interaction to some extent by promoting the expression of ideas, negotiation of meaning, and provision of feedback among learners. However, it is crucial to highlight that the level of collaboration exhibited by the control group was significantly different from that of the experimental group.

There is a clear distinction in the degree of collaboration observed between the collaborative pairs in the experimental and control groups. For instance, the collaborative dyads in the experimental group displayed higher levels of equality and mutual engagement in their interactions, characterized by frequent turn-taking, attentive listening, and efforts to establish common ground. In comparison, the dyads in the control group demonstrated lower levels of collaboration.

In the delayed post-task, all dyads in the strategy group successfully engaged in collaborative interactions. In the control group, three dyads remained non-collaborative, while four dyads exhibited a combination of collaborative and expert/novice interaction patterns. The control group demonstrated a slower transition to collaboration compared to the strategy group, and some pairs in the control group exhibited unstable transitions, fluctuating between collaborative and non-collaborative patterns. Overall, the strategy group displayed more consistent and successful adjustments towards collaborative interactions in both the post-task and delayed post-task phases. To the best of my knowledge, no previous study has examined the long-term effects of strategy training on interaction patterns. Therefore, the present study contributes to the existing literature by addressing the question raised by Chen (2018) regarding the sustainability of collaborative interaction patterns among dyads. The findings of this study indicate that the improved collaborativeness achieved through strategy training can endure for an extended period, as participants were able to maintain the acquired skills for at least eight weeks following the training.

The guidelines and defined features of interactional patterns proved to be valuable in assisting researchers in determining the interactional patterns observed in the present

study. However, it is worth noting that the characteristic features used to define these patterns in previous studies did not always align with the broader framework of communication. In the present study, the presence of defining features did not always indicate the corresponding pattern when analyzed comprehensively. For instance, Storch (2002) suggests that the use of the first-person plural pronoun signifies dominant patterns, as it indicates a focus on individual contributions while disregarding the partner. However, in this study, it was observed that although some learners were engaging in collaborative work during the tasks, they used the first-person singular pronoun "I" more frequently than the first-person plural pronoun "we." The analysis of collaborative pair interactions revealed that learners utilized "I" to express their opinions, exchange ideas, and provide suggestions, rather than ignoring or imposing their partners. This finding aligns with the observations made by Kos (2019), who also identified frequent instances of the first-person plural pronoun in collaborative dialogues. Kos (2019) argues that unresolved negotiations and disagreements do not necessarily imply that learners do not benefit from the conversation or enjoy interacting. Even in such cases, learners still produce language-related episodes, engage with the task, and continue the conversation for an extended duration.

In addition to the presence of characteristics that deviate from the general features of a pattern, some interactions exhibited a combination of multiple interaction patterns, incorporating both dominant and collaborative moves. The concept of a "blend" pattern, which refers to a pattern that displays characteristics of more than one interaction pattern (Galaczi, 2008), proved useful in identifying these interactional behaviors. While there was only one instance of a blend pattern in the present study, it is worth noting that dyadic interactions are replete with contrasting interactional moves, which can pose challenges for researchers in their identification. In this regard, the analysis underscores the importance of researchers being attentive to potential patterns that may not have been previously addressed in the literature.

Most of the pre-existing interactional patterns were observed in this study, with the exception of the cooperative pattern. This could be attributed to the nature of face-to-face interaction. The studies (Li & Zhu, 2013; Tan et al., 2010; Watanabe & Swain, 2007) that identified the cooperative pattern focused on patterns of interaction during computer-mediated interactions. The cooperative pattern was characterized as a pattern in which both speakers contributed equally to the conversation but primarily focused on constructing or correcting their own utterances without engaging with what the other person was saying (Tan et al., 2010). The cooperative pattern was identified in online interactions where speakers may have interacted collaboratively in a face-to-face setting but failed to do so due to the asynchronous nature of written chat. In the present study, as learners did not have such constraints, they were able to work collaboratively to complete the tasks.

### **The Discussion on the Effect of Strategy Training on the Use of Interactional Strategies**

The second research question aimed to investigate whether interactional strategy training led to an increase in the number of interactional strategies used by participants in both the post-task and the delayed post-task. The statistical analysis of strategy counts revealed that the experimental group demonstrated higher utilization of interactional strategies compared to the control group in both the post-task and the delayed post-task. These findings are consistent with numerous studies that have reported an increase in strategy use following strategy training (see Bøhn & Myklevold, 2018; Dörnyei, 1995; Lam, 2010; Lam & Wong, 2000; Naughton, 2006; Rabab'ah, 2016). It is noteworthy that the strategy group nearly doubled their usage of strategies, whereas the control group exhibited a 23% increase. This difference can be primarily attributed to the knowledge of strategies introduced during the training sessions. The fact that the strategy group used even more strategies in the delayed post-task indicates that learners could maintain their learned strategic ability after the training. In summary, addressing the need for studies exploring the long-term sustainability of the positive impact of strategy training through delayed post-tests



(Dao, 2020), this study contributes to the literature by demonstrating that the effects of training can be observed in dyadic interactions even two months after the training, with a wider range of strategies and collaborative actions.

Average task duration and word counts in the dyadic interactions also indicate a greater increase in cooperation and strategy use among participants in the experimental group. The dyads in the experimental group engaged in longer discussions and utilized a wider range of vocabulary in both the post-task and the delayed post-task compared to the control group. In essence, the strategy training appears to have not only enhanced strategy utilization but also influenced speech production and duration, supporting the previous research (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Nakatani, 2005; Thornbury, 2012). Students who received the strategy training employed a greater number of strategies, engaged in more extended conversations, and generated a larger vocabulary.

Interaction researchers posit that attention, awareness, and noticing play crucial roles in the cognitive aspect of second language learning through interaction (Gass & Mackey, 2015). The utilization of interaction-monitoring strategies entails being conscious of one's own language comprehension and production during communication. These strategies often involve metalinguistic techniques like seeking feedback or correction on language use and attending to others' language use (Mariani, 2010). Although opponents of interactional strategy training argue that L2 strategic ability is already reflected in learners and assert that strategy training is unnecessary for strategy acquisition (Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991), it is essential for learners to consciously "notice" language forms in the input in order for acquisition to take place, and this noticing process necessitates learners' conscious attention to these forms (Schmidt, 2001). As demonstrated in the present study, strategy training enhances awareness and attention in interaction by providing explicit instruction on using various strategies to facilitate communication. Through training, learners gain a heightened awareness of their own communication processes and how to employ different strategies to overcome communication barriers. It is evident that

participants not only acquire new interactional strategies but also become more cognizant of the strategies they already possess, when and how to use them, resulting in increased strategy use. The fact that the strategy group utilized twice as many strategies as the control group in the post-task also demonstrates that strategy training can expedite the development of strategic competence. By teaching learners specific interactional strategies, they acquire the skills to employ them effectively during interactions. As learners become more proficient in using these strategies, they can apply them more automatically and with less cognitive effort, thus accelerating the process of developing strategic competence.

Regarding the impact of strategy training on enhancing fluency and promoting extended conversations, research aligns with the findings of the present study, which indicate that language learners can achieve a high level of fluency in speaking by employing specific communication techniques (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Thornbury, 2012). Evidence suggests that instruction in communication / interactional strategies can lead to improved fluency and meaningful negotiation among learners (Nakatani, 2005) and enhanced overall speaking performance (Maleki, 2007). The correlation between fluency and strategy use is supported by Xu and Kou (2017), who investigated the use of interactional strategies and their predictive power on language performance in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Their findings reveal that interactional strategies are better predictors of fluency and complexity than accuracy, highlighting the significant impact of strategy use on speech fluency. These findings imply that learners who possess a greater awareness of strategy use are more likely to sustain conversations for longer durations compared to those who lack such awareness.

The types and the frequency of the use of strategies before and after the training showed significant variation between the experimental and control groups. In the pre-task phase, both groups exhibited similarity in the types and frequency of strategies employed. The most commonly used strategies by both groups were positive feedback and requesting and providing opinions, while the least utilized strategies were seeking and offering

assistance. The prevalence of positive feedback and opinion-related strategies can be attributed to learners' familiarity with such expressions. Even prior to the training, learners were already acquainted with phrases like "yes," "you're right," "correct," and expressions like "what do you think?" and "I think." It is unsurprising that these were frequently used in their interactions. Additionally, the nature of the task itself may have influenced strategy use. Given that the task involved problem-solving and necessitated sharing opinions with a partner, learners might have employed opinion-related strategies more frequently.

After the training, both groups demonstrated the highest frequency of using the strategies "positive feedback" and "asking for opinion and giving opinion." However, the order of utilization for other strategies varied between the groups. In the experimental group, the third most commonly employed strategy was "offering clarification and confirmation," followed by "confirmation requests," "negative feedback," "giving help," "asking for help," and "asking follow-up questions." Conversely, in the control group, "negative feedback" ranked third in terms of frequency, followed by "offering clarification and confirmation," "giving help," "confirmation requests," "asking for help," and "asking follow-up questions." Notably, participants in the strategy group exhibited a higher level of proficiency in utilizing all interactional strategies compared to the control group.

The findings of the present study contradict the results of Xu and Kou (2017), who reported that asking follow-up questions was the most frequently employed strategy, followed by repair. Additionally, Naughton (2006) found similar results, where asking follow-up questions was the most commonly used strategy in both groups and showed the most improvement in the experimental group. Naughton (2006) suggests that the skill of asking follow-up questions appears to be relatively easy, as students only need to attentively listen to the interlocutor and formulate relevant questions. Surprisingly, follow-up questions were used the least in the present study. Interviews with the participants revealed that they did not feel the need to ask follow-up questions because they believed their partners provided sufficient details and reasons for their opinions.

The comparison of mean scores in the post-test reveals significant differences in the use of various strategies in the experimental group. Following the strategy training, the most notable increase is observed in the frequency of positive feedback, followed by offering clarification and confirmation, asking for opinion and giving opinion, confirmation requests, giving help, negative feedback, and asking follow-up questions. Naughton's explanation (2006) for the highest improvement applies to this finding as well. Learners may employ positive feedback strategies more frequently because they require less linguistic ability compared to other strategies. However, offering clarification and confirmation strategies pose a greater challenge as they require the ability to reformulate and paraphrase previous utterances, which can be difficult for L2 learners. During interviews, some participants mentioned their lack of awareness of clarification and confirmation strategies before the training and expressed their appreciation for their usefulness in interactions, which motivated them to use this strategy in the post-task. Since offering clarification and confirmation was a strategy that was seldom used prior to the training, the increase in its usage appears to be higher due to the explicit instruction provided.

Although not identical to the findings of the present study, Naughton's research (2006) reveals a similar trend regarding the use of the requesting and giving clarification strategy. In that study, the experimental group showed minimal usage of this strategy in the pre-task. However, following the intervention, the participants doubled their utilization of this strategy. Naughton (2006) attributes the lower initial usage of the strategy to the specific tasks assigned to the students and the context in which they were studying. She argues that learners may have been able to comprehend each other despite errors and breakdowns in speech. In contrast, although the tasks in the present study did not require learners to employ the request for clarification and confirmation strategy to the same extent as a jigsaw or information-gap task, learners still exhibited a twofold increase in strategy usage compared to the pre-task.

One possible explanation for the relatively lower usage of confirmation checks and recasts could be the nature of the speaking tasks. Gass et al. (2005) discovered variations in the occurrence of interactional features across different types of tasks, such as picture differences tasks, consensus tasks, and map tasks. They observed that the provision of confirmation checks and recasts was lower in the consensus task compared to the other two. However, in contrast, Loewen and Wolff (2016) found no distinction between task types. They argue that the consensus task they employed was an information-gap task, unlike the study by Gass et al. (2005), and thus, learners were compelled to exchange information, resulting in the use of interactional moves.

The provision of feedback by the groups needs to be examined from two perspectives. Firstly, positive feedback emerged as the most frequently used strategy across all tasks. However, negative feedback was not employed as frequently as positive feedback by the participants. Secondly, within the experimental group, clarification requests were utilized more often than recasts and direct corrective feedback. Corrective feedback plays a crucial role in L2 development as it enables learners to reflect on their own utterances and explore alternative options (Ohta, 2001). Feedback helps learners identify problematic aspects of their interlanguage, facilitating areas for improvement and providing them with opportunities to refine their production skills (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Through feedback, speakers become aware of mismatches between their hypotheses and their partners' expectations, leading to a modification in their utterance construction (Gass & Selinker, 2008). However, corrective feedback typically occurs when the interlocutor responds to a linguistically problematic utterance, even if the meaning is clear (Loewen & Sato, 2018).

Consistent with the present study, Fuji et al. (2016) also observed a low proportion of corrective feedback compared to other types of feedback. They hypothesized that this could be attributed to the learners' low proficiency level, as they may lack the linguistic knowledge to correct their partners. This possibility aligns with the findings of the current

study, where some grammatical errors went unnoticed by the participants, indicating their inability to identify errors in their partner's speech. However, the interviews revealed that learners chose not to provide corrective feedback because their primary focus was on understanding their partner's message. Negative feedback was predominantly given only when a communication breakdown occurred. Sato and Lyster (2012) also reported that negotiation for form was less frequent compared to negotiation for meaning, as learners often failed to signal mistakes or only provided feedback on a small portion of their partner's erroneous utterances. McDonough and Mackey (2000) argue that learners are less concerned with the form of utterances during communicative peer interactions, resulting in a relatively lower use of corrective feedback. Gass and Selinker (2008) state that it is possible for morphosyntactic feedback to go unnoticed because learners prioritize meaning over language form in communication. They further suggest that in terms of comprehension, grammatical accuracy is less crucial than lexical and phonological accuracy, as receivers can often make sense of the speaker's intended message even with grammatical errors. However, errors in vocabulary and pronunciation present more challenges due to the wide range of possibilities. Thus, in the present study, participants may have relied more on feedback strategies when communication breakdowns occurred specifically due to pronunciation and vocabulary errors.

Another potential reason for students giving less feedback to their partners could be their social perspectives on providing and receiving feedback. The act of pointing out mistakes made by fellow students might have been considered socially uncomfortable (Sato & Lyster, 2012), and learners may have deemed it inappropriate to correct their partners (Mackey et al., 2003). Similarly, in their study, Fuji and Mackey (2009) identified instances where a speaker's utterance seemed awkward or deviated from the target language, making it potentially incomprehensible to the listener. However, the listener did not attempt to seek clarification of the meaning. This behavior could stem from a desire to avoid face-threatening situations or because the listener was able to rely on contextual cues or shared

knowledge of the first language to derive a plausible interpretation. Fuji and Mackey (2009) suggest that learners may have employed alternative strategies to avoid the need for meaning negotiation, which could contribute to the infrequent occurrence of feedback episodes. In the present study, where interactional strategy training aimed to enhance learners' collaborative skills with high mutuality and encouraged polite feedback, learners might have consciously chosen not to provide corrective feedback directly or opted for less confrontational approaches, such as clarification requests.

Similar to the findings of Fuji and Mackey (2009), a small percentage of utterances that deviated from the target form received interactional feedback. However, when interactional feedback was given, it was frequently utilized. Transcript analysis of the tasks in this study indicates that feedback provided by the interlocutors during the pre-test often went unnoticed or was ignored by the listeners, resulting in unresolved communication breakdowns and low mutuality. In contrast, participants in the post-test typically responded to feedback and revised their original utterances. Therefore, the negative evidence received through interactional feedback may have facilitated instances of language adjustment (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Naughton (2006) argues that promoting repair, especially the repair of ungrammatical utterances, can be challenging due to the significant cognitive burden involved. Additionally, students must manage their own discourse within time constraints while simultaneously listening to and mentally preparing for their own contributions. Hence, even though corrective feedback was not frequently provided, learners were able to successfully handle it as a result of the strategy training that focused on interactional feedback.

In summary, learners' strategy choices are influenced by various factors, including individual, contextual, and situational factors. Factors such as peer collaboration, task type, and learner proficiency have been found to impact strategy use (Dao, 2020; Fuji et al., 2016; Sato & Lyster, 2012). Additionally, Chang (2015) argues that strategy choices and implementation are not solely cognitive decisions but are developed through dynamic

interactions that adapt to the environment and circumstances. While the significant increase in strategy use can be attributed to training, it is important to consider these aforementioned factors when evaluating the effectiveness of strategy training. Conducting stimulated recall sessions after tasks can provide a more comprehensive analysis of learners' strategy choices, which may be influenced by communicative needs, cultural background, personality, and task demands. Furthermore, the homogeneity of participants with shared linguistic and cultural backgrounds allows for exploration of cultural factors such as face-saving, individualism, and power distance. However, this homogeneity also limits the generalizability of the results to other groups and contexts. Therefore, further studies in different contexts are recommended to better understand the contributing factors that influence strategy use and interaction patterns.

### **The Discussion Regarding the Relationship Between Strategy Use and Interaction Patterns**

The fifth research question aimed to examine the link between strategy use and interaction patterns within pairs. To address this question, the researchers compared the frequency of strategy use by pairs with the interaction patterns they exhibited during their interactions. The findings reveal that participants engaged in collaborative interactions demonstrated the highest number of strategy use in both experimental groups. Following that, expert/novice pairs exhibited the second highest level of strategy use, while dominant/dominant and dominant/passive pairs showed lower levels of strategy use. Due to limited studies exploring the relationship between interaction patterns and interactional strategies, it is challenging to find direct evidence from previous research. However, although not specifically investigated, Sato and Viveros (2016) observed a correlation between the use of interactional features such as corrective feedback and modified output and collaborative interactions. These results align with previous literature that characterizes collaborative interactions as involving extensive strategy use, reinforcing the findings of this study.



As discussed in the literature section, interactional strategies are commonly observed in collaborative speech (Chang, 2015). Collaborative interactions are characterized by the use of specific strategies such as "peer repair," "recasting" as a form of negative or corrective feedback, "confirmation checks" as a type of positive feedback, "requests," and "provision of information" (Storch, 2002). Damon and Phelps (1989) note that peer collaboration promotes active engagement through the mutual exploration of ideas, providing feedback to each other, and regular exchange of thoughts. In collaborative talk, dyads offer critical and constructive responses to each other's ideas and work towards mutually satisfactory solutions (Friginal et al., 2017). Galaczi (2008) suggests that collaborative pairs not only expand on their own topics and ideas (self-initiated topics) but also build upon their partners' ideas (other-initiated topics). They develop topics through multiple turns, maintaining coherence and cohesion in their discourse. Collaborative interactions are characterized by listener support and involvement, the use of follow-up questions, overlapping speech, and the completion of each other's utterances (Galaczi, 2008). Based on these findings, it was hypothesized that collaborative dyads would employ a greater number of strategies compared to other interaction patterns, which aligns well with the aforementioned literature. In the present study, interactional strategies were frequently observed in situations where communication was collaborative. Participants actively engaged with each other, shared ideas, and worked together towards a common goal. During these interactions, speakers frequently utilized interactional strategies to facilitate effective communication and maintain a harmonious exchange.

It is not surprising that expert/novice dyads rank second in the use of interactional strategies. The expert/novice pattern is considered to be on the collaborative end, where the dominant speaker aims to support and involve the novice interlocutor in the conversation rather than exert control (Storch, 2002). In expert-novice dyads, the expert often provides linguistic assistance to help the novice learner (Dao, 2017) and facilitates learning through interaction (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). They offer instruction or scaffolding to support the

novice's learning process (Zheng, 2012). Although the novice may not contribute as extensively as the expert, they actively participate by confirming sentences and echoing the expert's suggestions (Storch, 2002). In the expert/novice pattern, dyads are expected to frequently employ interactional strategies while seeking common ground, providing scaffolding and assistance, and requesting help. Therefore, although not as frequently as collaborative dyads, expert/novice dyads tend to utilize these strategies in their interactions.

Dominant/dominant and dominant/passive dyads were found to utilize fewer strategies in their interactions. This can be attributed to the nature of these two patterns, which are characterized by low mutuality. In dominant/dominant dyads, there is a hesitance or inability to engage with each other's contributions (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Despite both participants being involved in the decision-making process, they may engage in arguments and struggle to reach consensus (Storch, 2001a). On the other hand, in dominant/passive patterns, the dominant learner constructs independent utterances, while the passive learner typically participates by echoing or repeating (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Dominant learners tend to disregard negotiation requests from their partners, assuming sole decision-making authority (Chen, 2018). The common characteristic of these two patterns is the low inclination towards joint decision making and collaboration, which results in fewer strategy uses and the disregard of strategies from the partner.

### **The Discussion on The Perceptions Towards the Efficiency of Strategy Training**

To address the sixth research question, which focuses on the perceptions of the experimental group learners regarding the effectiveness of interactional strategy training in improving their collaboration skills, self-evaluation forms were administered to all participants in the experimental group ( $N = 14$ ) on a weekly basis following the training sessions. Furthermore, interviews were conducted with the participants at the end of the training period. These evaluation forms and post-intervention interviews served as sources

of qualitative data, capturing the learners' experiences and perceptions, and complemented the quantitative data obtained.

The analysis of the peer evaluation form reveals a positive transformation experienced by the learners from the pre-test to the post-test phase. In the initial weeks of the training, participants reported difficulties in sustaining conversations and frequently encountered disagreements, leading to breakdowns in communication. They primarily focused on their own contributions and rarely provided feedback on their partner's input. However, as the weeks progressed, the dyads not only acquired knowledge of interactional strategies but also became more conscious of their own interactive behavior and that of their partners. This newfound awareness enabled them to adjust their actions, leading to more collaborative and cooperative dialogues.

In addition to the insights gained from the self-evaluation forms, semi-structured interviews were conducted to gain a deeper understanding of the perspectives of learners in the experimental group regarding the effectiveness of the interactional strategy training. The analysis of these interviews aligns with the findings from the self-evaluation forms, confirming that the strategy training successfully improved collaboration and strategy utilization. The majority of participants reported being unaware of the strategies or lacking the ability to employ them prior to the training. They also expressed difficulties in speaking and maintaining conversations due to anxiety and shyness. It is well-documented that anxiety can impact L2 interaction and the effectiveness of language acquisition during interactions (Loewen & Sato, 2018). Additionally, as highlighted by Strauß and Rummel (2021), imbalanced participation poses challenges to collaborative learning by limiting opportunities for meaningful collaboration among learners and affecting overall satisfaction. Consequently, participants expressed high levels of dissatisfaction with their task performance and the lack of collaboration.

The analysis of interviews and peer-evaluation forms highlights that participants acquired an understanding of the strategies through the training and recognized their

importance for effective collaboration. This recognition motivated them to naturally apply these strategies to facilitate collaborative dialogue. Specifically, participants frequently mentioned how interactional strategies helped them overcome communication breakdowns and maintain conversations. This result indicates that the interactional strategy training equipped learners with strategic competence, enabling them to utilize both verbal and nonverbal interactional strategies to address performance factors and inadequate proficiency-related communication challenges (Canale & Swain, 1980, p.30). With strategic competence, learners became more capable of navigating communication obstacles in diverse contexts and engaging in collaborative interactions. Empirical research studies, including those conducted by Kim (2013), Naughton (2006), Sato (2013), Sato & Ballinger (2016), and Xu & Kou (2011), consistently demonstrate the effectiveness of strategy training in enhancing learners' ability to interact in group activities. These findings underscore the significance of developing proficiency in a range of interaction strategies to ensure effective communication within group settings.

In addition to improving learners' strategic competence, strategy training seems to have played a significant role in reducing psychological barriers to speaking, thereby boosting learners' motivation for speaking and collaboration. Participants expressed satisfaction with the progress they made in their English speaking skills, not only in peer interactions but also in general English speaking. The participants' enhanced comprehension of the strategies appears to have served as a motivational factor for their speaking, consequently influencing their task performance and fluency.

Although peer interaction has been found to be less intimidating compared to interactions with teachers or native speakers (Sato, 2013; Sato & Ballinger, 2016; Tulung, 2008), participants in the study still reported experiencing speech anxiety and hesitation during peer interactions prior to the training. This suggests that peer interaction alone may not be sufficient to reduce the affective filter and promote fluency. However, the implementation of interactional strategy training has shown to significantly reduce speaking

anxiety among individuals (Tsai, 2018). The objective of the interactional strategy training in this study was to establish a positive and collaborative classroom environment where students feel at ease expressing their ideas and working together to achieve common goals. By enhancing students' communication and collaboration skills, interactional strategy training appears to lower the affective filter and enhance speaking ability. Thus, in line with previous research findings (see Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Nakatani, 2005; Sato & Lyster, 2012), it can be argued that strategy training improves the effectiveness of peer interaction and facilitates L2 fluency.

A significant finding of the present study is that participants experienced greater benefits from their interactions following the strategy training. Learners expressed their ability to assist and receive assistance, scaffold each other, and provide feedback, which positively impacted their language proficiency and academic performance. This finding is supported by existing literature, which highlights that pedagogical interventions enhance the effectiveness of peer interaction (Fuji et al., 2016; Kim & McDonough, 2011; Sato, 2013; Sato & Ballinger, 2012; Sato & Lyster, 2012). Pica (2002) suggests that the use of interactional strategies that promote meaning negotiation during communication can have a positive influence on language acquisition. Negotiation allows for tailored input that addresses learners' individual strengths, weaknesses, and communicative needs, leading to language development appropriate for their proficiency level (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Naughton's study (2006) with Spanish learners of English further confirms the effectiveness of strategy training in facilitating learning.

The participants in the strategy group also reported improved results in their oral exams following the training. It is expected that collaborative interlocutors with higher conversational abilities would perform better in speaking assessments (Galaczi, 2008). Similar findings were observed in Nakatani's study (2005), where participants who received strategy training demonstrated increased fluency and active engagement in negotiating meaning, resulting in better performance on oral tests. Galaczi (2008) further emphasized

the strong association between interaction patterns and speaking proficiency, noting that learners who worked collaboratively achieved higher scores on speaking assessments. These findings indicate that the effective use of interactional strategies can enhance oral test performance by facilitating successful communication and more effective self-expression.

The study revealed that learners not only benefited from collaborative interaction in improving their conversational abilities but also showed improvement in their grammatical and lexical skills through the negotiation of form and meaning sequences. It is argued that when L2 learners revise their original utterances based on interactional feedback, it can be advantageous for their language learning, as this process can stimulate cognitive processes (Fuji & Mackey, 2009). Negotiation plays a crucial role in modifications by focusing on erroneous forms and providing students with confirmatory or non-confirmatory feedback about their errors. This feedback prompts learners to make modifications and raises the question of whether this leads to long-term reconstruction of linguistic knowledge (Gass & Selinker, 2008). In this study, learners were prompted to correct their mistakes and use accurate grammatical and lexical forms through the feedback received on their choices. This finding supports that of Sato and Lyster (2012), who found that corrective feedback training facilitates L2 accuracy development without hindering fluency. Additionally, learners' enhanced active listening skills may have allowed them to closely observe their partners' speech and acquire language patterns from them.

The expected outcome of the training was that learners would gain greater benefits from their interactions, as they transitioned from non-collaborative to collaborative interaction. This shift towards collaboration appears to have enabled the mentioned benefits. As discussed in the literature, learners' ability to benefit from peer interaction is influenced by the social dynamics among peers (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). The social environment and the level of collaboration play a significant role in determining the extent of gains from peer interaction. Previous research reveals that pairs engaged in collaborative

patterns tend to achieve better learning outcomes compared to those using other patterns (Galaczi, 2008; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Storch, 2002; Watanabe & Swain, 2007). This is because knowledge transfer and learner uptake are more prominent in collaborative and expert/novice interaction patterns (Storch, 2002; Storch, 2009; Watanabe & Swain, 2007; Storch & Aldosari, 2012). Studies have shown that only learners who provide feedback and modify their output demonstrate benefits from the interaction (McDonough, 2004). Consistent with these findings, this study found that collaborative dyads, who work together and share ideas, tend to experience more positive learning outcomes compared to those adopting non-collaborative patterns. Collaborative learning allows these dyads to learn from each other, share knowledge and experiences, and provide feedback, leading to increased motivation, engagement, language proficiency, and test performance. However, contrary to previous literature, Kos's (2019) study suggests that dominant/dominant pairs use more Language Related Episodes (LRE) than expert/novice pairs, indicating that non-collaborative interactions may also facilitate learning. It is possible that dominant/dominant pairs generate more LREs due to their equal contributions, challenging each other, and providing negative feedback, while expert/novice pairs have imbalanced contributions with less feedback. Since LREs were not the focus of the present study, making a direct comparison is challenging. Future studies could investigate the impact of strategy training on interactional features, including LREs, to explore their potential for enhancing learning.

In summary, interactional strategy training equips learners with valuable tools and skills that facilitate effective communication, leading to enhanced collaboration and a positive learning experience. The positive perception regarding the effectiveness of strategy implementation aligns with findings from various studies (e.g., Bøhn & Myklevold, 2018; Dörnyei, 1995; Kongsom, 2009). Research on strategy training has demonstrated that instruction in strategies results in increased strategy use during interactions (Fujii et al., 2016; Naughton, 2006; Xu & Kou, 2011), improved fluency, and more negotiation moves (Nakatani, 2005).

## Chapter 6

### Conclusions

Based on the research questions, the present study aimed to investigate the potential influence of interactional strategy training on the extent of collaboration observed among learners during peer interactions. The study sought to explore whether providing explicit instruction and practice in interaction strategies would result in increased levels of collaboration among learners.

To comprehensively assess the effectiveness of interactional strategy training on learner collaboration, a combination of qualitative and quantitative analysis methods was employed. The qualitative analysis of pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test transcripts revealed a positive influence of interactional strategy training on the quality of peer interaction. It was observed that there was a notable shift from non-collaborative to collaborative interaction among participants who received the training. These learners exhibited improved collaborative behaviors, including active participation, information sharing, and joint problem-solving, in comparison to those who did not receive the training.

In terms of the utilization of interactional strategies, the quantitative analysis of strategy counts indicated that the experimental group surpassed the control group in the number of strategies used in the post-test and the delayed post-test. Analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data regarding students' general attitudes showed a predominant positive perception of interactional strategy training. Students perceived this training as beneficial in enhancing their collaborative interaction skills, improving their communication effectiveness, and fostering a conducive learning environment.

Interaction research has seen a change in the focus from determining whether interaction is beneficial to L2 development to exploring how and under what conditions it is efficient (Loewen & Sato, 2018). On this line of thought, this study aims to contribute valuable practical evidence and meaningful implications to the existing literature, shedding



light on the ways in which interactional training in the classroom can support students in implementing interactional strategies and enhancing collaborative outcomes.

This section of the study will provide valuable pedagogical and methodological implications for the fields of language interaction patterns, interactional strategy research, and peer collaboration. The insights derived from this section will enhance our understanding of effective instructional practices and strategies that foster productive peer interactions. Furthermore, based on the presented implications, suggestions for further research will be proposed to explore and expand upon the identified areas, fostering ongoing progress in the field.

### **Implications of the Study**

The present study holds both theoretical and practical implications for strategy training and peer collaboration. These implications are expected to enhance the influence of integrating interactional strategies and collaborative skills training in future studies, thereby strengthening their overall impact. The first theoretical implication pertains to the conceptual framework used to analyze communication/interaction strategies. The current conceptual framework is considered rigid and lacks integration with other perspectives, neglecting the significant influence of sociocultural factors on interactional strategies. For example, Tarone and Yule (1989) argue that the existing models of communication / interactional strategies overlook the social and cultural aspects of language learning and emphasize individualistic cognitive processes. However, as discussed in the literature section, recent research has provided compelling evidence highlighting the positive impact of sociocultural aspects, such as learning contexts, gender, and age, on interactional strategies. These findings challenge the validity of the existing framework and call for a more comprehensive and accessible theoretical approach that incorporates sociocultural dimensions when studying interactional strategies. By incorporating these dimensions, researchers can gain a deeper understanding of how sociocultural factors shape and

influence the use of interactional strategies in diverse contexts. This expanded framework will not only provide a more accurate representation of the phenomena but also facilitate more meaningful and relevant research in the field.

The diverse perspectives and orientations of researchers towards language analysis have resulted in varying definitions and categorizations of communication / interactional strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). This diversity poses challenges for comparing studies and hinder the cumulative research in teaching interactional strategies. Scholars approach communication / interactional strategies from different theoretical frameworks, focusing on different aspects and using different terminology, making it difficult to draw direct comparisons or generalize findings across studies. The lack of critical examination regarding the theoretical validity of learning strategies is another issue highlighted by Dörnyei and Skehan (2003), considering the inconsistent and vague definitions found in the second language acquisition literature. The absence of a consistent and widely accepted framework for categorizing these strategies creates a significant problem in L2 research, impeding the accumulation of knowledge and inhibiting the development of a cohesive body of research in teaching interactional strategies. This lack of consistency makes it challenging to identify commonalities, establish clear research trends, or build upon previous studies to advance the understanding and implementation of effective strategies in language teaching.

To address these challenges, it is necessary to develop a standardized framework or set of definitions for communication/interactional strategies. Establishing a shared understanding will promote consistency and enable comparisons across studies. Additionally, conducting replication studies with consistent methodologies and definitions can strengthen the evidence base and validate previous findings. By achieving a standardized framework and conducting replications, the field can move towards a more cohesive and comprehensive understanding of interactional strategies, facilitating research

advancement and the development of effective teaching approaches for interactional strategies.

The results obtained from the present study also carry important practical implications for the integration of strategy training to enhance the efficiency and quality of peer interaction. The findings of this study have the potential to impact both future research on interaction patterns and classroom approaches for interactional strategy training. This study provided more empirical evidence suggesting that interactional strategy training holds significant potential in cultivating proficient communicators who can effectively negotiate meanings, resolve communication breakdowns, provide feedback, and generate and expand on ideas.

It has been shown that pairing students together for speaking practice is beneficial for improving their ability to collaborate and develop their second language. Peer interactions provide opportunities for L2 input, production, and feedback, making them suitable for EFL classrooms with overcrowding or limited access to native speaker teachers and L2 input (Garcia Mayo & Pica, 2000). Engaging with peers also offers psycholinguistic advantages, such as increased time for information processing and output, leading to more frequent feedback and practice opportunities (Loewen & Sato, 2018). However, it's important to be aware that simply pairing students together may not be enough to facilitate meaningful interactions, as demonstrated by the present study. Without the necessary skills and strategies, peer interactions may be limited to simple question-and-answer sessions, lacking the authenticity, negotiation, repair, and feedback found in conversations with native speakers. Gardner (2019) emphasizes that language learning goes beyond acquiring linguistic competence; it also involves developing skills like effective turn-taking, active participation, social actions, storytelling, and problem-solving. Learners need to develop a wide range of communication skills to become proficient in the target language. However, as revealed by the present study, these abilities either improve slowly or never develop when they are not explicitly emphasized or taught.

For the above reasons, this dissertation advocates for the inclusion of interactional strategy teaching in the classroom. Teaching interactional strategies can raise learners' awareness, develop strategic competence, facilitate real-life communication, and enhance students' confidence and motivation to engage in communication (Sukirlan, 2014). In light of the study's findings, it is crucial to invest resources and effort in developing learners' oral communication skills to enhance peer collaboration. However, in contexts where English is not widely spoken outside the classroom and learners heavily rely on coursebooks to acquire interactional skills, classroom materials and textbooks may not provide sufficient support.

In many educational settings, particularly in Turkey, instructors heavily rely on coursebooks as their primary resource for language instruction. Textbook-based syllabi are commonly used throughout the year, limiting the course objectives to those defined by these textbooks. However, relying solely on coursebooks has several drawbacks. Davies (2006) argues that commercially produced English textbooks often fail to meet the needs and interests of students, lacking attractive, engaging, and personalized content. Similarly, Kumaravadivelu (2003) states that textbooks designed for general use cannot adequately address the specific interactive requirements and preferences of a particular group of learners. Despite these shortcomings, teachers often adhere strictly to the syllabi without deviating from them, fearing falling behind or lacking time to prepare additional materials. As a result, the approach taken by the coursebook towards communication skills and speaking significantly influences the extent to which these skills are taught in the classroom.

The recognition of the differences between spoken and written grammar has emerged through corpus analysis, highlighting the distinct conventions of spoken language, including formulaic expressions and discourse markers (Thornbury, 2012). Speaking, considered one of the most challenging language skills, possesses unique features and conventions that differentiate it from written language (Goh & Burns, 2012; Thornbury, 2012). It requires real-time processing, immediate feedback, and the proficient use of

appropriate grammar, vocabulary, intonation, and pronunciation. Additionally, social and cultural factors, such as understanding accents, adapting to communication styles, and employing suitable language in various social contexts, further complicate speaking proficiency, particularly for non-native speakers. Consequently, assuming that learners can develop an awareness of spoken grammar and skills solely through instruction in written grammar would be inaccurate.

Coursebooks often contribute to this assumption by primarily focusing on written grammar and neglecting spoken grammar. While formulaic spoken expressions may be included in coursebooks, they typically fail to enhance conversational skills and bear resemblance to other vocabulary sections in the book. Doff and Thaine (2015) emphasize that interaction strategies are frequently overlooked in English language classes due to the limited perspective on speaking found in many teaching materials. These materials commonly prioritize individualized speaking exercises or fluency exercises, inadequately addressing the significance of interaction strategies.

The limitations of speaking practice in language textbooks, often confined to speaking tasks without sufficient inclusion of pair tasks and interaction strategies, explain the observed shortcomings in L2 learners' speaking performance compared to L1 interactions. To address this issue, textbook creators should incorporate interactional strategies into language teaching coursebooks to support learners in developing effective communication skills. Integrating interactional strategies into course materials can enhance learners' overall communicative competence. By providing explicit guidance and practice opportunities for employing interactional strategies, coursebooks empower learners to engage effectively in conversation, negotiate meaning, offer feedback, and expand upon ideas. The inclusion of interactional strategy training in coursebooks acknowledges the importance of communication skills, promotes active participation and engagement in language learning, and supports teachers by providing structured resources and activities that foster the development of learners' interactional competence. Moreover, it alleviates

the burden on teachers who may lack time to create their own materials or plan interactional activities for their lessons. Ultimately, by incorporating interactional strategies, coursebooks can better equip learners to actively participate in real-life communicative situations and enhance their overall speaking proficiency.

If coursebooks fail to adequately address interactional training and peer collaboration, curriculum designers can take proactive measures to bridge this gap. This study suggests that interactional strategy training should be integrated into educational institutions' curricula. In a study that explore the potential of teaching interactional strategies and integrating them into school curricula, Maleki (2007) found that teaching interactional strategies is beneficial in terms of language learning, with interactional strategies being particularly effective and widely used. The study also revealed that language teaching materials that incorporate interactional strategies are more effective compared to those that do not include them.

To cater to interactional training and peer collaboration, material designers and teachers can develop supplementary materials that specifically target these aspects. These materials can feature focused activities, task-based exercises, role plays, and communication tasks to encourage learners' engagement in collaborative interactions. However, it is important to acknowledge that creating such materials can be time-consuming for teachers, and not all teachers possess the subject-matter knowledge required for their development (Harmer, 2001). Consequently, external resources like websites, online platforms, or textbooks that specifically concentrate on interactional training and peer collaboration can serve as valuable supplements to coursebooks, offering additional opportunities for learners to practice and enhance their interactional skills.

Regarding the teachability of interactional strategies and collaborative skills, this study holds significance as it seeks to address concerns and inquiries about how teachers can effectively enhance student interaction through training (Fuji et al., 2016). The study suggests that interactional strategies can be explicitly taught by providing explanations of

what they entail, why they are important, and how to utilize them effectively. This can be achieved through direct instruction and interactive activities. The present study offers practical implications for the process of interactional strategy training and suggests approaches to enhance peer interaction.

First and foremost, it is crucial to emphasize that interactional strategy training should not be limited to teaching strategies as isolated vocabulary items. While introducing strategies as isolated vocabulary and phrases can initially raise learners' awareness, for effective peer interaction and collaboration, it is essential to go beyond this approach. To achieve effectiveness, it is recommended to integrate strategies within the content area, as advocated by Grabe and Stoller (1997). This approach recognizes the significance of contextualized learning, enabling learners to apply strategies in relevant and authentic situations. Teaching interactional strategies in isolation may not sufficiently address the complexities of peer interaction and collaboration. Therefore, it is vital to provide learners with opportunities to practice these strategies in authentic, meaningful, and interactive contexts. By fostering learners' consciousness of the strategies they possess, familiarizing them with suitable contexts for their application, and instilling confidence in their effectiveness, learners can gain a deeper understanding of the nature and communicative potential of interactional strategies (Dörnyei, 1995).

In an effort to create a context for strategy instruction, spoken corpus extracts were incorporated into strategy training materials, based on learners' experiences showing their helpfulness in introducing strategies. These extracts can be utilized for learners with limited exposure to authentic input. By incorporating spoken corpus extracts, instructors can present learners with genuine language samples that exemplify various interactional strategies, such as repair strategies, clarification strategies, or turn-taking strategies. These extracts serve as valuable sources of language data, allowing learners to explore and identify strategies employed by proficient speakers. Learners can then analyze and discuss the effectiveness of these strategies in achieving successful communication.

Furthermore, the present study suggests that the effectiveness of strategy training lies in fostering awareness of collaboration alongside the instructed strategies. Our findings indicate that students' acquisition of a collaborative mindset, combined with the learned strategies, enhances their collaborativeness. Loewen and Sato (2018) support this perspective by highlighting the changeability of learner beliefs, which can be influenced through instructional interventions, in contrast to inherent capacities like working memory. They argue that teachers and educators have the opportunity to shape and modify learners' beliefs about language learning and the value of specific instructional approaches. By providing targeted instruction and creating a supportive learning environment, teachers can help shift learners' beliefs towards a more positive and constructive view of interaction and its benefits in language acquisition. They further stress the importance of instructional strategies that not only focus on developing linguistic skills but also address learners' beliefs and attitudes towards interaction in the language classroom (Loewen & Sato, 2018).

It is crucial to recognize that strategy training encompasses multiple processes, necessitating careful planning. As outlined by Dörnyei (1995), these procedures involve raising learner awareness of interactional strategies, fostering a willingness to take risks in utilizing these strategies, providing models and opportunities for learners to analyze and evaluate strategies through demonstrations and recordings, highlighting the impact of cross-cultural differences on strategy use, directly teaching interactional strategies through linguistic devices, and emphasizing the importance of practice for the automatic and effective application of strategies. Following these procedures in the present study has been proven effective in fostering collaboration among students.

We should admit that designing a strategy training plan that attends to all these procedures can be challenging. Therefore, strategy training sheets play a valuable role in planning effective strategy instruction. In line with Oxford's suggestion (1994) that strategy training should encompass explanations, handouts, interactive activities, brainstorming sessions, and supplementary materials, training sheets were provided to students for each



training session. Firstly, the training worksheets used in this study provided a structured and organized format for learners to engage with interactional strategies. They offered step-by-step instructions, prompts, and examples that guided learners in applying these strategies during interactions. Secondly, strategy training sheets served as visual aids that enhanced learners' awareness and understanding of interactional strategies. Additionally, they facilitated independent learning and practice, enabling learners to refer to the sheets outside the classroom, review, and reinforce their understanding of interactional strategies at their own pace. Therefore, the use of strategy training worksheets is recommended for efficient strategy instruction.

To ensure effective peer interaction, teachers play a critical role in both preparing learners for the interaction and providing assistance during the task (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). Oxford (1990) emphasizes the importance of students acquiring effective learning skills, while teachers should possess the knowledge and expertise to offer appropriate guidance and support throughout the learning process. Storch (2002) underscores the significance of promoting collaborative interactions in language learning and suggests that teachers should provide guidance and support to help students develop effective collaborative strategies.

In many cases, instructors assign peer interaction tasks without providing students with proper guidance on how to interact effectively and without offering ongoing assistance (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). This could potentially diminish the benefits learners can derive from peer interaction. However, Naughton (2006) argues that highlighting problems and challenges in peer interaction does not mean abandoning the practice. Instead, she suggests that teachers should strive to create a classroom environment that encourages interaction patterns conducive to L2/FL proficiency growth. The benefits learners derive from peer interaction activities appear to depend on how teachers regulate the process. Kerr and Nelson (2002) and Scheuermann and Hall (2008) emphasize the importance of well-structured and efficient lesson plans to engage students. However, Davies (2006)

argues that true personalization can only be achieved through teacher-generated materials that are customized, adapted, or discarded based on feedback obtained from students through surveys or assessments. In this regard, Harmer (2001) highlights the significance of providing teachers with proper training in materials design and access to a wide range of resources to effectively create their own materials. He further cautions against the potential drawback of ending up with a collection of disjointed materials from various sources, resulting in a fragmented approach. In summary, teachers can train students on how to communicate during pair tasks and provide support during interaction to help students become more autonomous and enhance the effectiveness of interaction (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). As teachers, we need to foster an environment where students feel secure enough to communicate with each other.

Addressing the needs of the 21st century, although the promotion of communicative practices where learners collaborate, negotiate meaning, and solve problems is apparent, teachers may still hesitate to teach interactional strategies, especially in lower-level groups, believing that strategy instruction is unnecessary or ineffective for them. However, Oliver's study (2002) on low-proficiency young learners suggests a higher likelihood of communication breakdown in the interaction of low-level learners, making the use of negotiation strategies more necessary. Additionally, according to Oxford's (1995) research, there is no observed relationship between the effectiveness of training and a learner's level of proficiency in English as a foreign language, indicating that lower-level learners can also benefit from instruction in language learning strategies. Lower-level students engage in negotiating meaning and form even more than high-proficiency groups (Sato & Viveros, 2016).

Questions may also arise regarding classes that include students with different proficiency levels, as achieving collaboration in mixed-proficiency classrooms is believed to be challenging. Some studies suggest that when learners of mixed proficiency levels are paired together, they tend to engage in non-collaborative interactions characterized by

unequal participation (Kim & McDonough, 2008; Sato, 2017). However, it has also been found that both high-proficiency and low-proficiency students can learn from each other when paired (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Interestingly, participants in these studies learned more when interacting with lower-level learners than with higher-level learners. It is possible that low-proficient L2 learners may exhibit a passive and hesitant attitude when interacting with more proficient peers. However, they may also demonstrate a more collaborative approach to exchanging ideas to achieve a common goal, leading to mutual benefits. It is worth noting that not only teachers but also peers, even if less proficient, can act as social mediators (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). In Donato's study (1994), scaffolding was observed to be a bidirectional process occurring within collaborative peer interactions, rather than a one-way flow from an expert to a novice. Additionally, Sato & Viveros (2016) emphasize that lower-level groups exhibit more collaborative behavior, indicating that the level of collaboration between pairs is more important than their proficiency level. These results have important implications for promoting the use of collaborative tasks in classrooms with L2 learners of varying levels of proficiency.

All in all, a set of recommendations have emerged from the data analysis to inform classroom practice and enhance the effectiveness of interactional strategy training:

1. Consider making interactional strategy training a part of your instructional repertoire: Recognize the potential of interactional strategy training in developing skilled interlocutors who can effectively negotiate meanings, resolve communication breakdowns, provide feedback, and extend on ideas. Make it a priority to incorporate strategy training into language instruction.
2. Provide instructional assistance: To enhance collaboration among peers, invest time and effort into providing instructional assistance, especially for lower-level learners. Offer guidance and ongoing support to ensure that learners understand how to interact effectively and derive maximum benefits from peer interaction.

3. Utilize strategy training sheets: Implement strategy training sheets or materials that provide learners with clear guidance on using interactional strategies. These resources can serve as a valuable reference for learners to apply strategies in real-time interactions.
4. Contextualize learning: Move beyond teaching strategies as isolated vocabulary items. Promote contextualized learning that enables learners to apply strategies in relevant and authentic situations. Provide opportunities for learners to engage in meaningful conversations and interactions that reflect real-life language use.
5. Utilize spoken corpus extracts: Incorporate spoken corpus extracts into the instructional materials, especially for learners with limited exposure to authentic spoken language. These extracts can expose learners to natural language use and help them develop their interactional skills.
6. Address beliefs and attitudes: Recognize the importance of addressing learners' beliefs and attitudes towards interaction and collaboration. Instructional strategies should not only focus on developing linguistic skills but also foster positive attitudes and beliefs that encourage learners to actively participate in interactions.
7. Support teachers with instructional materials: Textbook creators and material designers should consider allocating more space to teaching interaction strategies. By providing comprehensive materials that include strategy training, the workload on teachers can be reduced, and learners can benefit from well-designed resources.

By following these suggestions, language classrooms may effectively promote skilled interlocutors who can engage in successful communication, foster collaboration among peers, and create a positive learning environment for language acquisition.

## **The Constraints and Suggestions for Further Research**

It is essential to acknowledge and highlight the inherent limitations associated with the present study, which require careful consideration and further examination. Despite these limitations, the study provides valuable insights into peer collaborative training and offers several suggestions for future research based on these limitations.

As discussed in the implications section, research findings on interactional strategies have been inconsistent or subject to debate due to various factors, such as differing definitions of interactional strategies, the influence of task characteristics on their effectiveness, the impact of changes in proficiency levels, the relationship between the use of L1 and L2 strategies, the effectiveness of different types interactional strategies, and the efficacy of strategy training (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Comparing the results of strategy studies with the present study has been challenging due to the classification of target strategies. While some studies categorized them as communication strategies, others referred to them as interactional strategies. To address this limitation, future studies are recommended to consistently categorize communication and interaction strategies.

Various factors, including proficiency, task type, and age, impact the effectiveness of interaction and interactional strategies use (Dao, 2020; Fuji et al., 2016). Learners' interaction patterns are crucial as they determine roles and levels of involvement. When investigating the efficiency of strategy training on strategy use, this study employed an item selection task as a pre-, post-, and delayed posttest. However, several other factors may affect the use of these strategies since communication is influenced by external variables such as context, knowledge of the interlocutor, and awareness of one's own knowledge (Yule & Tarone, 1990). Bialystok (1990) suggests that task type, L2 speaker proficiency, and communicative context characteristics may affect the choice of interactional strategies. Similarly, Dao (2020) asserts that task choice impacts the utilization of interaction strategies. Therefore, further studies with different task types are recommended to explore the efficiency of interactional strategies on both interaction patterns and the use of

interactional strategies. Additionally, investigating how interaction patterns interact with other factors, such as proficiency, task type, and age, would contribute to a deeper understanding of interaction dynamics in language learning contexts (Loewen & Sato, 2018).

Another limitation of this study is the lack of investigation into the impact of cultural factors on interaction patterns among speakers. While individual differences such as anxiety, cognitive abilities, willingness to communicate, learner beliefs, and age have received more emphasis in research, cultural factors have not been sufficiently explored. As discussed in the literature review, cultural factors shape communication styles, norms, and expectations, significantly influencing interaction dynamics and outcomes. Although learner interviews imply a connection between L1 cultural background and interaction patterns in L2, the study may have missed an opportunity to comprehensively understand the interplay between interaction patterns and cultural influences by not closely focusing on this aspect. To address this limitation, future research could investigate how cultural factors, including language norms, social hierarchy, and communication styles, shape the formation and development of interaction patterns. Comparative studies across different cultures or within specific cultural contexts can be conducted to identify cultural nuances and variations in interactional patterns. Qualitative methods like interviews or ethnographic observations can be employed to gain deeper insights into the role of culture in shaping interaction dynamics. By exploring the cultural dimensions of interaction patterns, researchers can contribute to a more nuanced understanding of how cultural factors intersect with interactional strategies, ultimately enhancing intercultural communication and language learning.

The present study also has a limitation regarding the control over participants' strategy selection and implementation during interactional strategy training. While the efficiency of interactional strategy training on strategy use was investigated by counting the number of strategies used by participants, they were not explicitly instructed or required to

use specific strategies during training. This lack of control may introduce variability in the results. Toth (2008) warns that in learner-learner interaction, participants may not solely focus on targeted structures but pay attention to a wide range of structures, making it challenging to evaluate the effects of interaction through pre- and post-tests alone. Although the strategy group was asked about their strategy choices in interviews conducted after the post tasks, through stimulated recall sessions, future research could delve deeper into the reasoning behind the presence and absence of certain interactional strategies and behaviors during pair-work.

In the context of interaction research, longitudinal studies and delayed testing have been called for to evaluate the long-term impacts of interaction (Loewen & Sato, 2018). While the present study attempted to fill this gap, conducting more longitudinal studies and implementing delayed testing methods are recommended to address the need for evaluating the long-term impacts of interaction. Longitudinal studies would provide insights into the sustainability and durability of observed outcomes by observing and analyzing the effects of interaction over an extended period. Additionally, delayed testing can measure the lasting effects and retention of language gains resulting from interaction. Employing these research approaches would contribute to a deeper understanding of the long-term benefits and implications of interaction, advancing the field of interaction research in language learning and teaching.

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## APPENDIX-A: The Background Questionnaire

Dear, student, please answer the following questions taking into consideration your English activities outside the class.

Your age \_\_\_\_\_

Department \_\_\_\_\_

First Oral exam mark \_\_\_\_\_

### **Please cross the box that best suits your answer**

***How many hours do you spend a week speaking English outside the classroom?***

None    1    2    3    4    5    5+

***How many hours do you spend watching or listening to....***

Tv series – movies

None    1    2    3    4    5    5+

Songs

None    1    2    3    4    5    5+

Podcasts

None    1    2    3    4    5    5+

Social media / YouTube

None    1    2    3    4    5    5+

Websites that offer English practice/ mobile applications

None    1    2    3    4    5    5+









## APPENDIX-E: Self Evaluation Form (English/Turkish Versions)

Now it is time for you to reflect yourself based on your pair work performance. Please read each statement carefully and put a cross (X) in the most appropriate answer box which best describe your experience of the speaking task with your partner.

	Agree	Partially Agree	Disagree
1. My partner and I contributed to the talk in a balanced way.			
2. My partner and I could exchange our ideas mutually and understand each other.			
3. I could participate in the conversation actively.			
4. I contributed useful ideas during the task.			
5. I encouraged my partner to speak and contribute more to the conversation.			
6. My partner encouraged me to speak and contribute more to the conversation.			
7. My partner dominated the talk while I mostly stayed passive.			
8. I dominated the talk while my partner mostly stayed passive.			
9. Although we both contributed to the talk equally, we could not fully engage with each other's contribution.			
10. I could use the instructed interaction strategy during the task.			
11. I could participate in the conversation more using interaction strategies.			

**My overall experience with my partner in the pair work activity**

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**These were my strengths when I worked in pair:**

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**These were my weaknesses when I worked in pair:**

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**These are what I plan to do when I work in pair again:**

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## Öz Değerlendirme Formu

Şimdi ikili grup çalışması performansınıza göre kendinizi değerlendirme zamanı. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun ve partnerinizle yaptığınız ikili konuşma aktivitesi deneyiminizi en iyi açıklayan en uygun cevap kutusuna çarpı işareti (X) koyun.

	Katılıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum
1. Partnerim ve ben konuşmaya dengeli bir şekilde katkı sağladık.			
2. Partnerim ve ben fikir alışverişinde bulunup birbirimizi anlayabildik.			
3. Konuşmaya aktif bir şekilde katılabildim.			
4. Konuşma sırasında faydalı fikirlerle katkı sağladım.			
5. Partnerimi daha çok konuşması ve sohbete katkı sağlaması için teşvik ettim.			
6. Partnerim beni daha çok konuşmam ve sohbete katkı sağlamam için teşvik etti.			
7. Partnerim daha çok konuşmada baskınken, ben çoğunlukla pasif kaldım.			
8. Konuşmada daha çok ben baskınken, partnerim çoğunlukla pasif kaldı.			
9. Her ikimiz de konuşmaya eşit katkıda bulunmamıza rağmen, karşımızdakinin anlattıklarıyla tamamıyla ilgilenemedik.			
10. Öğretilen etkileşim stratejisini aktivite esnasında kullanabildim			
11. Etkileşim stratejilerini kullanarak konuşmaya daha fazla katkı sağlayabildim.			

### Partnerimle yapmış olduğumuz ikili grup çalışmalarıyla ilgili genel değerlendirmem

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### İkili grup çalışmalarında güçlü yanlarım şunlardı:

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### İkili grup çalışmalarında zayıf yanlarım şunlardı:

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### Bir dahaki ikili grup çalışmamda şunları yapmayı planlıyorum:

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## APPENDIX-F: Interview Questions (English/Turkish Versions)

1. How did you feel while receiving interactional strategy training?
2. Do you think that learning interactional strategies was helpful? How? In what ways?
3. To what extent you could use the interactional strategies in the post-task?
4. Are there any strategies that you used more after the training?
  - If yes, what are they?
  - Why do you think you could use them?
5. Are there any strategies that you couldn't use much after the training?
  - If yes, what are they?
  - Why do you think you could not use them?
6. What are your observations of you and your partner's performance in speaking tasks during strategy training?
7. Do you feel that your participation and contribution to the pair work activity (post-speaking task) were the same or different after learning interactional strategies? Why?
8. Do you think that learning interactional strategies influenced your in-task relationship / interaction with your partner in pair work activities (such as being more active or passive, help your partner more or less, exchange ideas more or less)? How?

### Interview Questions in Turkish

1. Strateji eğitimi aldığın süreçte nasıl hissettin?
2. Etkileşimsel stratejileri öğrenmek seninin için faydalı oldu mu? Nasıl? Hangi açıdan?
3. Öğrendiğin stratejileri yaptığımız son konuşma aktivitesinde ne kadar kullanabildin?
4. Strateji eğitiminden sonra öncesine oranla daha fazla kullandığın strateji ya da stratejiler oldu mu?
  - Hangileri bunlar?
  - Sence neden bunları daha fazla kullanabildin?
5. Strateji eğitiminden sonra öncesine oranla daha az kullandığın strateji ya da stratejiler oldu mu?
  - Hangileri bunlar?
  - Sence neden bunları daha az kullanabildin?
6. Strateji eğitimi öncesi ve sonrasını göz önünde bulundurduğunda senin ve partnerinin speaking aktivitelerindeki performansınız ile ilgili gözlemlerin nelerdir?
7. Etkileşimsel stratejileri öğrendikten sonra yaptığımız konuşma aktivitesine katkı aynı mı yoksa farklı mıydı?
8. Strateji eğitimi almak speaking aktivitelerinde partnerinle olan ilişkiyi (daha aktif veya pasif olmak, partnerine daha az ya da fazla yardım etmek, daha fazla fikir alışverişinde bulunmak) etkiledi mi? Nasıl?

## APPENDIX-G: Strategy Training Sheets

### Week 1- Asking for Opinion and Giving Opinion

A. Read the dialogues below and underline the expressions for asking for opinion and circle the expressions for giving opinion.

**Blanch:** How was it going to high school in Charlotte? Do you feel like, do you think it would have been different if you had gone to school in Boston or someplace else up north?

**Tracy:** I guess, actually it would, because in high school, I was on a State cheerleading championship squad, and they don't have squads like that up north as much, so I think it would definitely be different, just because of that.

**Blanch:** Do you think that's a Southern thing or a NC thing, or--

**Tracy:** Well, I actually kind of having guys on a cheerleading squad in high school is more a Southern thing, so—

**Steven:** I need to get ... Robbie a um .. present too.

**Sheri:** Yeah, what do you think he'd like to have?

**Steven:** I'm not sure, but we could go over to Toys 'R' Us.

**Sheri:** It seems to me I brought the Toys 'R' Us catalog back with me.

**Steven:** It's right over there.

### B. Put the following expressions into the correct column

I think you are wrong because ...

What about you?

I imagine/suppose

Do you know what I think? I think ...

What do you think?

It appears/seems to me ...

Do you think ....?

As far as I can tell ...

Does that make sense to you?

In my opinion ...

Personally, I believe/think/feel ...

I honestly feel ...

What is your opinion about ...?

That's a good point

Do you agree?

It's quite obvious that ...

Do you agree with me?

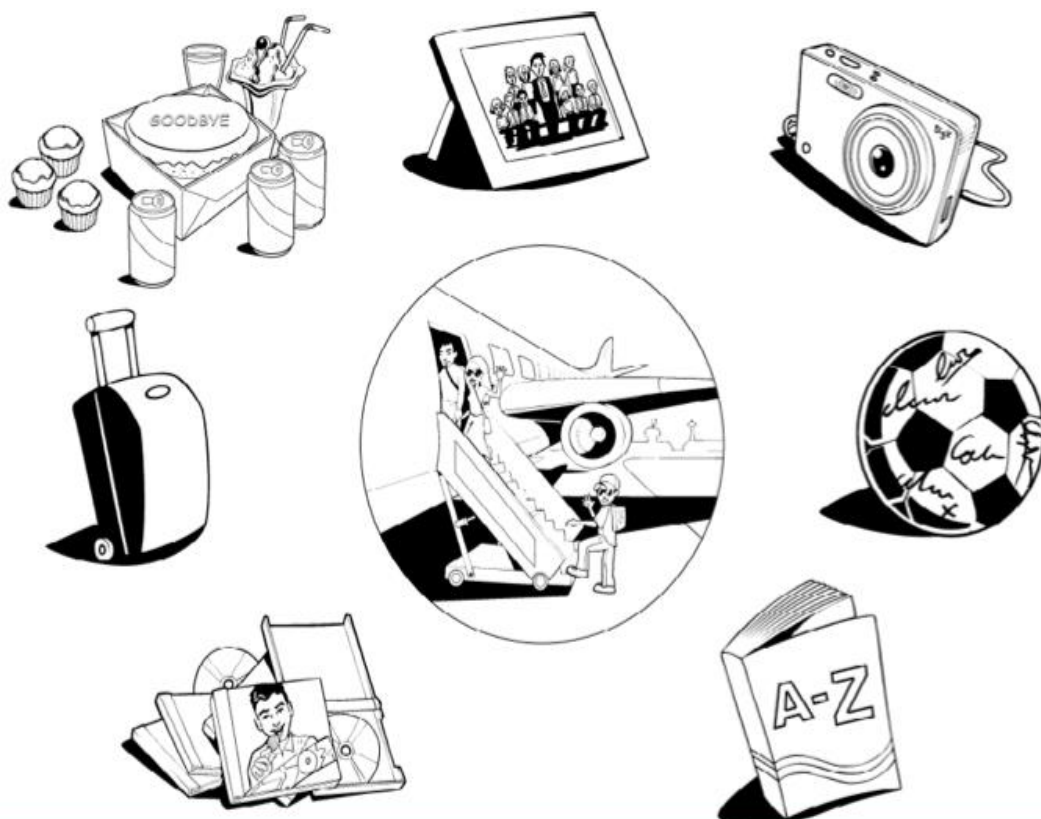
If you ask me

I don't agree with you

Asking for opinion	Giving opinion
<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>	<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>

**C. Practice: Pair-work Activity**

A boy is leaving his school because his parents are going to work in another country. The students in his class want to give him a present. Talk together about the different presents they could give him and then decide which would be the best.



retrieved from : <https://englishvillage.eu/cambridge-pet/pet-speaking-part-2/>

## Week 2 - Asking Follow-Up Questions

**A. Read the conversation between Shield and Stacy and underline the phrases that ask for opinion and give opinion.**

**Shield:** I mean, and she even admitted that she didn't like me because I was new. Even though I don't think it was because of anything I'd done because I had hardly said two words since I didn't know anybody, but, um, they were real coy towards me, you know, but it ....

**Stacy:** Why do you think that is? Why do you think that's just girls in general?

**Shield:** Actually, I think it is most girls in general. It's just a natural thing if you, if you have certain guy friends that you become very possessive over and you see someone, whether it's their new girlfriend or their new best friend or whatever, comes in and takes up some of your time, I think it's just human nature to get jealous and to kind of put up a, you know, an offensive front to whoever the invader or the intruder is. So, I think I've probably done it some time in my life, so I don't have any hard feelings towards them.

**B. Some commonly used expressions for asking follow-up questions:**

Why?

Why not?

Why do you think so?

Why did you say that?

What makes you say that?

Wh- questions

**C. Read the statements and the follow-up questions, and then write a suitable follow-up question.**

I went to the holiday last summer.

Really, where did you go?

I went to Bodrum.

That's perfect. \_\_\_\_\_?

Yes, I did. I was just perfect.

Really? \_\_\_\_\_

**D. Practice: Pair- work activity – I am more curious**

***Which one would make an excellent pet; cats, dogs or birds?***

- Read the question and choose one of the options.
- Try to persuade your partner that your choice is the best.
- Ask follow-up questions
- Each time your partner asks a question, put a tick on the paper. (Whoever asks more questions becomes the winner)



### Week 3 - Appealing for Assistance

#### A. Read the dialogue between Jeff and Jill and answer the questions.

JEFF: I know you would you get excited about things like this too, but did you read in the paper about the (..) um planets? Circulating around other stars?  
JILL: No. What about them?  
JEFF: There's irr-, irreb-, irred- ..... There's proof. What's the, what's the word that goes before proof?  
JILL: Irrefutable .  
JEFF: Irrefutable [laugh, laugh].

1. What does Jeff do when he forgets the word?

---

2. What clue does Jeff tell to give clues about the word?

---

#### B. Expressions for asking for help:

How do you say ....?

How do you say it in English?

What do you call it?

What does .... mean?

Can you write it down?

What do you call the person who .... ?

What do you call the thing which .... ?

What's the word for ... /to describe (it) ... ?

I can't remember / I've forgotten the word for ... ?

What's the name of ... ?

#### C. Practice – Whole class

- Keep a word (a person, animal, object) on your mind. Try to give details without telling its name.

*Example:* What do you call the thing we use to transfer files between computers?  
A flash drive?

#### D. Practice - Pair-work: Taboo

- Work in pairs
- You will have 20 taboo cards in total.
- Each student will have 10 cards to talk about.
- Try to make your partner guess the clue-word without using the taboo words.
- Try to use the expressions for asking help.
- The pairs will keep the time to find about who guesses all the words faster.

## Week 4 - Giving Assistance

### A. Read the dialogue between Sheri and Steven and answer the questions.

SHERI: You're gonna have pepperoni and stuff on your pizza, or are you not hungry right now?  
STEVEN: I want some pepperoni  
SHERI: Mhm  
STEVEN: Some  
SHERI: ... Mhm.  
STEVEN: cheese  
SHERI: ... Okay? ... You want mozzarella?  
STEVEN: What's that?  
SHERI: Mozzarella? That's that white cheese that gets all stringy and melted.  
STEVEN: You mean the one that I.... kinda like um .. Figaro?  
SHERI: ... Hmm.

1. Does Steven understand the meaning of Mozzarella?

---

2. What expression does he use to ask for Sheri's help?

---

3. How does Sheri help Steven understand the word mozzarella?

---

### B. Remember the expressions for appealing assistance and think of ways how to offer/ give assistance. Add to the list if you can think of more.

How do you say ....?

How do you say it in English?

What do you call it?

What does .... mean?

Can you give me an example?

Can you write it down?

What do you call the person who .... ?

What do you call the thing which .... ?

What's the word for ... /to describe (it) ... ?

I can't remember / I've forgotten the word for ... ?

What's the name of ... ?

## Expressions for giving assistance

Is it ....?

Could it be .....

You mean .....

Are you saying...

A --What do you call the person who fix cars?

B – A mechanic?

## C. Pair-work activity: Time for beauty

- Work in pairs.
- Imagine that you are going to set up a hair saloon for both men and women. As the owners of the saloon, discuss with you partner and decide what kind of a saloon you want.

- Talk about its interior design (color of the walls, floor, furniture)

Think of what kind of tools and accessories you need to start with (write at least 15 tools)

**Note:** Ask your partner's help first when you need help or do not remember words without looking up a dictionary. If both of you can not find the word, you can use the dictionary.

## Week 5 - Giving Positive feedback

### A. Read the dialogues and answer the questions

**Phil:** That's what we call boiling folks and I'm sure you do too. Turning from a liquid into a gas. Now if I took the t- balloon. If I took the balloon off the top of this flask here and put the water into the freezer, what do you think would happen to the water? It would freeze and turn into a?

**Audrey:** Solid.

**Phil:** In Solid correct. But it would still be water. Yes, you're right. Whether it's a solid a liquid or a gas. So let's think about what water is made up of.

**Audrey:** Well water is made up of (.) atoms.

**Phil:** Yeah. Everything is made up of atoms.

**Kate:** I've never heard of somebody who had their favorite book as the dictionary!

**Jane:** Oh.

**Kate:** So that's, that's really interesting. Now you had to learn 20 words a day. So a hundred words a week?

**Jane:** That's right.

1. Write the expressions the speakers used to say that the other speaker/s is correct/right.

---

2. Why do you think the speakers use these expressions?

---

### B. Why do we give feedback during conversations?

- To show that we are listening
- To encourage the speaker to tell more.
- To motivate the speaker
- To correct mistakes/errors
- To understand each other better
- \_\_\_\_\_

- a. *Praise*, such as the use of expressions "good," "great," "excellent," "nice," etc.
- b. *Affirmation*, such as the use of expressions "yes," "correct," "OK," "that's right," etc.
- c. *Non-verbal cues*, such as laughter, nodding, and thumbs up.
- d. *Repetition*, namely repeating the correct response of the student.

- ✓ Be polite
- ✓ Use appropriate tone of voice and body language

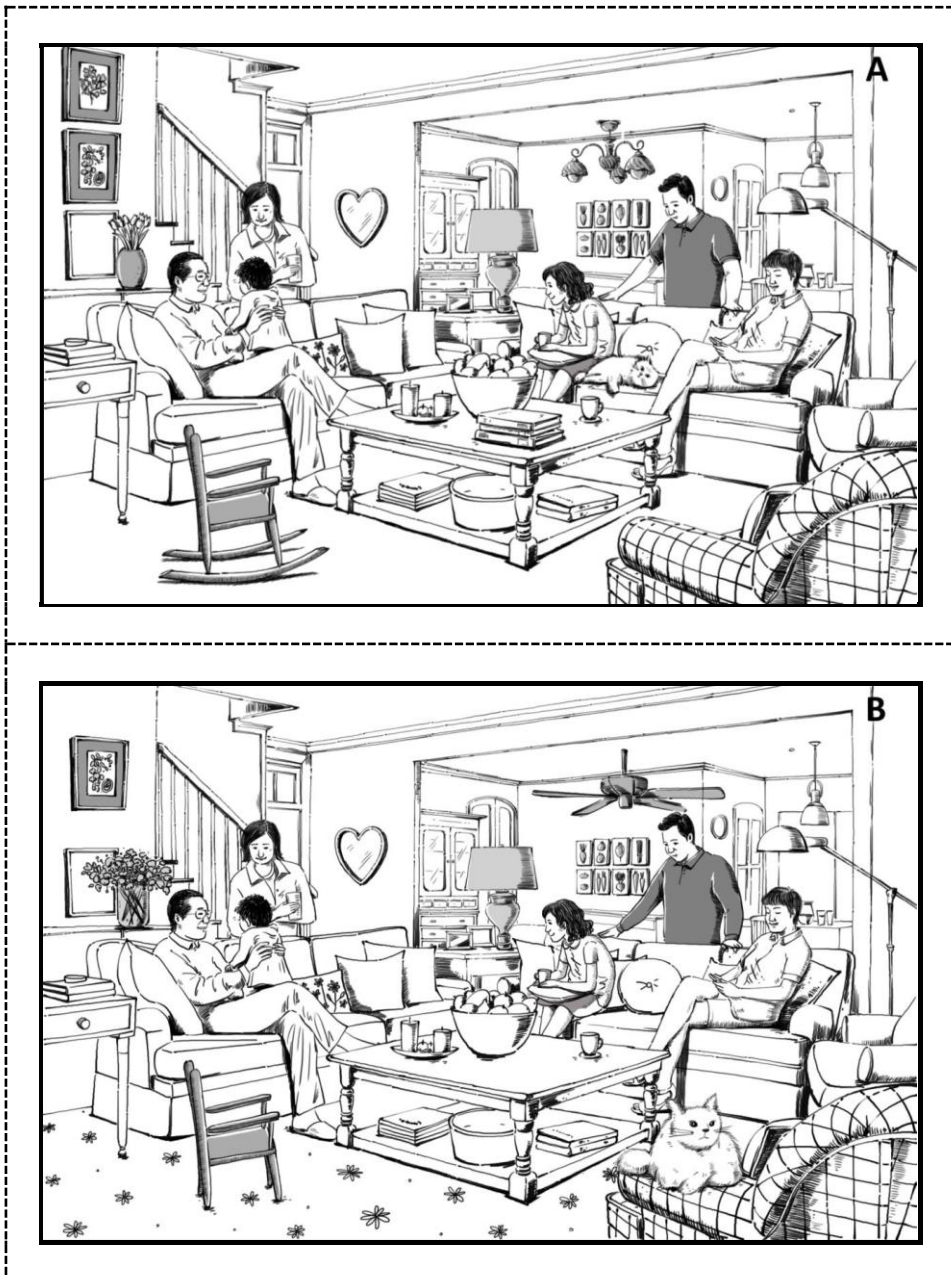
### C. Pair-work activity- Spot the differences

- Sit face to face
- Do not show your picture to your partner
- Describe your picture to your partner and find all eight differences
- You have 10 minutes to find the differences

### SPOT THE DIFFERENCES

### APARTMENTS and HOUSES

- Find all eight differences in the pictures.



## Week 6 - Giving Negative Feedback (Asking for Clarification)

### A. Read the conversations and answer the questions

#### a. Explicit Correction

Grace: And how old are you?  
Tom: Seven.  
Grace: And do you know when you were born?  
Tom: September the 20th.  
Grace: December.  
Tom: December the 20th.  
Grace: Right.

1. How does Grace correct Tom when he makes a mistake?  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Do you think there are other ways to correct his mistake? If yes, what are they?  
\_\_\_\_\_

#### b. Recast

Mary: Do you play any games or anything?  
Arthur: Yeah. Um, Connect Four and um, Guess Who?, and Dominoes.  
Mary: What about computer lab?  
Arthur: Computer lab?  
Mary: What do you do in computer lab?  
Arthur: I, uh, just play games.

1. Why do you think Arthur asks the question “ computer lab?”  
\_\_\_\_\_

#### c. Asking for Clarification

BEV: ...I think Mister Verba would agree with me on this, in that people tend to vote because they have a sense of duty.  
FRAN: What does that mean? A sense of duty? They regard participation as important. Now why would you say that this is a factor that influences voting?  
BEV: I don't know. Probably it stems mostly from your education, your childhood, when you're told uh you're an American citizen and it's your civic duty, you know in towards other people and you know....

1. Did Fran understand what Bev meant by saying “people tend to vote because they have a sense of duty?”  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. What expression did he use to show his lack of understanding?  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Did Bev clarify his statement? If yes, how?  
\_\_\_\_\_



#### **D. Pair Work Activity - Trivia Game**

- Discuss the answers with your partner and write the answers next to the questions.
- Give feedback when necessary
- The pair which has the most correct answers win the game.
- You have 15 minutes.

1. Which one is domesticated first? Cats or dogs?

2. What year was the very first model of the iPhone released?

3. Which Finger's nail grow fast? Thumb, Middle finger, ring finger or pinky?

4. What are the three primary colors?

5. What does GPS stands for?

6. Is tomato a fruit or a vegetable?

7. How many legs does a spider have?

8. How many vowels are there in English alphabet?

9. Rob's father has four children. The first child is April. The second is May and the third is June. What is the name of the fourth child?



## Week 7 - Confirmation Check

### A. Read the text and answer the questions

MARI: See I'm not supposed to give him juice in a bottle.  
MARI: He's supposed to drink it out of a cup.  
LISA: Why not?  
KEVI: Oh cause all the air?  
MARI: He, no.  
LISA: No cause ...  
MARI: They get baby bottle tooth decay from drinking, um... juice and stuff out of bottles because the um...  
KEVI: The sugar just stays right there.  
LISA: That doesn't make sense to me. Why?  
MARI: Because when they just leave it in their mouth, the juice just...  
LISA: Oh cause they don't swallow it right away you mean? They Just...  
MARI: Yeah and in a cup they.... you know they....  
LISA: hmmm  
MARI: drink it right away.

1. What doesn't Lisa understand at first?

---

2. What is the expression that Lisa uses when she wants to check her understanding?

---

3. Did Lisa understand Mari correctly after the explanation? How do you know?

---

### B. Expressions for Checking comprehension

If I (have) understood you correctly ....

Do you mean.....?

You mean ..... right?

You said ..... right?

So you're saying.....

in other words....

So the basic idea is that.....

Question repeats = beige? (with a rising intonation)

Is that right?

Is that correct?

Am I right?

Isn't it?

### C. Pair-Work Activity – How to cook

- Tell the steps to cook one of your favorite meals to your partner
- Don't tell its name
- Check understanding with each step
- Your partner is going to take notes
- Change roles when you are finished with instruction

## Week 8 - Offering Clarification or Confirmation

### A. Read the text and answer the questions.

**Silvia:** And like usually, like my sister comes up to me and once I'm done reading a book she'll go like, "How can you read that fast? you know.

**Caroline:** What do you mean fast?

**Silvia:** Well I can probably get a thick book and finish it in a day. It depends how long I like stay on it. And so, I mean everyone is different like she can't read that fast, but I can read that fast and understand what's in the book and don't have to read it again. Um, so that's what I mean by like I can read fast.

1. What expressions does Silvia use to help her partner understand what she means?

---

---

### B. Expressions for offering clarification:

I mean...

I meant to say...

What I mean is...

That is what I mean by saying ....

In other words, ...

For example, ...

So, basically...

### C. Read the statements and complete the sentences offering clarification.

Your cousin breaks a vase:

Do not worry about it. It is just a vase. I mean \_\_\_\_\_

---

I think I am an introvert person. What I mean is \_\_\_\_\_

---

I really hate selfish people. \_\_\_\_\_

---

### D. Work with your partner- Need a house?

#### Student A

You are selling your house

Talk about all the good features of your products

Try to convince the buyer.

Answer the buyer's questions

✂ -----

#### Student B

You are the buyer

Ask questions about the house

Interrupt the seller and ask questions to confirm what the seller says

## APPENDIX-H: Lesson Plans

### Lesson Plan - Week 1

**Interactional Strategy:** *Asking for Opinion and Giving opinion*

**Date:**

**Time:** 90 minutes

**Objectives:**

1. Raise students' awareness of expressions used to ask for opinion and expressing opinion
2. Introduce expressions for asking and giving opinions and practice them during conversations

**Lesson Plan:**

**Step 1: Awareness raising**

- Ask students why we ask questions during conversation
- Elicit the answer "to get opinions" and ask them what questions we ask to get opinions
- Ask for volunteers to share their answers.
- Write the ideas mentioned during brainstorming on the board.
- Ask the students what expression they use to give their opinions.
- Write the phrases they mentioned on the board.
- Give the students the handout and tell them to read the dialogues and find the expressions for asking and giving opinions.
- Elicit

**Step 2: Explicit teaching**

- Direct students to look at the expressions on part B on the handout
- Explain that we need to state our opinions, ideas, suggestions, agreements and disagreements to have effective conversations. Point out that we have to use an appropriate language while reacting other people's opinions. Remind the students that being polite is the key here.
- Have students think about how we can be polite especially when we do not agree with an idea.
- Ask the students to put the phrases in part B into the correct column.
- After about 10 minutes, check the answers and cover all the expressions with their pronunciation, meaning and use. Give examples when necessary.

**Step 3: Practice**

- Have students work in pairs. Direct them to look at part C. Describe the situation to the students, and tell them to talk about the suitability of all items and make a decision.
- Remind the students to use the expressions in Part B while stating their opinions.
- Tell the students that they have 10 minutes.
- Ask each pair to state their choices and have a whole class discussion about the best present.

**Step 4: Evaluation**

- Tell the students to discuss what they have learnt with their partner and ask them to write down the expressions they used as long as they remember.
- Give each student a self-evaluation sheet and collect it after they complete the form.

## Lesson Plan - Week 2

### Interactional Strategy: *Asking Follow-up Questions*

**Date:**

**Time:** 90 minutes

#### **Objectives:**

1. Raise students' awareness of expressions used to ask for follow-up questions.
2. Introduce expressions for asking follow-up questions and practice them during conversations

#### **Lesson Plan:**

##### **Step 1: Awareness raising**

- Start the session with a brief recap of the previous class. Ask students what they have covered in the previous session. Elicit answers "asking for opinion and giving opinion".
- Direct students to read the text in part A and underline the expressions for asking for opinion and giving opinion.
- Take the students' attention to the questions "Why do you think that is? Why do you think that's just girls in general?" and ask them how these expressions are different that "what do you think " and "what is your opinion about..." questions. Have a whole class discussion.
- Tell the students that follow up questions are different in that they are formulated according to the statements of the conversation partner to get more information.

##### **Step 2: Explicit teaching**

- Tell the students to look at the expressions in part B on the handout and introduce the expressions for asking follow-up questions.
- Cover all the expressions with their pronunciation, meaning and use. Give examples when necessary.
- Explain that the speakers mostly signal follow-up questions by using certain responding statements such as "really?, that's perfect, cool, interesting etc." Have students to think of more expressions.
- Elicit predictions from volunteers.

##### **Step 3: Practice**

- Direct students to read the statements in part C and write a suitable follow-up question.
- After about eight minutes, check answers as a class.
- Have students practice saying the dialogues in pairs. Focus on their pronunciation. Give feedback when necessary.
  
- Have students work in pairs. Direct them to look at part D. Describe the situation to the students, and tell them to have a discussion about the best pet.
- Point out the importance of asking follow-up questions.
- Tell the students that they have 10 minutes.
- Ask pairs about their choices and the number of follow-up questions they used.
- Announce the student who has used the most follow-up questions as the winner

##### **Step 4: Evaluation**

- Tell the students to discuss what you have learnt with their partner and ask them to write down the strategies they used as long as they remember.
- Give each student a self-evaluation sheet and collect it after they are finished with the form.

## Lesson Plan - Week 3

**Interactional Strategy:** *Appealing for Assistance*

**Date:**

**Time:** 90 minutes

### **Objectives:**

1. Raise students' awareness of expressions used to ask for assistance.
2. Introduce expressions for asking for assistance and practice their use.

### **Lesson Plan:**

#### **Step 1: Awareness raising**

- Ask students what they are bad at and ask them what they do when they have to do it. Then, give an example and pretend that you forgot a word and try to describe it.  
For example: I am bad at making cakes. I have tried it a lot, but it is not delicious and soft. When I make cakes, they are mostly hard to bite. I guess put too much ..... mmm what was the word? It is something we put in the cake, something white. We put it after eggs and sugar.....
- Give details until the students guess the word "flour"
- Ask the students what kind of questions they ask when they don't remember/know a word during conversation?
- Write their ideas on the board
- They may say "we look at the dictionary" "we use its Turkish equivalent" or "we ask our friend".
  
- Give students the handout and tell them to read the dialogue in part A and answer the questions.
- Tell them that they have 4 minutes.
- Check their answers
- Focus on the question "what is the word that goes before proof?" and the purpose of the question.

#### **Step 2: Explicit teaching**

- Tell the students to look at the expressions on part B
- Explain that when we forget words or need help to make the conversation going we ask our friend's help by asking questions like the ones on the worksheet
- Cover all the expressions with their pronunciation, meaning and use. Give examples when necessary.
- Give more examples when necessary

### **Step 3: Practice**

#### **Part 3**

- Tell the students to look at part 3 and read the instructions. Demonstrate the example in the class.
- Tell the students that it is a whole class activity.
- Give 2 minutes to think about their word.
- Have each student describe their word and ask for help.
- When students have a guess, tell them to say it out.
- End the activity when all the students ask for help.

#### **Part 4**

- Have the students get in pairs.
- Give each pair 20 taboo cards.
- Tell the students that they will try to make their partners guess the clue-word without using the taboo words. Each student will have 10 cards to talk about. The pairs will keep time to find about who guesses all the words faster.

### **Step 4: Evaluation**

- Tell the students to discuss what you have learnt with their partner and ask them to write down the strategies/expressions they used as long as they remember.
- Give each student a self-evaluation sheet and collect it after they complete the form.

## Lesson Plan - Week 4

**Interactional Strategy:** *Giving assistance*

**Date:**

**Time:** 90 minutes

### **Objectives:**

1. Raise students' awareness of expressions used to give/offer assistance.
2. Introduce expressions for offering assistance and practice their use.

### **Lesson Plan:**

#### **Step 1: Awareness raising**

- Turn students and say "are you in a *festive* mood today?" Students will probably not understand you. Repeat the sentence and get them ask the question "What does festive mean?" or "what is festive?"
- Write the word on the board and give the definition "happy and enjoyable because people are celebrating"
- Ask students why they asked the questions and elicit answers.
- Give the students the activity sheet and tell them to read the dialogue and answer the questions
- Check their answers as a class

#### **Step 2: Explicit teaching**

- Tell the students to look at the expressions on part B and to remember the previous class
- Discuss with students on how to give assistance by looking at the phrases on part two.
- Add to the list if the students come up with different expressions.
- Cover all the expressions with their pronunciation, meaning and use. Give examples when necessary.
- Take students' attention to the dialogue: "A --What do you call the person who fix cars? B – A mechanic? ". Practice how to give assistance with the correct intonation.
- Give more examples when necessary

#### **Step 3: Practice**

- Have the students get in pairs.
- Tell the students to read the instructions for part C.
- Explain students that they are going start a hair saloon business for both men and women. Tell them to discuss with their partner and decide what kind of a saloon they want. Tell them that all the details given should be discussed.
- Remind your students not to look up a dictionary or use the internet without asking their partners' help first.
- After about twenty minutes, ask students to share their opinions with the whole class and decide on the best hair saloon idea.

#### **Step 4: Evaluation**

- Tell the students to discuss what you have learnt with their partner and ask them to write down the strategies they used as long as they remember.
- Give each student a self-evaluation sheet and collect it after they complete the form.

## **Lesson Plan - Week 5**

**Interactional Strategy:** *Giving Positive feedback*

**Date:**

**Time:** 90 minutes

### **Objectives:**

1. Raise students' awareness of giving positive feedback
2. Introduce feedback phrases and practice using them during conversations

### **Lesson Plan:**

#### **Step 1: Awareness raising**

- Give the students the handout and tell them to read the dialogue and answer the questions.
- After about five minutes, check their answers.

#### **Step 2: Explicit teaching**

- Connected with Part A, discuss with students the reasons for giving feedback looking at Part A.
- Add to the list if the students come up with different expressions.
- Cover all the expressions with their pronunciation, meaning and use. Give examples when necessary.
- Tell the students that they need to be as polite as possible when they give feedback and discuss with the ways to be polite.
- Give more examples when necessary.

#### **Step 3: Practice**

- Put the students in pairs and label them Student A and Student B.
- Give each pair pictures with differences.
- Tell the students to sit face to face and warn them not to look at each other's picture.
- Ask students to describe your picture to their partner and find all eight differences.
- After about 10 minutes, ask the pairs how many differences have they found.
- Have a whole class discussion about the differences.

#### **Step 4: Evaluation**

- Tell the students to discuss what you have learnt with their partner and ask them to write down the strategies they used as long as they remember.
- Give each student a self-evaluation sheet and collect it after they finish the form.



## Lesson Plan - Week 6

**Interactional Strategy:** *Giving Negative Feedback*

**Date:**

**Time:** 90 minutes

**Objectives:**

1. Raise students' awareness of giving negative feedback
2. Introduce expressions for giving negative feedback and practice using them during conversations

**Lesson Plan:**

**Step 1: Awareness raising**

- Give the students the activity sheet and tell them to read the dialogues and answer the questions.
- For each text, elicit answers while taking students' attention to titles "explicit correction", "recast" and "clarification requests". Focus on the meaning of the titles.
- After about five minutes, check their answers.

**Step 2: Explicit teaching**

- Connected with Part A, take students' attention to clarification requests.
- Tell the students that we use clarification requests when we do not understand what the other speakers say and need more clarification. Tell them that before asking for clarification, we usually show our lack of understanding with some expressions such as "I don't understand, I am not clear on..".
- Ask students to look at Part B and put the expressions in the correct column.
- Do the first one if students find it difficult.
- After about 5 minutes, elicit answers
- Cover all the expressions with their pronunciation, meaning and use. Give examples when necessary.
- Tell the students that they need to be as polite as possible when they give feedback and discuss with the ways to be polite.
- Tell the students to look at Part C, think of ways to correct sentences and write negative feedback
- After about 8 minutes, check answers.

**Step 3: Practice**

- Put the students in pairs.
- Give each pair a trivia handout.
- Tell the students that they are given 9 questions to answer.
- Tell the students to *discuss the answers of the questions with their partner and write the answers next to the questions.*
- Try to be perfectly clear by asking for clarification and giving feedback.
- Give students 15 minutes to discuss.
- Check the answers
- The pair which has the most correct answers win the game

**Step 4: Evaluation**

- Tell the students to discuss what you have learnt with their partner and ask them to write down the strategies they used as long as they remember.
- Give each student a self-evaluation sheet and collect it after they complete the form.

## Lesson Plan - Week 7

### Interactional Strategy: *Checking Confirmation*

**Date:**

**Time:** 90 minutes

**Objectives:**

1. Raise students' awareness on checking confirmation
2. Introduce expressions for checking confirmation and practice using them during conversations

**Lesson Plan:**

**Step 1: Awareness raising**

- Give the students the handout and tell them to read the dialogues and answer the questions.
- After about 5 minutes, elicit answers. Draw students' attention to the expressions for not understanding and expression for the comprehension check "you mean...". Ask students if it is just a repetition of the previous sentence or a reformulation (different way of saying something).

**Step 2: Explicit teaching**

- Connected with Part A, take students' attention to the title confirmation check. Define and explain the word "confirmation"
- Tell the students that we use confirmation checks to check our understanding or to confirm what we heard is correct or not.
- Draw students' attention to expression in part B and cover all the expressions with their pronunciation, meaning and use. Give examples when necessary.
- Point out the importance of intonation and tell the students that we sometimes use "question repeats" (repeat the word or sentence of our partner with a rising intonation to check comprehension).
- Give examples and practice intonation with students.

**Step 3: Practice - Part 1.**

- The teacher reads out some statements and ask students to reformulate the sentences and check their understanding using expressions in part B.

Some sentences:

I don't like people who only think of themselves.

The pollution is a big problem nowadays and nobody cares.

My roommate doesn't clean the room. She throws away everything.

I arrived in Elaziğ late. There were no hotels, no guestrooms, nothing.

**Part 2**

- Put the students in pairs.
- Tell them to look at part C. Give the instructions: Tell the students that one of them is going to tell the recipe to cook a meal he/she likes without telling its name and their partner is going to write down the steps their partner mentioned.
- Tell the students to check understanding on each step in order not make any mistake.
- Give students 10 minutes to complete the activity. Then, ask the students to guess the name of the meal.
- Tell students to change roles and follow the same steps.

**Step 4: Evaluation**

- Tell the students to discuss what you have learnt with their partner and ask them to write down the strategies they used as long as they remember.
- Give each student a self-evaluation sheet and collect it after they are finished with the form.
-

## Lesson Plan - Week 8

**Interactional Strategy:** *Offering Clarification or Confirmation*

**Date:**

**Time:** 90 minutes

### **Objectives:**

1. Raise students' awareness of Offering clarification or confirmation
2. Introduce expressions for offering clarification and confirmation and practice using them during conversations

### **Lesson Plan:**

#### **Step 1: Awareness raising**

- Give the students the handout and tell them to read the dialogue and answer the questions.
- Elicit the answer and draw students' attention to the expressions in the text such as "I mean" and "that's what I mean"
- Tell students to brainstorm in pairs and discuss why we use these expressions
- After about 3 minutes, elicit answers.

#### **Step 2: Explicit teaching**

- Connected with the awareness raising part, tell students that we offer clarification or confirmation; a) when our partner asks for clarification, b) when we feel that our partner doesn't understand us c) when we want to clarify what we have just said.
- Take students' attention to expressions on part B. Work on the meanings of the expressions, their use and pronunciation. Give example sentences when the students need help with the usage.

#### **Step 3: Practice**

- Put the students in pairs.
- Tell the students to look at Part C, Read the statements and complete the sentences offering clarification.
- After about 5 minutes, check answers.
- Tell the students to look at part D. and give necessary instructions. Tell the students that they are going to work in pairs and will have different roles. Give the students their role cards.
- Student A is going to be the owner of the house, and student B is going to be the customer. Tell the students to read the information on their cards.
- Tell the students to use phrases for asking for clarification and offering clarification.
- After about 15 minutes, ask students if they have an agreement, and have a final whole class discussion about their reasons.

#### **Step 4: Evaluation**

- Tell the students to discuss what you have learnt with their partner and ask them to write down the strategies they used as long as they remember.
- Give each student a self-evaluation sheet and collect it after they complete the form.

### APPENDIX-I: Transcription Conventions Adapted from Richards (2003)

...	Pause
[	Indicates the place where overlapping talk starts
]	Indicates the place where overlapping task stops
x	Unintelligible or incomprehensible speech
?	Questioning intonation
<i>Italics</i>	Non-English words/phrases
:	Stretched sound
<u>Away</u> (underline)	Emphasis
“ ”	Utterances read from a text
(( ))	Other details

## APPENDIX-J: A Sample Screenshot of Data Analysis on ATLAS ti.

The screenshot displays the ATLAS.ti interface with a transcript on the left and its analysis on the right. The transcript shows a conversation between Betty and Chloe about insect repellent. The analysis on the right uses colored boxes to categorize segments of the transcript, such as 'a positive feedback', 'collaborative', 'asking for help', 'asking and giving opinion', and 'asking follow-up questions'. A specific segment of the transcript, 'Betty: what do you think about it? Should we: take it with us?', is highlighted in blue.

**Transcript:**

26 Chloe: Uh, uh, a problem.  
27 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent.  
28 Chloe: Repellent is... what?  
29 Betty: **what do you think about it?** Should we: take it with us?  
30 Chloe: I think.. We should take it with us because:: erm.. Erm.. In conclusion we:: spend time in there, and maybe erm, insects could bite... us... so,  
31 Betty: I definitely agree with you  
32 Chloe: [to protect them]  
33 Betty: yeah, you're right... that's a good point.  
34 Chloe: Yeah. ((smiles))  
35 Betty: Then: we choose it and take it with us.  
36 Chloe: uh huh, OK.  
37 Betty: A Compass ((wrong pronunciation))  
38 Chloe: A compass (( correct))  
39 Betty: A compass, yeah (corrects the mistake))  
40 Chloe: Is it.. the most important item?  
41 Betty: I don't think so, because I think erm.. the island isnt very bi:g. I think so.. I don't know what, but erm. I think we don't need to take it with u::s  
42 Chloe: we can stay near the see, we can erm this mark the sea.

**Analysis:**

- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: a positive feedback
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: collaborative
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: asking for help
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: asking and giving opinion
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: asking follow-up questions
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: asking and giving opinion
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: a positive feedback
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: a positive feedback
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: a positive feedback
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: a positive feedback
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: negative feedback
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: asking follow-up questions
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: asking and giving opinion
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: asking and giving opinion
- 7:40 Betty: A bottle of insect repellent: asking and giving opinion

## APPENDIX-K: Ethics Committee Approval



T.C.  
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
Rektörlük

Tarih: 29/11/2019 16:38  
Sayı: E-35853172-300-00000882051



00000882051

Sayı : 35853172-300  
Konu : Sibel TOSUN (Etik Komisyon İzni)

### EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 11.11.2019 tarihli ve 51944218-300/00000859345 sayılı yazı.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı Doktora öğrencilerinden **Sibel TOSUN**'un **Prof. Dr. Nuray ALAGÖZLÜ** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü “**Yüz Yüze Sözlü Etkileşimlerde Akran İşbirliksel Etkileşiminin Etkileşimsel Strateji Eğitimi Aracılığıyla Geliştirilmesi / Enhancing Peer Collaborative Interaction In Face To Face Oral Interactions Through Interactional Strategy Training**” başlıklı tez çalışması Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunu **19 Kasım 2019** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini saygılarımla rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır  
Prof. Dr. Rahime Meral NOHUTCU  
Rektör Yardımcısı

## APPENDIX-L: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that...

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

04/07/2023

Sibel TOSUN

## APPENDIX-M: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

27/05/2023

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY

Graduate School of Educational Sciences

To The Department of Foreign Languages

Thesis Title: Enhancing Peer Collaborative Interaction in Face to Face Oral Interactions Through Interactional Strategy Training

The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using **Turnitin** plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

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I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

**Name Lastname:** Sibel TOSUN

**Student No.:** N16248943

**Department:** Foreign Languages Education

**Program:** English Language Education

**Status:**  Masters  Ph.D.  Integrated Ph.D.

### ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED  
(Prof. Dr. Nuray Alagözlü)



## APPENDIX-N: Yayınlanma ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan "**Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge**" kapsamında tezim aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açılır.

- Enstitü/ Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir. <sup>(1)</sup>
- Enstitü/ Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren ... ay ertelenmiştir. <sup>(2)</sup>
- Tezimle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir. <sup>(3)</sup>

04 / 07 / 2023

Sibel TOSUN

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"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"

- (1) Madde 6. 1. Lisansüstü teze ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süre ile tezini erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.
- (2) Madde 6.2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metodların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internette paylaşılması durumunda 3. şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç; imkânı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezin erişime açılması engellenebilir.
- (3) Madde 7. 1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezin yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir\*. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlere ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.  
Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir.  
\*Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.

