

Interacting with limited resources

**Investigating the impact of teacher feedback on
the development of interaction strategies in the
classroom by learners of English**

VOL I

BRIGITTE REBER
Doctor of Philosophy

ASTON UNIVERSITY

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THESIS SUMMARY

Aston University

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Investigating the impact of teacher feedback on the development of interaction strategies in the classroom by learners of English

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This thesis has investigated the impact of teacher feedback on the development of interaction strategies used by low-level learners. 8 pairs of learners with a wide range of proficiency and language backgrounds were recorded while completing an oral task at 10 different points in time (10 months in total). Additionally, 12 stimulated recall interviews were conducted. Data were collected in two Swiss state school classes during normal classroom time and in collaboration with the two regular teachers. In months 4-6, each learner in every pair received one-off individualised feedback on how he/she could improve the use of interaction strategies.

Transcripts of the task recordings and stimulated recall data were analysed qualitatively, employing a single-subject multiple-baseline design (Lodico et al., 2010), regarding which strategies learners used to overcome resource deficits. Emerging codes were later used for a quantitative analysis. The findings were compared to an analysis of the same data for fluency, syntactical and lexical complexity. Findings showed that learners preferred the same pair- or learner-specific bundle of strategies throughout the ten months. Some pairs almost exclusively used self-reliant strategies whereas others displayed a wide range of other-support strategies. Immediately after the feedback, some learners used more of the strategies the teacher suggested or they used a more sophisticated form of a strategy they had used before. Some changes persisted while other measures reverted to pre-intervention levels. The most gains in proficiency could be observed in learners' fluency. In addition, use of support strategies correlated with frequent use of the modification of utterances in the direction of more standard English.

This study confirms the view that different factors such as willingness to communicate, personal-affective aspects and linguistic proficiency impact on the nature of task-based learner-learner interaction and that teacher feedback can only be effective when it also addresses such underlying issues.

Key words: learner-learner interaction, low-level learners, mixed-methods

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AS-unit	Analysis of speech unit (Foster et al., 2000)
CA	Conversation Analysis (Schegloff et al., 2002)
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001)
CS	Communication strategies (Nakatani and Goh, 2007)
LRE	Language-related episode (Jackson, 2001)
MTLD	Measure of textual lexical diversity (McCarthy and Jarvis, 2010)
1CD	In the context of this thesis, this refers to pair CD in class 1 (and so on)
1CD2	In the context of this thesis, this refers to the following: pair 1CD, recording 2
1CD2SR	In the context of this thesis, this refers to the following: stimulated recall interview to recording pair 1CD, recording 2
ZPD	Zone of proximal development (Daniels, 2005)

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background to the research, main research question, and approach adopted

Swiss state language education is currently undergoing major changes. The focus is shifting away from communicative but often accuracy-focused foreign language teaching to a competence-oriented task-based approach. Task-based teaching relies on the fact that learners themselves create language learning opportunities during task performance. Yet

‘the quantity and quality of language that is produced during task performances (...), largely determine the task’s language learning potential’ (Van den Branden et al., 2007).

Tasks cannot engage ‘language learning processes as if by magic’, but factors such as interaction types contribute to language development in learners (Samuda and Bygate, 2008, p.75). More collaborative and conversation-like types of interaction, for example, can be more conducive to language learning (Storch, 2002a, 2002b) than less collaborative ones, and they may even result in better exam scores (Galaczi, 2003). Various studies have also found that specific strategies used to overcome resource deficits during interaction, such as negotiation for meaning, can foster language learning (Goh and Burns, 2012, p.64) because they will provide learners with opportunities to engage with comprehensible input, to produce output, modify their language, and thus advance their language use (Gass, 2015).

After only two years’ tuition with two lessons per week, the learners investigated in this study were expected still to be at a low proficiency level : A1 to A2 (Council of Europe, 2001; Bertschy et al., 2015; Lenz and Studer, 2008). During task-based interaction these low-level learners will most certainly have to compensate for limited linguistic abilities and use strategies to express their intended meanings by using whatever resources they have access to. There has been ample research on the strategies learners use to overcome linguistic gaps (for an overview see Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Ellis, 2008, p.501ff; Nakatani and Goh, 2007). Much research has focused on what are called ‘communication strategies’ (CS), although different studies used the term in different ways (Nakatani and Goh, 2007). In this study, both cognitive and sociocultural perspectives on learner-learner interaction (Foster and Ohta, 2005) are considered, though internal processing as such is less of interest here than the mutual construction of meaning and understanding. The study claims that for task-based peer-interaction to be acquisition-rich, it needs to be of a specific quality (Adams, 2007). During task performance, many learners seem not to use such beneficial strategies

naturally (e.g. Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Foster, 1998; Goh and Burns, 2012, p.65; Reber, 2005, 2010). Even though the task as defined by Willis (2008) provides learners with a context for the joint construction of talk, some learners made use of more exercise-like interaction patterns, or rather unnatural turn-taking, or did not use the strategies typically associated with negotiation of meaning.

The study draws on Færch and Kasper's (1983) definition of communication strategies by claiming that strategies are potentially consciously used and that they comprise both self-reliant and cooperative strategies. Based on this, interaction strategies are defined as the cognitive and interactional means used in the joint construction of meaning in spoken interaction in order to enhance communication by maintaining and developing the discourse. Trouble during the interaction can of course also arise when learners do not understand the task, or differ in the way they understand it. However, this is not necessarily due to a resource deficit and therefore will not be considered here.

The concern over this topic originates in a Master's thesis based on data collected in a similar context (Reber, 2005) and a subsequent research project with student teachers (Reber, 2010). On the grounds of these earlier investigations and other research results, it can be assumed that more appropriate use of interaction strategies could indeed afford lower secondary learners additional learning opportunities during task-based learner-learner interaction. However, interaction strategies are not often part of formal instruction. Still, it can be expected that many learners in the present context already possess individual interactional abilities from learning other languages (Marx and Hufeisen, 2004, p.145), first because they are learning English as a second foreign language and second because many also speak other languages than German, the standard language used at school.

Until now, little has been known about how low-level learners with diverse linguistic resources in a state school classroom use interaction strategies. Besides, many studies focusing on interaction strategies have either not considered the long-term effects of an intervention or did not relate interaction strategy use to proficiency. Such a relation, however, is important, as using more strategies does not necessarily mean an increase in the quality of the interaction. More frequent use of some strategies may be related to higher proficiency (Nakatani, 2010), whereas overuse of trouble-shooting might impact negatively on social relationships (Aston, 1986). Some studies investigating the use of interaction strategies have lacked a focus on social aspects such as familiarity with interlocutors, which might impact on the resulting interaction. Indeed, what has been missing completely is an investigation into the provision of individually tailored feedback to encourage and enable learners to use interaction strategies which are potentially beneficial for language acquisition. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to explore

how the use of interaction strategies develops in low-level learners when they are completing a task with a peer, and asked to what extent one-off teacher feedback could help learners use interaction strategies which are potentially beneficial for target language acquisition. Findings were then related to the development of overall speaking proficiency.

For this investigation, the classroom setting rather than a laboratory setting was chosen, in order to be able to take an emic perspective and consider the potentially relevant social aspects at play in the lower secondary classroom. On the basis of this, the following research question was addressed:

During 10 months in a foreign language classroom setting among teenage elementary learners of English, can individually-tailored feedback on interaction strategies be observed to help learners improve their spoken interaction?

To answer this question first and foremost, qualitative language data was collected by recording, transcribing and analysing task-based learner-learner interactions at ten different points in time. Additionally, between recordings four and eight, teachers provided every learner with individual feedback on the use of interaction strategies once. This feedback both focused on interaction strategies learners were already using successfully and strategies they might use more frequently in the future. Further, every pair of learners was interviewed at three points in time. Findings from the qualitative analysis were later corroborated by means of a quantitative analysis of any changes by comparing proficiency before and after the feedback had been provided, and the relationship between the use of specific interaction strategies and proficiency. This research is novel in that it considers different aspects of interaction strategy use in an under-researched context: it takes an emic perspective on the development of such strategies in the multilingual low-level classroom, and investigates the effect of individually-tailored feedback by also considering proficiency development.

1.2 Outline of contents

This thesis will start with an overview of the literature pertaining to the use of interaction strategies by low-level learners, the teachability of such strategies and effects of interventions on strategy use (Chapter 2). Second, it explicates the chosen research methodology and describes data collection, processing and analysis procedures in detail (Chapter 3). Chapter 4 will be devoted to a discussion of the findings, first with a view to the interaction strategies used by the learners in this data set, and secondly by examining individual differences in the use of strategies (Section 4.1). It then focuses on the relationship between proficiency and the use of interaction strategies (Section 4.2) before it finally analyses the effect teacher feedback had on individual learners' use of

interaction strategies and proficiency (Section 4.3). From these findings, some conclusions are drawn for the provision of feedback on the use of interaction strategies and some wider pedagogic implications presented, before limitations of this study are discussed and recommendations for future research are made (Chapter 5).

2 Literature Review

This chapter first focuses on task-based learner-learner interaction in the context of Swiss state education and the function of tasks within a competency-based curriculum. A second part focuses on interaction strategies in task-based learner-learner interaction by discussing issues of taxonomy and considering various factors affecting the use of interaction strategies in the classroom. The main part of this literature review provides an overview of investigations into the teachability of interaction strategies. It first addresses the questions of what impact instruction on interaction strategies has, and what individual learners' needs concerning interaction strategies might be. Following that is a section on the different instructional procedures used for teaching interaction strategies. The next section discusses the effects of the instruction on learners' proficiency, before this part then closes with a discussion of how the teaching of interaction strategies has been investigated. In conclusion, possible gaps in research on interaction strategies are identified.

2.1 Task-based learner-learner interaction in the context of Swiss state education

The present study is situated in the context of the current change to a competency-based curriculum in Switzerland and the emphasis this puts on the use of strategies and the transfer of linguistic skills in the development of competencies. Swiss state education is locally organised, in that every Swiss canton has its own educational ministry. Nevertheless, attempts have been made to harmonize learning and teaching across the country. From 2010 to 2014 a competency-based curriculum – called 'Lehrplan 21' (Deutschschweizer Erziehungsdirektoren-Konferenz (D-EDK), 2014) – was developed which serves as a basis for cantonal curricula in the German-speaking part of Switzerland. For the teaching of foreign languages, two different models have been applied: whereas some cantons start with English as the first foreign language, the cantons alongside the border to French-speaking Switzerland decided to start with French; that is the context which is focused on in this study. For this region, the cantons agreed on a joint project to create a competency-based curriculum and new course materials for the two foreign languages French and English. The materials were to focus more on learner strategies, language and cultural awareness than previous materials had. Emphasis was also put on the fact that English is acquired as a second foreign language after French, and therefore learners should resort to and build on strategic and intercultural experiences, similarities and differences from previously acquired languages (Bertschy et al., 2015). This way, it is claimed, multilingual competence rather than

competence in just another foreign language could be developed (Grossenbacher et al., 2012, p.7).

Research into third language acquisition has indeed shown that transfer from L2 to L3 is possible. Such transfer is most salient in the lexicon (Rivers and Golonka, 2009, p.253). Other potential advantages L3 learners might have over L2 learners are better metacognitive self-management and affective behaviours for in-class and out-of-class language use, a wider variety of cognitive learning strategies, and the demonstration of more autonomous learning (Rivers and Golonka, 2009). In addition, not only foreign languages learnt at school should be considered but the possible benefits of the multilingual repertoire and multicompetence which learners have acquired elsewhere (Franceschini, 2011; Illman and Pietilä, 2018; Jessner, 2008) should also be taken into account. In state education classrooms, many learners' mother tongue or L1 is not the school language, German. For the part of Switzerland researched in this study, the average percentage of learners speaking another than the school language as their mother tongue is 15.7%. However, the distribution of these learners throughout the various classes ranges from 0% to 100%. For the two communities where the data has been collected, in 2013/2014 there were 27 out 72 (37.5%) foreign language speakers in school 1 and 5/104 (4.8%) in school 2 (Erziehungsdirektion des Kantons Bern ERZ Generalsekretariat, Abteilung Bildungsplanung und Evaluation (BiEv), 2014). On top of this, quite a few learners, even if they are considered speakers of German, do speak an additional language at home. Still, when at school, the shared and most used language is German, or for informal conversations the German dialect Bernese. In the context of this study, it is therefore more appropriate to talk about school language use than mother tongue use.

The advantages multilinguals have over monolingual learners, however, do not occur automatically. Affective behaviour benefits, for example, might not be evident when learners show poor metacognitive self-assessment (Rivers and Golonka, 2009). As a consequence, both learners and teachers need a thorough understanding of how knowledge and skills can be transferred from one language to the next and which factors benefit this transfer. In a study focusing on how teachers perceive the implementation of the task-based multilingual approach, for example, Schwab-Berger (2015) found that teachers generally followed the new course materials quite closely, and that some teachers did not have a clear understanding of how to use learners' various language resources for teaching English – including the school language, German, and the first foreign language, French. For the purposes of this study, it therefore seems vital to consider that any intervention needs to fit in with the course materials and its task-based approach, and that learners' various language resources and learning experiences need to be considered.

In competency-based teaching, tasks play a central role, in that they create the context for using and thus developing competencies (Adamina and Balmer, 2015, p.6). It is by completing tasks that learners can develop and apply the various facets of competency (Deutscheschweizer Erziehungsdirektoren-Konferenz (D-EDK), 2014) – including their strategic competencies. Equally, both in cognitive views of language use/learning (e.g. Skehan, 1998, 2002; Long, 1996) as well as from a constructivist stance (e.g. sociocultural SLA) (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006), tasks are seen as central tools ‘for engaging learners in meaning-making, and thereby for creating the conditions for language acquisition’, (Ellis, 2003, p.319). Language learning tasks have been defined in various ways (Kim, 2015). One definition, which reflects the above idea of competency-oriented language learning, is the following:

‘A task is a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or product or both’ (Samuda and Bygate, 2008, p.69).

By solving tasks, knowledge can be put to use, and by so doing, learners can establish links between forms, functions and meanings (Norris, 2011). With the advent of a competency-based curriculum, tasks therefore have gained a key role in foreign language teaching. It is by completing tasks, ‘learning by doing’ (Norris, 2011, p.578) that the foreign language is learnt and mental abilities and strategic competences are promoted (Grossenbacher et al., 2012, p.42). In such a task-based approach, learners are exposed to rich input, and experience purposeful interaction (Willis, 1996, p.11). For the classroom, specific methodological frameworks for task-based or task-supported language learning have been proposed (Willis, 1996; Willis and Willis, 2008; Müller-Hartmann and Schocker-von-Ditfurth, 2010) and publications on competency-based language teaching make reference to these (e.g. Keller, 2013). The new course materials used by the learners in this study (Fischer et al., 2015a, 2015b) consist of learning units with a set of pedagogic tasks, which enable learners to complete a more complex end-of-unit task. Fischer et al. (ibid.) state that their approach is based on the framework for task-based learning in Willis and Willis (2008). The tasks in the course materials cover receptive and productive skills. In this study, however, the focus is on tasks which require learners to talk to a peer.

Such oral peer-interaction tasks generate learner-learner interaction, which can support different aspects of language learning, not least because of the time allocated to every learner for speaking (Long and Porter, 1985). Learner-learner interaction has been investigated from two main perspectives: an interactionist and a socio-cultural perspective (for an overview see Markee, 2015; Sato and Ballinger, 2016). In recent years though, researchers began combining social and cognitive approaches (Sato and

Ballinger, 2016; Foster and Ohta, 2005). Philp and Mackey (2010) for example, claim that research should take into account both perspectives and investigate

‘the interplay between cognitive and social factors and how these, individually and in concert might impact the developmental outcomes of interaction in instructional contexts’ (Philp and Mackey, 2010, p.227).

Researchers from both contexts consider instances in the interaction where learners attend to some challenges in the communication as learning opportunities. Such challenges could either be due to limited lexical knowledge, task difficulty or to a lack of any other resources. Researchers working within an interactionist framework claim that learners use ‘negotiation for meaning’ to achieve comprehensibility and test hypotheses about the language and thus create learning opportunities (Mackey, 2012, pp.3–5; Bowles and Adams, 2015). Attention paid to input, feedback and output, corrective feedback during interaction, exposure to input and the output produced during interaction may result in learning (Mackey and Polio, 2009). Therefore, negotiation moves such as comprehension checks, confirmation checks, clarification requests and the resulting modified input and output have been investigated widely (Fernandez Garcia, 2007). Learning can be observed as changes in production, or new levels of awareness or comprehension (Mackey and Polio, 2009). However, interactionists also maintain that social and individual cognitive factors (e.g. working memory and developmental level) can affect the amount of attention a learner pays to features of the input and feedback, as well as the frequency and type of feedback learners will receive during the interaction and the willingness to actually produce output (Mackey and Polio, 2009). In the classroom, the learning potential of task-based interaction is therefore not a given, but is shaped by the cognitive and social factors learners bring to the task. Classroom research with adult learners and children, for example, showed that learners tended to avoid strategies typically associated with negotiation of meaning (Foster and Ohta, 2005; Gagné and Parks, 2013).

Within the sociocultural framework (e.g. Donato, 2000; Lantolf, 2006; Swain et al., 2010), language is seen as a mediational tool to co-construct meaning and thus create learning opportunities. It is assumed that learning first appears on the social plane, and is then internalised by the individual. Private speech and collaborative talk mediate cognition in that they organize and control thinking when learners are confronted with a difficult task. What a learner is able to do with the help of his/her peer, he/she will later be able to do on his/her own. One way of supporting each other in interaction is by collaboratively producing language, i.e. using co-constructions (Foster and Ohta, 2005) and thus collectively to support each other’s talk. Guk and Kellogg (2007) argue that co-construction in learner-learner interaction lies at the lower end of Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Daniels, 2005) ‘bordering on internalization’, (Guk and

Kellogg, 2007, p.297), whereas teacher-learner interaction lies at the upper end where performance is 'assisted' and 'asymmetrical' (ibid.). Because of the diverse linguistic backgrounds learners in this study have, both situations may occur: collective support of two learners on a similar proficiency level, but also asymmetrical assistance when a more advanced learner supports the less able peer.

However, asymmetrical assistance among peers might not be trouble-free. Investigations into the differences between learner-learner interaction and learner-native speaker interaction have shown that peer interaction (i.e. when learners interact with a peer on a similar proficiency level) seems to be perceived as less stressful (Sato and Ballinger, 2016, p.5) even though the actual learning is now with the learner and the monitoring process is shifted from teacher to learner. Learners may feel more comfortable in testing out hypotheses when they work with a peer rather than a much more competent speaker (Sato and Ballinger, 2016, p.5). In learner-learner interaction, incompetence is shared and is often accompanied by a willingness to work harder (Philp et al., 2013). In their research synthesis, Sato and Ballinger argue that despite the fact that learners might not always find a target-like solution when they face resource problems during interaction, they do seem to focus on 'formal aspects of the target language more than when they interact with native speaking partners or teachers', (Sato and Ballinger, 2016, p.4). Similarly, Choi and Iwashita (2016) maintain that low-level learners' perspectives on the success of the group work did not rely on other members' proficiency but rather that learners found it intimidating when they had to work with more proficient learners, and found 'peer assistance was beneficial in reinforcing previous knowledge that they were unsure of', (ibid., p. 128). They conclude that the effectiveness of this assistance, however, depends on whether learners are sensitive enough to provide 'developmentally appropriate help' (ibid., p. 129). For learners in the lower secondary classroom, this might of course be very demanding. On many occasions, it is the teacher who chooses learners' interaction partners, and depending on who they have to talk to, they might not always be willing, let alone sensitive enough, to adjust their level of support. Sato and Viveros (Sato and Viveros, 2016) noticed that low-proficiency learners used more negotiation for meaning and form, and more modified output than high proficiency learners. They attributed this to the collaborative mindset of the lower level learners rather than their proficiency. By drawing on social interdependence theory (Roseth et al., 2008), they conclude that

'a collaborative mindset may free learners from hesitation in correcting their peers and testing out their linguistic hypotheses, which, in turn, drives L2 development forward' (Sato and Viveros, 2016, p.106f).

Corrective feedback in learner-learner interaction can indeed promote learning despite the qualitative differences found in interactions between more proficient speakers

and learners in terms of input, feedback and modified output (Pica Teresa et al., 1996; e.g. Mackey et al., 2003). Additionally, self-correction might have similar effects on language learning as modified output within negotiation moves with a more proficient speaker (Loewen and Sato, 2018). And still, at very low levels, learners may not be able to provide help or self-correct because of their very limited linguistic resources. Various studies have found that low-proficiency learners tend to produce fewer language-related episodes (LREs) (Jackson, 2001) when paired with other low-proficiency learners than when they interact with more proficient partners (Kim and McDonough, 2008; Leeser, 2004; Watanabe and Swain, 2007; Choi and Iwashita, 2016). In such circumstances they hardly ever focused on grammatical correctness during LREs (Leeser, 2004; Choi and Iwashita, 2016) and many produced a high number of incorrectly resolved LREs (Choi and Iwashita, 2016; Kim and McDonough, 2008; Leeser, 2004; Watanabe and Swain, 2007). This might be alarming, as the processes found to contribute to language learning during interaction might be hampered simply by the fact that learners are at too low a proficiency-level and the previously identified positive effects of learner-learner interaction on language acquisition may not apply.

What might be even more problematic when tasks are used in the Swiss context, is the fact that learners normally have a safe way out of any impending communication breakdown: they can use the shared school language. A study carried out in the Swiss context revealed that a majority of learners did not ask for clarification, nor did they use non-verbal signals, but rather they used the shared mother tongue to compensate for a lack of understanding or of target language resources (Haenni Hoti et al., 2009, p.129f). Studies in other contexts found that teachers and learners perceive the inclusion of L1 into the teaching of a foreign language as positive, but that L1 overuse may have detrimental effects on language acquisition (Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Carless, 2008). Thus, the time spent on peer interaction in the classroom might indeed not be used to its full potential. This might be one of the reasons why first basic evaluations of the implementation of the newly introduced task-based curriculum show that learners' oral productive skills lag behind other skills (Singh and Elmiger, 2013). L1 can be used in instances where using the target language might be more beneficial, for example for negotiation moves and collaborative dialogue (Tognini et al., 2010). However, L1 use can also be a mediating tool for learning the foreign language (Antón and DiCamilla, 1999; de la Colina and del Pilar García Mayo, 2009). It can serve various functions in task-based learner-learner interaction, such as task management, focusing attention, metatalk (e.g. talk about vocabulary), off-task interaction, scaffolding each other's production and expressing identity or humour (Swain and Lapkin, 2000; Alley, 2005; Carless, 2008; Storch and Aldosari, 2010; Tognini et al., 2010; Tognini and Oliver, 2012; Azkarai and del Pilar García Mayo, 2015). A study into child L1 use, for example,

revealed that learners used their mother tongue in appeals for help, or mother tongue borrowings, metacognitive talk and phatics. Only in rare instances, however, was L1 used for negotiation of meaning strategies to repair communication breakdowns (Azkarai and del Pilar García Mayo, 2017).

In sum, task-based teaching only provides a possible framework for learners to use features which are beneficial to their language learning. Learners shape the task in their own individual ways (e.g. Pochon-Berger, 2011), and therefore no activity as planned on paper can compel learners to automatically use specific features during task performance (Breen, 1987). Any investigation into task-based interaction in the Swiss context therefore needs to consider carefully how the linguistic, social, social-affective and cognitive influences which learners bring to the task shape the resulting interaction.

2.2 Interaction strategies in task-based learner-learner interaction

In the low-level language classroom, learners need to use various interactional means to initiate, maintain, and end conversations (Goh and Burns, 2012, p.64) while constantly struggling with limited linguistic resources. Ohta (2001b) notes that beginner learners' talk will often be interspersed with pauses and false starts because constructing utterances might overwhelm the limited resources available. These, she maintains, are 'far from being mere disfluencies but are evidence of the learner's cognitive effort', (ibid., p. 77). When low-level learners interact, they use cognitive and social strategies to overcome their limited resources and to keep the conversation going. Such strategies are often referred to as communication or interaction strategies (e.g. Council of Europe, 2001; Goh, 2012; Goh and Burns, 2012; Nakatani and Goh, 2007; Oxford, 2011). The following section first gives a brief overview of research into interaction strategies and thereby address issues of definition and taxonomies. Following that is a presentation of the factors found to influence the use of strategies.

2.2.1 Issues of definition and taxonomy

There has been ample research into the means and strategies learners use to overcome knowledge gaps (for an overview see Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Ellis, 2008, p.501ff; Nakatani and Goh, 2007). Much research has focused on what are called 'communication strategies' (CS), although different studies used the term in different ways (Nakatani and Goh, 2007). Three main perspectives were used to explore CS: an interactional perspective (e.g. Tarone, 1980) – focusing on strategies used to improve negotiation and the overall effectiveness of a message. Second, a psycho-linguistic perspective was taken (e.g. Bialystok, 1990) – focusing on the mental processes underlying learners' language use when dealing with lexical and discourse problems. A

similar view on communication strategies was held by the so-called Nijmegen Group (i.e., Bongaerts, Kellerman, and Poulisse) (for an overview of the project see Ellis, 1995). They were interested in the underlying cognitive processes when learners used compensatory strategies. More recently, some have also adopted a purely social view (e.g. Burch, 2014; Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger, 2015) by studying talk-in-interaction (Schegloff, 1989) and the verbal and non-verbal methods, procedures and actions used in the 'co-construction and achievement of intersubjectivity in interaction' (Burch, 2014, p.652). A similar approach was chosen by some researchers within the English as a lingua franca (ELF) paradigm (Kaur, 2010; Mauranen, 2006; Pietikäinen, 2016). They investigated the means with which ELF speakers pre-empt and resolve misunderstandings.

Research on communication strategies started with Selinker's article on interlanguage (Selinker, 1972) where he claims that one of several psycholinguistic processes central to second language learning is strategies of second-language communication. Others then built on this idea and provided various definitions and taxonomies of communication strategies (for an overview see Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Færch and Kasper (1983, p.36) for example, defined communication strategies as

'potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal'.

They differentiate between achievement and reduction strategies. The former are subdivided into non-cooperative and cooperative strategies. They further argue that non-cooperative strategies can be subclassified by the communicative resources learners draw on, other than the target linguistic resources (L1/L3), learners' interlanguage or non-linguistic resources. Cooperative strategies, they then claim, are either initiated by an explicit or merely by an implicit signal of uncertainty. Such signals vary in the degree of obligation for the interlocutor to assist (Færch and Kasper, 1984). Tarone (1980), working from a discourse analytical perspective, then added an interactional dimension by also including meaning-negotiation and repair sequences into the set of strategies used during communication. She defines communication strategies

'as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal' (Tarone, 1980, p.420).

However, Færch and Kasper (1984) argue that the interactional definition by Tarone can be conceived of as a subset of their psycholinguistic definition. Dörnyei (1995) extended the notion of communication strategies by including stalling strategies, and thus a device which is not meaning-related. An even broader concept of communication strategies, however, was offered by Canale (1983). He also included communication-enhancing devices, and thus non-problem-solving strategies. Table 1 provides an overview of some taxonomies of communication strategies.

(Færch and Kasper, 1983)	<p>Formal reduction phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical</p> <p>Functional reduction actional, modal, reduction of propositional content, topic avoidance, message abandonment, meaning replacement</p> <p>Achievement strategies compensatory strategies: code switching, inter-/intra-lingual transfer, IL-based strategies (generalization, paraphrase, word coinage, restructuring), cooperative strategies, non-linguistic strategies Retrieval strategies</p>
(Tarone, 1980)	<p>Paraphrase: Approximation, Word coinage, circumlocution</p> <p>Transfer: literal translation, language switch</p> <p>Appeal for assistance</p> <p>Mime</p> <p>Avoidance: topic avoidance, message abandonment</p>
(Bialystok, 1990)	<p>Analysis-based strategies (circumlocution, paraphrase, transliteration, word coinage)</p> <p>Control-based strategies (e.g. language switch, mime)</p>
(Dörnyei and Scott, 1997)	<p>Direct strategies <i>Resource deficit-related strategies:</i> message abandonment, message reduction, message replacement, circumlocution, approximation, use of all-purpose words, word-coinage, restructuring, literal translation, foreignizing, code switching, use of similar sounding words, mumbling, omission, retrieval, mime <i>Own-performance problem-related strategies:</i> self-rephrasing, self-repair <i>Other-performance problem-related strategies:</i> other-repair</p> <p>Interactional strategies <i>Resource deficit-related strategies:</i> appeals for help <i>Own-performance problem-related strategies:</i> comprehension check, own accuracy check <i>Other-performance problem-related strategies:</i> asking for repetition, asking for clarification, asking for confirmation, guessing, expressing nonunderstanding, interpretive summary, responses</p> <p>Indirect strategies <i>Processing time pressure-related strategies:</i> use of fillers, repetitions <i>Own-performance problem-related strategies:</i> verbal strategy markers <i>Other-performance problem-related strategies:</i> feigning understanding</p>
(Canale, 1983)	<p>Verbal and non-verbal communication strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to compensate for breakdowns in communication - to enhance the effectiveness of communication

Table 1: Some taxonomies of Communication Strategies

Much later, Ohta (2001b) also addressed the interactional dimension but took a sociocultural view on what learners do when they struggle while interacting with peers. She reports that learners assist each other by waiting, prompting, co-constructing and explaining. Similarly, Burch (2014), suggests taking an interactional perspective on communication strategies by using Conversation Analysis (CA), and thus focusing rather on communicative success than on learners' deficiencies. He argues that an analysis of communication strategies in talk-in-interaction (Schegloff, 1989) views CS as a 'social phenomenon, utilized in the co-construction and achievement of intersubjectivity in interaction' (Burch, 2014, p.652).

In studies on alignment as an interaction resource, co-construction and the achievement of intersubjectivity has received much attention (Atkinson et al., 2007; Dings, 2014; Tecedor, 2016). Dings (2014) defines alignment activity as

'the ways in which interlocutors demonstrate their intersubjectivity, by showing each other that they are understanding each other and are being understood' (ibid., p. 744).

More specifically these are assessments, backchannels, collaborative contributions, and collaborative completions (ibid.). Signalling the interlocutor that one is indeed following and understanding seems truly very important in beginning learners' interactions, when due to their linguistic deficits, conversation breakdown is a constant danger. Various studies have categorized alignment along a continuum from nonproduction of alignment moves to more and more elaborate types of alignment (Dings, 2014; Ohta, 2001a; Tecedor, 2016). It seems that beginners are in fact able to use simple alignment moves (acknowledgements) but that over time, the number of alignment moves between interlocutors became more similar and learners could also use assessments and (dis)affiliative comments more efficiently (Tecedor, 2016).

Some also included metacognitive and affective strategies which would help learners communicate. For example, Cohen, Weaver and Li (1998) addressed speaking strategies for the 'preparation, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation of students' speaking task performance'. Similarly, the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) differentiates between strategies used when planning the interaction, while interacting, and when evaluating it. It claims that 'there is a class of strategies exclusive to interaction concerned with the management of this process', (Council of Europe, 2001, p.84) and terms these 'interaction strategies'. It provides descriptors for 'taking the floor (turn-taking)', 'co-operating' and 'asking for clarification'. Some of these scales were later refined, and more levels added (Council of Europe, 2018).

From this, it becomes evident that any investigation into strategies to overcome linguistic deficits needs to define what exactly should be examined. A topic which has

been discussed widely is the question to what extent a strategy has to be used consciously. Bialystok (1990, 1983), for example, has critiqued the view of communication strategies as conscious means to overcome gaps during communication and maintains that communication strategies are not restricted to learners of a foreign language but are used by learners and proficient speakers alike. The broader views of communication strategies, such as the way the CEFR defines interaction strategies, is certainly not limited to learners of a foreign language. Indeed, the CEFR states that CS should 'not be viewed simply with a disability model' (Council of Europe, 2001, p.57). However, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) suggest limiting the term 'strategy' to instances when 'a speaker consciously recognizes' (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997, p.185) a language problem as such. Also, the strategy should be used intentionally, and lastly the speaker should be aware that 'he/she is using a less-than-perfect, stopgap device'. This view is in line with Cohen's suggestion (2011) that if learners cannot identify strategies associated with a certain behaviour, such functions and moves 'should probably be referred to simply as *processes*, not as strategies', (p. 11). However, it rather seems to be a question of degree of attention (Cohen, 2011) than a clear-cut distinction between process and strategy. Stalling devices might for example first be used consciously, e.g. a learner consciously uses the phrase 'let me think' to gain time and later he/she might do so unconsciously. Similarly, other-repetition to confirm understanding or circumlocution can be used consciously by learners, but they might also unconsciously transfer these strategies from other languages.

An additional difficulty in defining strategies is the view that communication strategies are often used as clusters or chains, and should therefore not be studied independently but within a model of speech production (Bialystok, 1990, 1983). Cohen (2011, p.27) maintains that

'for a strategy to effectively enhance learning or performance, it needs to be combined with other strategies either simultaneously in *strategy clusters* or sequentially in *strategy chains*'.

It might therefore be very difficult, if not impossible, to determine individual strategies. This is probably why to date there is still no consensus as to how the means learners use to manage spoken interaction should be defined, and terms relating to them are used in many different ways.

2.2.2 Factors affecting the use of interaction strategies

Various factors can affect learners' use of strategies for keeping the communication channel open in task-based interaction. First, of course, the activity type can impact on the resulting interaction patterns (e.g. Bowles and Adams, 2015; Skehan and Foster, 2012; Wang and Skehan, 2014) and thus on the strategies used by learners.

Poulisse and Schils (1989), for example, found that even though low-level learners used more lexical compensatory strategies, task-related factors had more effect on the use of strategies than the learners' proficiency level. In the storytelling and oral interview tasks, learners used more holistic and transfer strategies, such as approximation and foreignizing, than in the description tasks where learners used more circumlocution. Foreignizing was used most frequently in the oral interview task when they interacted with a native speaker. Poulisse and Schils (*ibid.*) explain task-related differences by referring to different task demands (level of clarity demanded by the task), context (being able to draw on contextual information while completing the task), time constraints (e.g. because of possible loss of turn) and the presence of an interlocutor (the possibility of only using more elaborate strategies when it is made clear by the feedback from the interlocutor that the first attempt was not successful). Linguistic transfer, for example, may only be used successfully when the task does not demand a very high level of clarity, and the reaction by the interlocutor immediately tells whether comprehension has been achieved. Poulisse and Schils conclude that learners followed general communication principles (Grice, 1975) in that they invested the extent of effort and thus selected appropriately informative strategies to produce clear and comprehensible speech within given time constraints. This means that some of the findings from non-interactive tasks can probably not be transferred to interactive tasks as studied in this project. Additionally, investigations which are based on a variety of tasks need to consider variables such as context or the presence of an interlocutor and its impact on time pressure.

Another task-related factor which needs to be considered is task familiarity or repetition. In a study with 7/8-year-old learners, Mackey, Kanganas and Oliver (2007) found that working through familiar tasks permitted learners to use more comprehension checks and feedback. Tasks which were unfamiliar to the learners, both content- and procedure-wise, triggered more clarification requests and confirmation checks and feedback on non-targetlike forms. However, negative feedback resulted in modified output significantly more frequently when learners worked through tasks where both content and procedure were familiar. These findings were related to the fact that unfamiliar content was worked on collaboratively to reach a mutual understanding, whereas unfamiliar procedure meant learners first had to discuss how they wanted to undertake the task. The authors conclude that familiar content may permit learners to focus on forms better and take more risks, but at the same time negotiation for meaning might not be necessary to the same extent as when learners could not rely on common background knowledge. When learners complete an unfamiliar task, they may rely more on 'automated aspects of their interlanguage', (Mackey et al., 2007, p.301) but have to negotiate the content, which at times may lead to confusion. The differences in the way

learners completed tasks with unfamiliar procedures was then explained by the fact that children might have less experience with various task types, and therefore familiar procedures might better equip them to attend to their interlocutor's interactional needs and speak more fluently. Similarly, Pinter (2007) notes that task repetition, i.e. task familiarity, helped 10-year-olds increase their fluency and interact more efficiently, e.g. by using peer assistance effectively. It has to be noted, however, that other variables than mere task repetition might have been at play here: the two learners investigated were good friends and were enthusiastic about learning English. Task repetition might only contribute to more efficient interaction when learners interact with a good friend and both have the willingness to learn English. In Swiss lower secondary classrooms, however, learners have to learn English whether they are enthusiastic about this or not. On the other hand, they have worked on various task types in French and English since early primary education. They might therefore be quite familiar with various task procedures. Still, familiarity with procedures and content and possibly also motivational issues need to be considered when interaction strategies are investigated.

Many also investigated the impact low proficiency has on the use of interaction strategies (e.g. Bialystok, 1983; Dobao, 2002; Jourdain, 2000; Nakatani, 2010; Paribakht, 1985; Poulisse and Schils, 1989, 1989). However, in the different studies, proficiency as a variable has been defined in different ways. Dobao (2002), for example, simply attributed levels of proficiency according to years of study; others used impressionistic assessments (Jourdain, 2000); some locally developed oral interaction proficiency tests (Nakatani, 2010), or some more general proficiency tests (Paribakht, 1985). What in a specific study is considered low- or high-level depends on the context in which the study has been carried out. Many of these studies were conducted in a university or pre-university setting (Dobao, 2002; Jourdain, 2000; Nakatani, 2010; Poulisse and Schils, 1989) and many participants – even when they are referred to as lower-level learners – had probably already reached a higher level than the learners in this study. Despite these challenges, the varying potential impacts of proficiency need to be considered. In what follows, the focus therefore is more on which aspects of the interaction might be influenced by proficiency rather than which aspects of proficiency or which level of proficiency might have this effect.

In general, low-level learners' use of strategies and interactional methods to keep the conversation channel open might be limited (Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger, 2015), and low-level learners display less flexibility in the choice of strategy (Bialystok, 1983). Some methods may be overused (Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger, 2015). Low-level learners were also found to use more lexical compensatory strategies than higher level learners (Poulisse and Schils, 1989; Dobao, 2002), and asked for assistance more often (Dobao, 2002). Some found – maybe unsurprisingly – that low-level learners

used more L1-based strategies, such as conscious transfer (Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Dobao, 2002) and that they drew more on their world knowledge and on mime to solve problems (Paribakht, 1985). They also used reduction or avoidance strategies such as repetition, abandonment and topic avoidance more frequently than higher level learners (Khanji, 1996; Dobao, 2002). Learners on a linguistically lower level made less use of synonymy, antonymy and superordinate (Paribakht, 1985), paraphrase strategies (Dobao, 2002), or approximations. Poulisse and Schils (1989) explain this by the more elaborate linguistic resources needed for approximations. Khanji (1996, p.150) also concludes that intermediate learners 'got more language input at their disposal to be able to "talk their way" out of difficulty', and maintains that

'low-level students had no choice but to resort to reduction strategies rather than to switch topics, since their language development has not allowed for flexibility of language use', (ibid.).

Rossiter (2006) suggests that interaction strategies develop hierarchically from code-switching, using all-purpose words, word coinage, approximation, and finally to circumlocution. In sum, we can say that findings on the impact of proficiency – maybe predictably – indicate that low-level learners draw more on L1 and paralinguistic resources, abandon the message and use assistance appeals more often than more advanced learners. In addition, they seem to use a smaller range of strategies and use fewer approximation and paraphrase strategies than higher-level learners.

Interestingly, Bialystok (1983) also reports that participants who knew more than two languages and had travelled extensively were the most able to use strategies effectively. She attributes this to some 'strategic competence' (Canale and Swain, 1980) which she claims is probably independent of formal proficiency. Paribakht (1985) also concludes that strategic competence and proficiency-level seem to be independent. Learners in a Swiss state school context may benefit from a multilingual repertoire of well-established strategies (Marx and Hufeisen, 2004, p.145) and high linguistic competence in a shared language, which due to its closeness to the target language lends itself to being drawn on frequently. Learners in the Swiss-German context might therefore make more frequent and more effective use of L1-based strategies, than low-level learners in a context where the shared language is more distant from the target language (Kellerman, 1995; Paribakht, 1985). Strategy-wise, learners acquiring English as an L3, 4 or 5 might have an advantage over monolingual learners (Grenfell and Harris, 2015). They might benefit from better inference strategies and possess more flexibility if confronted with non-standard forms, i.e. a 'willingness to tolerate uncertainty', (Grenfell and Harris, 2015, p.569). Gallagher-Brett (2001) for example, notes that learners were able to call upon aspects of L1 social and conversational skills and transfer them to L2. When research on communication strategies started, some did

indeed claim that strategies are transferable from learners' L1 and that they therefore needed no teaching. Kellerman (1991) for example, concludes that 'there is no justification for providing training in compensatory strategies in the classroom', (ibid., p. 158) arguing that learners would first and foremost need the linguistic means to be able to use strategies.

Barraja-Rohan (2011) however, found that her learners did need the teacher's help to become aware of the strategies used in their L1 before they could transfer them to the foreign language. In summarising research findings, Rubin et al. (2007, p.148) conclude 'that students often do not automatically transfer the strategies they learn in one context to a different situation', even though there seems to be some transfer from learners' L1 to similar tasks in a foreign language. Cohen et al. (1998, p.113) assert that

'perhaps some or many of the L1 strategies will eventually transfer on their own, but explicit training may hasten the process along, as well as teaching some communicative behavior that is not learned automatically'.

Bialystok's claim that learners should rather be taught language than strategy (Bialystok, 1990, p.147) might therefore be valid for the Swiss setting. What learners in the Swiss context might need most is the language to express well-known strategies. Still, in some cases they probably also need a reminder to transfer the strategy to the target language.

2.3 Teachability of interaction strategies

When addressing the question of teachability, some have maintained that communication strategies could not be taught in the classroom but only in a real-life setting (Canale and Swain, 1980) and some raised concerns as to whether real-time constraints may limit the teachability of interaction strategies altogether (Chamot, 2005; Farrell and Mallard, 2006). Bialystok (1990) contended that merely focusing on surface structures, i.e. communication strategies as evidenced in the interaction rather than the underlying psychological processes, will not help learners. Besides, the social nature of learner-learner interaction may obscure any teaching outcomes (Nakatani and Goh, 2007). However, some also claimed that communication strategies are indeed teachable (Dörnyei, 1995). Tarone and Yule (1989), for example, suggested using a direct approach to teaching. Dörnyei (1995) lists three reasons for these differing views: in the early days of research on CS, there was only indirect evidence for or against the teaching of strategies. Second, some strategies could be more teachable than others, which together with the unclear definition of what CS are, might account for the differing views, and finally, it is not entirely clear what is meant by 'teaching' CS. The following will therefore address these issues concerning the topic of teaching interaction strategies to low-level learners.

Since then, various studies have confirmed the teachability of strategies (Plonsky, 2011; for a review see Hassan et al., 2005). In addition, a meta-study (Plonsky, 2011) has confirmed the considerable effects of strategy instruction on speaking. Several also investigated the impact of some intervention on strategy use in learner-learner interaction (Alibakhshi and Padiz, 2011; Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Bataineh et al., 2017; Bejarano et al., 1997; Cohen et al., 1998; Coulson, 2005; Dörnyei, 1995; Fujii et al., 2016; Gallagher-Brett, 2001; Kim and McDonough, 2011; Lam, 2010a, 2010b, 2009, 2006; Lam and Wong, 2000; Lee, 2005; Leedham, 2005; Maleki, 2007; Nakatani, 2010, 2005; Naughton, 2006; Rossiter, 2003b, 2003a; Rost and Ross, 1991; Sato, 2013; Sato and Lyster, 2012; Scullen and Jourdain, 1999; Tavakoli et al., 2015). However, these studies all differ in the strategies they targeted, the provision of teaching they offered or the methods they used for the investigation (for an overview see Appendix 1). Whereas some only focused on lexical compensatory strategies, others researched socio-affective strategies or included means to enhance communication, such as active response or shadowing. In general, there is no consensus as to which strategies should be taught. Færch and Kasper (1983) claim that only strategies which are used to test hypotheses and/or to automatize language use should be taught, but not L1-based strategies or strategies drawing on paralinguistic means. However, both the learner's own L1 and their use of paralinguistic strategies are part of the repertoire they require to be an effective interlocutor (Antón and DiCamilla, 1999). So it might therefore be worth considering teaching these, especially when dealing with low-level learners.

There is then the question of whether only cognitive strategies should be taught, or should meta-cognitive strategies be included? In his meta-analysis, Plonsky (2011) found that a focus on cognitive strategies resulted in higher gains than when metacognitive strategies were taught, which would speak in favour of teaching the first, or at least not to restrict the teaching merely to the second. As meta-cognitive strategies help learners manage cognitive strategies, they can probably not be taught in context without also addressing the cognitive. Fujii et al. (2016), for example, taught metacognitive strategies by raising learners' awareness of successful negotiation processes, while at the same time providing learners with specific examples and useful phrases for clarification or confirmation. Lam (2009) also combined metacognitive strategies (e.g. planning content) with examples of cognitive strategies such as how to ask for help. In this way, they combined cognitive and metacognitive strategy training with teaching the language. Such a holistic approach is probably the way to go as the promising results of their studies have shown.

2.3.1 Effect of instruction on specific strategies

Some strategies were found to be more influenced by instruction than others, and for some strategies the findings are contradictory, or the instruction seemed only to have short-term effects. Overall, a decrease in message abandonment (Nakatani, 2005; Alibakhshi and Padiz, 2011) has been attributed to some kind of strategy training as well as the use of a broader range of strategies (Lee, 2005; Lam, 2009, 2010a; Rossiter, 2003a), and an overall increase in strategy use (Lam, 2010a; Naughton, 2006). These all seem effects worthwhile considering in the low-level classroom. Learning opportunities within tasks might be increased quite extensively when learners have a broader range of strategies and they abandon the message less frequently. Through an increased use of strategies, learners might attend to challenges in the communication more often, thus provide more corrective feedback and produce more modified output.

More specifically, then, stalling devices received some attention (Dörnyei, 1995; Gallagher-Brett, 2001; Lam, 2006, 2010a; Maleki, 2007; Nakatani, 2005). Nakatani (2005) and Dörnyei (1995) report a significant increase in the use of fillers after the intervention. However, many participants in their studies were most probably already on a higher level than the learners investigated here. The difference in level might also explain why Gallagher-Brett (2001) found no increase for her beginner learners. She points out that they did not use pause fillers after the intervention but rather self-repetition and private speech to gain time. Lam (2006) – focusing on elementary learners – reports only an increase in task effectiveness rather than more frequent use of stalling devices. In her 2010 study (Lam, 2010a), she states that low-proficiency students showed a consistent increase in aggregated frequency and variety of strategy use, but again no increase in the specific strategy. False start strategies were also not affected by training (Nakatani, 2005). Overall, stalling devices seem to be teachable, at least to some extent and under certain conditions. Swiss lower secondary learners might use fillers only when they are on a rather high linguistic level already, for the very low-level learners using fillers might be beyond their current proficiency and the time-pressure of spontaneous spoken interaction might not permit them to consciously use target language words or phrases to fill their pauses.

Second, the teachability of negotiation for meaning, such as repetition requests, clarification requests, confirmation checks and comprehension checks has also been investigated (Gallagher-Brett, 2001; Lam, 2006, 2009, 2010b; Lee, 2005; Nakatani, 2005; Naughton, 2006; Rost and Ross, 1991). Some observed a change in the overall use of negotiation moves after the intervention. Nakatani (2005) and Bejarano et al. (1997), for example, found a significant effect of training on the use of negotiation moves. Even with younger learners, the total number and the range of negotiation moves increased after an intervention (Lee, 2005). However, Lam (2006) did not find such an

apparent effect on the use of negotiation moves, but instead an increase in awareness of the strategies. Many focused on assistance appeals and clarification requests exclusively. Rost and Ross (1991) conclude that low-proficiency learners can be taught how to ask for lexical clarification. Naughton (2006) also found an increase in requesting and giving clarification; however, these were used very infrequently overall. Whereas Bataineh (2017) and Naughton (2006) both found an increase in 'assistance appeal' after the intervention, Lam (2009) merely reports a statistically significant increase in self-perceived use of assistance appeal, Nakatani (2005) found no change in the use of help-seeking strategies, and Alibakhshi, Padiz (Alibakhshi and Padiz, 2011) report an increase which was lost after three months.

These inconclusive findings, or the general scarcity of the use of such strategies might be due to the potentially face-threatening nature of some of these (Brown and Levinson, 2014; Goffman, 2014). Sato (2013), for example, reports that learners increased corrective feedback after the intervention when this was combined with a focus on collaboration, and the instruction resulted in more positive beliefs about corrective feedback from peers. Similarly, Fujii, Ziegler and Mackey (2016), report that training learners how to be active while interacting, resulted in their providing significantly more feedback to non-target-like utterances than before. Some also found that the frequency with which learners engaged in LREs could be increased through teaching when this was combined with instruction on collaborative interaction (Kim and McDonough, 2011). Thus, behaviour which is normally considered face-threatening, might have been used with more ease. Such effects however, might also just occur without instruction. Naughton (2006), for example, reports learners did not increase the use of repairs after instruction more than learners who were not trained, despite including some cooperative strategy training. She attributed the changes in both the control and the experimental group to the higher mutual familiarity among interlocutors. Therefore, for some strategies to be used the interactional context seems vital. Unless learners are engaging with the partner and using collaborative patterns of interaction, they might not use more clarifications or corrective feedback.

Strategies which would do exactly this have also been addressed. Overall, findings from investigations into social-interaction strategies used to facilitate the flow of conversation are mostly promising, in that many found that, with adequate modelling and practice, learners could be encouraged to engage more with their partner and use respective interaction devices more often (Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Bejarano et al., 1997; Coulson, 2005; Kim and McDonough, 2011; Leedham, 2005; Nakatani, 2005; Naughton, 2006). Coulson (2005) for example, found learners used more collaborative interaction after an intervention, and Nakatani (2005) reports an increase in maintenance strategies (active response and shadowing) and Naughton (2006) in the use of follow-up questions.

Some, however, such as Gallagher-Brett's beginner learners used social-interaction strategies without being taught (Gallagher-Brett, 2001). We can speculate that in her context, learners transferred strategies from their other language resources.

Confirmation checks – which are often investigated as part of negotiation moves – should probably also be considered here. Other-repetition in form of a confirmation check can also serve the purpose of signalling astonishment or disbelief and in this way may also contribute to more engagement with the partner. This might be one of the reasons why Lee (2005) reports that the most striking increase in negotiation moves among her young learners was found with confirmation checks. Her learners did not only become better in negotiating meaning but at the same time they also engaged more with their partners. For the present study, it therefore seems vital to also address strategies which would support learners in increasing partner engagement and solving problems in a collaborative way to also permit them to use face-threatening strategies more often.

Only a minor effect despite instruction, or no increase at all, was found in the use of circumlocutions or paraphrases (Dörnyei, 1995; Lam, 2006, 2010a; Scullen and Jourdain, 1999; Nakatani, 2005; Rossiter, 2003a). Nakatani (2005) for example, reports that there was no change in the use of self-solving strategies (paraphrase, approximation and restructuring). However, a marked increase in the use of approximation and circumlocution by beginners was found by Bataineh et al. (2017) when they integrated the teaching of interaction strategies in an 8-week course. Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011) also found an increase in approximation, but this was lost after some time, and they noted an increase in circumlocution, but no change in restructuring and word coinage. Scullen and Jourdain (1999), however, found that learners increased their use of circumlocution whether they had some specific training, or general interaction practice only, but all learners showed considerable individual variation. The reason for the rarity and diversity of the impact of teaching on the use of circumlocution or paraphrase might be that paraphrase is lexically quite demanding. Lam (2010a) argues that

‘oral strategies that enable speakers to formulate ideas and express them relatively effortlessly may serve as “bedrock strategies”’ (Lam, 2010a, p.25)

and that paraphrasing poses too high a linguistic demand on the learners to serve as a bedrock strategy (ibid.).

A small number of studies investigated whether the use of L1-based strategies decreased after instruction. Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011) report on a long-term decrease in language-switch. However, Nakatani (2005) found no change in L1- or interlanguage-based strategies after instruction. That of course depends on how much L1 learners had used before the intervention. If learners are not used to employing the target language when talking to peers, an intervention might result in major changes, whereas in a classroom where learners are normally prompted to use the target language only, such

effects might not be observed. Pre-intervention states probably also need to be considered when fillers, negotiation moves or social-interaction strategies are investigated. This is even more pertinent in the multilingual classroom. Depending on which strategies learners already transferred effectively from other linguistic resources, an intervention might not be necessary or might even have an adverse effect and result in over-use of some strategies. Over-use of negotiation moves, for example, might entail a negative effect on social relationships (Aston, 1986). Therefore, it seems vital not to assume all learners would need the same sort of instruction, and then to measure the effectiveness of the intervention with an increase in use of specific strategies. This might in fact be one of the reasons for the inconclusiveness of some of the findings.

Another explanation might be the different tasks chosen for eliciting the strategies. Kim, McDonough (2011) and Rossiter (2003a) for example, found that the effect of the instruction also depended on the task used. What is more, in many studies, learners were offered some sample phrases illustrating the use of specific strategies, either by explicitly providing the phrases (e.g. Gallagher-Brett, 2001; Nakatani, 2010) or by showing examples of speakers using specific strategies and thus exposing learners to the necessary language (e.g. Kim and McDonough, 2011; Lee, 2005; Sato and Lyster, 2012). If after the treatment, learners showed more frequent use of strategies, this might be due to the way these had been taught. A measured effect might, therefore, be caused by the fact that learners were taught possible words for strategies they already knew from other languages, and not necessarily show that learners did indeed use a new strategy. Additionally, the rate of increase might also depend on learner variables, and possibly varies with the strategies targeted. Rost and Ross (1991), for example, found a difference in uptake between high and low proficiency learners for clarification requests. Gallagher-Brett (2001) then, claims that personality and general ability may have influenced the use of the strategies by her learners. There seems to be a complex interplay between learner traits (such as their pre-intervention use of strategies and multilingual resources with transfer possibilities), task variables, context (such as familiarity with the interlocutor, or an interlocutor with a collaborative mindset), instructional procedures, (i.e. whether phrases are taught) and the targeted strategies (such as circumlocution necessitating a high command of English).

2.3.2 Learners' individual needs

Many of the studies reported above were either undertaken in contexts with learners beyond the age range and competency level investigated in this study, or else involved rather high achievers (grammar school or university students). What is more, many of the studies reported a pre-intervention situation in which learners focused on accuracy more than on communication and avoided speaking spontaneously.

Considering the potentially strong impact of variables such as learner traits and context, it is questionable whether Swiss low-level learners with heterogeneous abilities would benefit from instruction on interaction strategies in a similar way. With the implementation of the new competency-based curriculum, learners in a multilingual setting might develop interaction strategies which permit them to create learning opportunities during that interaction, without being taught them explicitly. All the same, even if learners can transfer strategies from other language resources to the target language, teachers can, and probably should, remind them of doing so, as strategy use has been found to need regular wake-up calls (Cohen, 2011). What learners at low levels also need are the phrases and words used to enact the strategies.

Additionally, focusing the attention of all the learners in a class on the same strategies might benefit some learners, but for others, it could be counterproductive, as they might replace successfully used or transferred strategies with the targeted ones. Learners – especially those at a lower level in the given context – might, therefore, profit more from receiving individually tailored instruction, which does not only focus learners' attention on new and potentially beneficial strategies but also reinforces successfully used ones. Lam (2010b) for example, investigated whether metacognitive strategy instruction could activate learners' use of pre-existing strategies which were not taught to the students. She found that the teaching of metacognitive strategies did not automatically 'wash over' to other metacognitive strategies. Nevertheless, at the same time she reports that non-target strategy use decreased, which made her suggest that teachers should help learners become aware of the strategies they already use successfully rather than 'inadvertently instructing students to replace non-target with target strategies' (Lam, 2010b, p.213). Also, Plonsky (2011) mentions the possibility of ceiling effects when learners are taught strategies they have already used frequently before the intervention. He therefore suggests that level-appropriate and pre-treatment measure related strategies should be selected for the intervention. In sum, learners in this context might use interaction strategies in very individual ways, and some learners may only need the linguistic support to enable them to transfer knowledge and strategies better from other languages to the target language.

2.3.3 Instructional procedures used for teaching interaction strategies

Considering the most beneficial techniques to teach strategies, Rubin et al. (2007) maintain that most models suggested in the literature use a four-step approach. They propose first to make learners aware of strategies they already use. Second, teachers present or model new strategies. Alternatively, Goh and Burns (2012, p.231) propose learners share with peers to help each other notice additional potentially

beneficial strategies. Next, learners practice strategies thus identified and finally, learners self-evaluate their use of strategies. For this, the use of questionnaires is suggested, in order to raise meta-cognitive awareness through reflection (ibid., p. 250f). In the studies on communication strategies, most followed one or more of these four steps. Some discussed the rationale and value of strategy training (e.g. Fujii et al., 2016), showed their learners examples and/or offered opportunities for practice (e.g. Lam, 2006), others used pre-task modelling with the help of video clips (e.g. Kim and McDonough, 2011) or model role plays by the teachers (e.g. Sato and Lyster, 2012).

In the context of learning interaction strategies in a third or further foreign language, going through the full four steps need not be necessary. Learners might only need a reminder to transfer known strategies to the target language and the linguistic means to do so. One way of providing learners with an individually-tailored reminder is to give them feedback after completing a task. Hattie and Timperley (2007) maintain that effective feedback answers three questions. A first question, 'Where am I going?' is addressed in order to clarify the goals and nurture a commitment to attain those goals, here to enhance learner-learner interaction. Then, answering 'How am I going?' permits the learner to obtain information on specific task performance. Here, teachers would evaluate learners' use of interaction strategies in a given task, and based on this, tell them which strategies they are using successfully and which ones are still lacking or are not being used successfully. Finally, 'Where to next?' is answered, which can enhance learning in that it provides increased self-regulation over the learning process itself. When this is applied to the use of interaction strategies, learners can be told which strategies they could use more often in the future and be provided with the language to implement these strategies (e.g. phrases to use as stalling devices). Being reminded of the successful or not yet successful use of strategies together with the provision of the linguistic resources might suffice to self-regulate further development in their use of interaction strategies.

2.3.4 Effects of the instruction on proficiency

So far, the effect of the instruction has only been discussed regarding the frequency of strategy use. A positive relation of strategy use with speaking proficiency, however, is crucial as the more frequent use of specific strategies might not be beneficial in the long run. Aston (1986) for example, pointed out that in specific contexts the overuse of negotiation moves might be perceived negatively. Besides, the use of strategies seems to change over time and with proficiency (e.g. Dobao, 2002; Oxford, 2011, p.51) and therefore increased use of any strategy might not always be positive. Kim and McDonough (2011) for example, explored the effect of pre-task modelling on the use of collaborative learning opportunities. For this, they looked at the number of

Language Related Episodes (LREs) learners produced. Although their findings are promising, they say themselves that their study was descriptive, and that one of the limitations is that uptake of the LREs learners produced; i.e. gains in language could not be measured. We only know that the interaction was capable of being influenced, but not if this change was for the better proficiency-wise.

Some studies did investigate the impact on learners' overall proficiency. Several investigations inspected the overall effect of the intervention on the communicative interaction, i.e. whether learners' interactional behaviour was overall more effective or if their language was of higher proficiency after the intervention than before. Many found that this was indeed the case (Bataineh et al., 2017; Bejarano et al., 1997; Cohen et al., 1998; Dörnyei, 1995; Lam, 2006, 2009, 2010a; Maleki, 2007; Nakatani, 2005; Naughton, 2006; Sato and Lyster, 2012). Sato and Lyster (2012) for example, investigated the effect of training learners to provide peer corrective feedback on overall accuracy and fluency. The training took place over a period of 10 weeks with pre-and post-tests administered in weeks 1 and 10. They found that during meaning-based tasks the training did affect accuracy positively without impacting negatively on fluency. They hypothesise that unless learners were trained to engage in negotiation of form, they did not do so. With training, learners used more corrective feedback, modified output and self-modified output. Their study, however, was conducted in a completely different setting than the one suggested in this paper. Participants were university students with a high level of grammatical knowledge. A similar intervention with elementary learners might indeed impact negatively on fluency.

Nakatani (2005) found that the explicit teaching of communication strategies and giving learners the opportunity to reflect on and plan their use over a 12-week course did yield higher scores on a proficiency test than merely offering more communication practice. Unfortunately, there was no delayed post-test to see whether the difference between control and experimental group persisted. Rossiter (2003a), however, found no improved performance after teaching circumlocution, nor when teaching affective strategies (Rossiter, 2003b). Lam (2006, 2009) investigated the effects of teaching oral communication strategies (Lam, 2006) and metacognitive strategies (Lam, 2009) on learners' interaction and related this to task performance. She found that the treatment class outperformed the comparison class in task effectiveness and confidence in completing the tasks in the 2006 study, and with increased proficiency in the 2009 study. In her later study (Lam, 2010a), low-proficiency students increased their overall proficiency score after being taught various strategies.

When the instruction did have a positive effect on proficiency, the gains were often found in either speech production, i.e. in an increased number of turns or longer turns (Bejarano et al., 1997; Nakatani, 2005; Naughton, 2006), or in higher speech rate

(Dörnyei, 1995). However, Dörnyei (1995) found similarly significant improvements in speech rate for the group which only practised conversation and did not receive specific strategy instruction. This might again point to the fact that with practice, learners can transfer strategies from other languages. There was, however, a general correlation between speech rate and strategy use (Dörnyei, 1995). Rossiter (2003a) found no increase in speech rate after affective strategy training. Her intervention, however, only targeted paraphrase, whereas all the others who reported gains in proficiency taught a wider range of strategies including conversation enhancing strategies such as fillers, negotiation of meaning or cooperation. Naughton (2006) found that the number of turns increased in the experimental group as compared to the control group. Some also reported a positive impact on other measures of proficiency, such as range of vocabulary and grammatical correctness (Cohen et al., 1998; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2009). Cohen et al. (1998) found no increase in overall proficiency but, for the French speakers only, in vocabulary. The positive findings from these quantitative studies were corroborated by qualitative, more fine-grained analyses of learner-learner interaction before and after strategy training, which showed learners became more effective conversationalists (Barraja-Rohan, 2011). Among other things, Barraja-Rohan focused her learners on response tokens (e.g. 'yeah', 'okay') and assessments. By the end of the course, she found learners were aware of the importance of these and used them more frequently. What distinguishes these learners from those in this study, is that hers were free to attend and could choose their conversation partner. Having to work with a partner you do not like and in a language you do not want to learn might result in more problematic interactions than Barraja-Rohan reports.

The question then concerns which strategies contributed to the increase in proficiency. Nakatani (2010) reports that using more 'response for maintenance strategies' (i.e. active responses such as making positive comments or using other conversation gambits or shadowing) were the most significant predictors for the conversation post-test score. Other predictors were signals for negotiation (confirmation checks, comprehensions checks, and clarification requests). This means that for an intervention to be beneficial performance-wise, it should include more than merely lexical compensatory strategies. Communication-enhancing strategies certainly need to be addressed, but so do any other means for becoming an effective conversationalist. When learners interact, they need to draw on similar interactional methods in their conversations as native speakers do. They create context dynamically, with each contribution creating the context for following utterances (Heritage, 1984). They need to pay attention to the sequential structure of the discourse and maintain continuity of the given topic (Wells, 1981). In this sense, 'second language conversations are normal conversations' (Wagner and Gardner, 2004, p.3). Being able to draw on communication-

enhancing strategies is even more pertinent at lower levels when learners lack the linguistic resources for many of the more sophisticated lexical compensatory strategies such as circumlocution. What the findings so far also show is that in the present context we might expect most gains in the areas of speech production and/or fluency.

2.3.5 Investigating the teachability of interaction strategies in classrooms

Many studies on the use of interaction strategies were quasi-experimental, working with intact classes or partially intact classes. Some also originated in action research projects with no control group. Some of the above studies – mainly those working on lexical compensatory strategies used an experimental or laboratory setting. This setting permits the control of more variables than the classroom setting does (e.g. the choice of partner, or hearing other learners talk and taking up some of their phrases). The major disadvantage of a laboratory setting, however, is that in it participants might be reminded of a test situation and therefore behave differently. More natural behaviour such as teasing the partner while doing the task or switching to German might occur less frequently. Gass, Mackey and Ross-Feldmann (2011) examined the impact of a classroom as opposed to a laboratory setting on learners' interaction patterns. While they found that there were no significant differences across settings, the specific context of their study has to be considered. This study involved university students who worked with a researcher assistant. We can assume that university students are used to being taught by different teachers and should be mature enough to cope with a new situation, even more so if the researcher is almost their age. The authors of the study admit that a different classroom context might yield different results (Gass et al., 2011, p.207). For further discussion of the comparability of classroom and laboratory findings, see the following: Goo and Mackey (2013); Long (2015); Mackey (2012).

When investigating strategies in task-based learner-learner interaction, many researchers made use of pre-established categories such as negotiation moves. Such an etic approach might be unproblematic in many cases. Yet there are some aspects of an interaction which could be more fruitfully considered from an emic perspective. This is probably even more important when analysing beginners' interactions, as these learners often lack the language to express themselves clearly. When coding transcripts for clarification requests, for example, it is difficult to distinguish them from attempts to maintain the interaction (Foster and Ohta, 2005). The phrase 'on the bank' in line 2 of the extract below can be considered a 'clarification request', meaning 'Do you want to say: "Are all the women sitting on the bench?"'. But the same utterance could as well be perceived as support for L to keep the conversation going.

1 L: okay ehm are all women ehm sit (.) ehm (..) sit eh [sit eh
2 A: [on the bank=
3 L: =[yes

Extract 1: Clarification request (Reber, 2005, p.125)

Combining an analysis based on pre-established categories with a more emic perspective which also considers how interactants co-construct meaning and build on previous turns might be more illuminating than either of them alone, and do more justice to the sequential structure of learner-learner interaction. As Nakatani (2005) concedes, it is essential to also look at how conversations develop among learners. Finding no significant differences in the use of 'help-seeking strategies' (ibid., p. 84) between the strategy training group and the control group, he hypothesised that low-proficiency learners often lack the means to seek for help explicitly, but instead abandon the message and wait for a peer to continue. Help-seeking could therefore also be expressed by other means than explicitly asking for help or repetition. Such hypotheses can only be tested when the unfolding interaction is analysed from an emic perspective, not when looking for specific surface features of the language.

One approach to interaction which looks at aspects of learner-learner interaction from an emic perspective, and works from the interactions to analyse the sequential organisation of classroom interaction is Conversation Analysis (CA). CA

'studies the procedural rules that people use to cooperatively manage conversations and make sense of what is going on' (Jones, 2012, p.17).

Early CA studies – (Schegloff et al., 1977), for example – showed that interactants use sequentially ordered procedures to treat trouble sources in unfolding turns-at-talk. Trouble may be addressed by the current speaker (self-initiated), or the interlocutor (other-initiated) and then subsequently fixed by the speaker who has produced the trouble source (self-repair) or by the recipient (other-repair). CA approaches emphasise both the context and sequentiality of utterances. The view is that

'interaction is *context-shaped* and *context-renewing*; that is, one contribution is dependent on a previous one and subsequent contributions create a new context for later actions' (Walsh, 2011, p.84).

Conversation analysts use naturally occurring classroom interaction; they are not only interested in what is said but also in how it is said (Jenks, 2011), and they explain the orderliness of talk, its turn-taking and sequence organization from a 'radically emic' stance (Kasper, 2006). They therefore transcribe talk according to detailed notation rules including features of speech delivery which are otherwise not covered in transcripts (e.g. precisely-timed pauses, lengthening, overlapping talk or latching). This has resulted in some very detailed transcripts which portray mobility and embodiment (Kasper and

Wagner, 2014, p.181).

In the subsequent CA analysis, the way speakers organize their talk is attended to very closely and new phenomena are searched for. CA researchers use five main emic procedures for this: they typically start with observation (Sidnell, 2013, p.86f), i.e. 'unmotivated looking' by 'examining the data without a set of hypotheses' (Wong and Waring, 2010, p.6). This is followed by repeated listening to and viewing of the data 'to make initial observations' (ibid.), and then the question is asked "why that now?" (Schegloff, 2007, p.249; Schegloff and Sacks, 1973, p.299), i.e. why a particular speech practice is being used for a particular action at a particular time. This serves to uncover how participants themselves treat a particular utterance. By this iterative process the analyst immerses him-/herself in the data and identifies the phenomenon of interest, then later collects similar phenomena from other fragments of conversation (Sidnell, 2013, p.88). Thus an argument on a case-by-case basis is developed (Wong and Waring, 2010, p.7). Deviant cases are not discarded (ten Have, 2007) but analysed further, and are either found to fit into the existing argument, or used to rework the existing argument, or else the deviant case is considered 'an instance of a different interactional practice' (Wong and Waring, 2010, p.7). Typically, researchers will then build a data base of comparable cases and provide a detailed description thereof (Kasper and Wagner, 2014, p.176). By comparing individual instances, researchers can identify patterns and regularities in interaction. In contrast to other methods however, these individual cases are always 'considered in their sequential contexts, that is, in their position in a turn, sequence, or larger activity' (Kasper and Wagner, 2014, p.181) rather than in isolation.

Ten Have (2007, p.125) suggests exploring the data in a more systematic way right from the beginning. Four types of interactional organization should be paid attention to: first, 'turn-taking as an organized activity' (ibid., p. 128) needs to be considered, especially what the speakers do 'at any "transition-relevant place" ' (TRP) at the end of a 'turn construction unit' (TCU)' (ibid.). For example, it should be examined whether the next speaker has been selected by the other, or self-selects, or whether the previous speaker continues (ibid.). After that, the sequential organization of utterances should be observed, i.e. 'what can orderly be done in the next position' (ibid., p. 20). The major concept of interest here is the adjacency pair (AP):

'After a first pair-part, the next utterance is, at first, heard as a relevant response to the first, as a fitting second pair-part. When that is not possible, when there is no response, or when it does not "fit", that is an accountable matter, a "noticeable absence" ' (ibid., p. 130).

Such sequences can also be extended or broken off by inserting another sequence, for example a request for clarification. Next, the organization of repair should be focused on, and questions need to be answered such as who initiates the repair (self or other), whether the inserted repair leads to 'a postponement, or even abandonment, of a

projected next action' (ibid., p. 133). It has to be noted here that in conversation, repair is 'omni-relevant' (ibid., p. 134), i.e. any next turn can be used by the recipient to initiate repair. Finally, according to ten Have (ibid. p. 136ff), aspects of the organization of turn-design need attention, too. We should examine recipient design and preference organization, for example how turns expressing a dispreferred action are designed (ibid.).

CA has not only been used to discover 'basic and general aspects of sociality' (ibid., p. 174) from establishing what interactional resources are available by looking for instances of a phenomenon across different contexts. It has also been used to investigate interaction in specific institutional contexts, or in a transdisciplinary way to investigate topics in other disciplines. For example, Pekarek Doehler et al. (2008) used CA to study interaction in the classroom, and thus applied CA to an institutional context. In contrast to 'pure CA', 'applied CA' (ten Have, 2007) investigates how interactional resources are employed within specific instances of interaction. By emphasising both the context and the sequentiality of utterances, CA provides insights into the multi-layered structure of classroom interaction (Walsh, 2011, p.87) and can thus reveal how learners construct opportunities for learning within the interaction, or else restrict them. Indeed, a growing number of scholars have used a conversational analytic perspective to examine interaction in the language classroom (Kasper and Wagner, 2014). Several studies drawing on CA, for example, have investigated pair dynamics in peer interaction and built on the four different interactional patterns identified by Storch (2002a) to relate these to proficiency, language acquisition and other aspects of language learning (e.g. Dobao, 2012; Galaczi, 2003; Gass et al., 2011). Seedhouse (2005) identifies three approaches with which CA has been applied to language learning: first, he mentions an ethnomethodological CA approach, which is the same as any pure CA approach. Second, contrary to the ethnomethodological approach, which is 'agnostic in relation to learning' (ibid. p. 175), he describes a sociocultural theory approach to CA, which 'employs CA as a tool in the service of a theory of learning' (ibid. p. 175). Last, he details a linguistic CA approach, which works within a quantitative paradigm and isolates 'interactional phenomena for quantitative treatment' (ibid. p. 176).

More recently, researchers have begun using CA in longitudinal designs, on the one hand to investigate 'interactional practices' (Kasper and Wagner, 2014, p.198) – i.e. how foreign language speakers 'change how they accomplish the practice over time' (ibid.) – and on the other to explore 'linguistic resources' (ibid.) – i.e. how learners change 'in the use of lexical and grammatical forms' (ibid.). One of the difficulties faced in longitudinal CA studies is that a single participant's competence cannot be studied without considering the co-participant's conduct, and therefore a speaker's change in conduct might not be due to his/her development but rather to any change in the co-

speaker (Kasper and Wagner, 2014, p.198). Additionally, interactional competence 'cannot be separated from the development of the participants' social relations' (ibid. p. 199). Once participants are acquainted, their conduct might differ, and the change in interactional practices might not be attributed to learning but rather to a change in social relations. Additionally, CA is also used in sequential mixed-methods design studies (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010), in that researchers first use CA to annotate the data, and then to quantify and statistically analyse it (Kasper and Wagner, 2014). Kasper and Wagner (ibid.) present several comparative studies which include a quantitative component, and state that the challenge with such cross-cultural or cross-linguistic studies is that 'robust CA findings' are needed to subsequently analyse them statistically. As early as the late nineties, Heritage (1999) considered the possibility that statistics would be used more often in CA.

The danger however is that quantification is used prematurely, and therefore interactional phenomena only analysed superficially. Seedhouse (2005, p.179) 'suggests that CA may be used as a preliminary stage to ensure the validity of quantification of interactional features' in a linguistic CA approach; and only at a second stage, after a careful analysis of naturally occurring data according to 'CA as a social science research methodology' (ibid.), should the analysed data be used for quantitative treatment. One way of elaborating a sound analysis is by using theoretical sampling, either to find as many diverse cases for one phenomenon as possible ('to maximise diversity' (ten Have, 2007, p.147)), or to strive for 'maximum similarity' (ibid.) until the point of saturation is reached. In an 'applied CA' study the analysis can be elaborated by submitting a purposefully selected corpus to a 'comprehensive data treatment' (ibid., p. 148), i.e. by starting on a small selection from the data in the corpus, 'to generate 'a provisional analytic scheme'' (ibid.), compare the findings with the other data in the corpus, and if needed modify the scheme until it covers all the data in the corpus.

In addition to a methodologically sound analysis from an emic perspective, a long-term view is also essential. Many studies investigating the effect of an intervention on interactional features have only measured short-term effects. Naughton (2006) for example, found that 'Cooperative Strategy Training' impacted on the frequency of learners' use of potentially beneficial patterns in interaction, but without a delayed post-test we cannot know whether the changes were maintained. Many of the interventions lasted several weeks and post-tests were administered right after the intervention ended. We do not know whether the changes remained or faded out after the withdrawal of the intervention. Measuring long-term effects would be important, especially in the context of strategies, as learners sometimes need 'ongoing wake-up calls by teachers' (Cohen, 2011, p.140) to sustain the use of a specific strategy.

2.4 Summary

In the Swiss context, tasks are now increasingly used to fulfil the requirements of competency-based curricula. It is by completing tasks that the foreign language is learnt and mental abilities and strategic competences are promoted (Grossenbacher et al., 2012, p.42). The enactment of a task in the classroom, however, is shaped by the beliefs, experiences, intentions, expectations of learners and the assessments they make. No activity as planned on paper can prompt learners to automatically use language acquisition-rich features in their task-based interactions (Breen, 1987). When low-level learners complete oral interactional tasks, they use cognitive and social strategies to overcome their limited resources and keep the conversation going. Such strategies are often referred to as communication or interaction strategies (e.g. Council of Europe, 2001; Goh, 2012; Goh and Burns, 2012; Nakatani and Goh, 2007; Oxford, 2011).

There has been ample research on the use of such strategies, and different authors have defined and investigated them in different ways (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Ellis, 2008, p.501ff; Nakatani and Goh, 2007). Interaction strategies can be conceived regarding the mental processes activated due to linguistic resource deficits or located in an interactional framework and thus include meaning negotiation, representing the means by which participants in conversations work together to solve the learner's linguistic problem. Some definitions of communication strategies solely focus on 'own-performance problems', others also include 'other-performance problems', and problems arising due to 'processing time pressure', i.e. stalling devices, or any interactional device used to enhance communication. There has also been some disagreement in the literature as to whether strategies used at the planning and evaluation stage should be included. Last, we need to address the question of whether strategies should be used consciously, or if they can also include unconsciously produced plans.

In task-based learner-learner interaction learners may draw on different sets of interaction strategies depending on how they approach the task. The activity type, whether the task is familiar to the learners, and learners' individual multilingual resources can all impact on the interaction strategies they will use when completing the task. Proficiency or activity type, however, might only have a limited effect on the choice of a particular type of compensatory strategy and sometimes can be overruled by social-affective factors.

There is now direct evidence for the usefulness of teaching interaction strategies, but it seems some strategies, such as means to enhance the interaction, and the use of 'chunks' (Schmit, 2000) as stalling devices, are more amenable to instruction than strategies which rely on high linguistic flexibility (e.g. circumlocution). We can, therefore, assume that low-level learners with diverse linguistic backgrounds and heterogeneous

socio-affective preconditions will vary in their strategic competency independently from their formal linguistic proficiency or the task they are working on. Individually-tailored feedback might therefore be a fruitful instructional procedure. Lengthy, one-size-fits-all strategy instruction might unnecessarily use up learning time, which should better be spent on teaching language for enacting strategies learners already know. An individually-tailored approach to the instruction of interaction strategies in the low-level learner classroom has not previously been investigated.

When investigating the effect of such strategy instruction, a purely etic perspective might not do justice to the sequential development of learner-learner interaction (Seedhouse, 2005) nor uncover the subtleties of strategy use. Instead, research should investigate interaction from both a cognitivist and a sociocultural stance (Philp and Mackey, 2010). Additionally, the investigation should be longitudinal in order to explore not only the short-term effects of the instruction, and it should also include measures of proficiency to gauge the effect of the instruction on learners' speaking proficiency. To date, most investigations have either worked from an interactionist or a socio-cultural stance, and they have not been longitudinal or have ignored the measurement of proficiency. To my knowledge, no research has yet combined the following five aspects: an emic, an etic and a longitudinal view of the phenomenon in the low-level classroom, which includes an analysis of learners' proficiency.

3 Methodology

The following chapter starts with a presentation of the research questions, the conceptual framework underlying this study, and the research design. It then provides information about the participants and discusses ethical concerns pertaining to this study, before the intervention and the data collection procedures are presented. Next, it details pre- and post-tests and field notes data. The main part is devoted to a discussion of data processing and analysis methods, including the coding of the data and issues of validity, measures used and a note on visual data inspection and statistical analysis.

3.1 Research questions and design

Little is known about how learners in an elementary state school classroom use interaction strategies over time. What has been missing completely is how the provision of individually-tailored instruction to encourage learners to transfer interaction strategies from their L1 and other foreign languages to the target language impacts on learners' interactions. The proposed study, therefore, aims to investigate whether one-off individually-tailored feedback on interaction strategies helps learners improve their spoken interaction.

In this study both cognitive and sociocultural perspectives on learner-learner interaction (Foster and Ohta, 2005) are considered, though internal processing as such is less of interest here than the mutual construction of meaning and understanding. Therefore it draws on a sociocognitive approach to additional language acquisition (Atkinson, 2011).

'As the name itself implies, its distinctive claim is that individual mind and ecosocial world aren't radically separated but rather functionally integrated, and that this functional integration offers one key to understanding SLA' (Atkinson, 2013, p.468).

The study claims that for peer-interaction to be acquisition-rich, it needs to be of a specific quality (Adams, 2007). It does not ask if and how learners acquire the language but how they can be encouraged to create this potentially acquisition-rich environment in task-based peer-interaction.

The view taken on strategies in this project is an interactional one, and therefore strategies are identified and grouped in terms of their contribution to the co-construction of talk. What is more, it is believed that besides compensatory strategies, other means to enhance communication, such as active response and shadowing, are equally important. It focuses on all such means used by learners to establish intersubjectivity and keep the communication channel open, as manifested in the evolution of the interaction. This view reflects both traditional SLA and sociocultural research on interaction (Foster and

Ohta, 2005). That is why existing categories of strategy from different strands of research are considered here (cf. Appendix 2: Initial categories of strategies).

The study examines how low-level learners enhance the effectiveness of spoken interaction despite their linguistically low proficiency. This includes dealing with both own- and other-resource problems, e.g. the use of paraphrase if one lacks a specific word in the target language, or asking for clarification when the interlocutor's utterance is not sufficiently clear, possibly due to the interlocutor's own lack of linguistic resources. The focus is on spoken interaction and not on oral communication in general, or even just spoken production, and therefore the term 'interaction strategies' rather than 'communication strategies' is used. In this thesis, the term 'interaction strategies' encompasses all the aspects normally investigated under the term 'communication strategies', putting special emphasis on observing interaction management from a sociocultural point of view. The thesis assumes that the means used to compensate for linguistic resource deficits will depend on how interlocutors co-construct and achieve intersubjectivity. It therefore takes the broadest possible view of communication strategies taken by researchers (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). It recognizes the need to assign importance not only to cognitive strategies which compensate for gaps in lexical knowledge, or to meaning-negotiation and repair sequences, but also to communication-enhancing devices or stalling mechanisms. All of these can be equally useful in the effort to achieve intersubjectivity.

Focusing on such a broad set of strategies seems even more pertinent when possible effects on the language learning process are considered. Any strategy use which results in learners focusing their attention on meanings and forms in either input or output might make its contribution to successful learning (Swain, 2005; Long, 1996). As such, negotiation and repair sequences might prove particularly beneficial for learners. In the present context, learners may use a foreignized, school-language-based form of a word they cannot at first recall, and then self-correct this to a more standard form. In the same way, they may ask for clarification because the interlocutor has included a word in the shared school language, and thus compel the interlocutor to modify his/her utterance to more standard English. They may do this despite the fact that the interlocutor, who shares their school language, must inevitably have understood the first version. Though in these cases the strategies are not merely used to keep the communication channel open, such instances are still considered important, not least because they reflect learners' orientation to the classroom setting, and such behaviour manifests one way of how they deal with the limited resources available in the classroom. Not every repair sequence might ultimately serve the purpose of enhancing communication. And yet, the fact is that during their interaction learners do self-correct, or correct the interlocutor. That can be an essential part of how they achieve intersubjectivity in the classroom

setting. Any metacognitive strategies (e.g. Goh and Burns, 2012, p.64) such as planning and self-monitoring, however, are not included here, as an investigation into these would normally necessitate the collection of other than mainly task-performance data, e.g. in-depth interviews or self-report questionnaires (Haukås, 2018, p.15) and would therefore go beyond the scope of this research.

The term 'strategy' as used in this study draws on Færch and Kasper's 1984 definition of communication strategies, in claiming that any strategy has the potential to be used in a conscious way. Based on this observation, interaction strategies are defined simply as the cognitive and interactional means used in the joint construction of meaning in spoken interaction in order to enhance communication by maintaining and developing the discourse. Learners may consciously use alternative ways of expressing intended meanings, or purposefully buy processing time by using a memorized phrase. They might even consciously insert an English response token (Gardner, 2001) to express that they are following their interlocutor despite his/her lack of linguistic resources. Equally, at other times, they may use the very same strategies, but unconsciously. The study does not try to differentiate between these alternatives.

Figure 1 illustrates the various factors which could possibly impact on a learner's use of interaction strategies. There might be an interplay between context, learner traits and strategies. Contextual factors possibly affecting the use of strategies are the interlocutor, the task, the classroom and the teacher. Learners might shape the use of interaction strategies by their individual multilingual repertoire consisting of diverse linguistic and strategic competencies, their proficiency and their motivation. Within this complex system, it is believed that an individually-tailored approach to teaching interaction strategies is most promising. From a sociocultural stance, this study asserts that 'assessment should focus on what learners can do with assistance at the present moment rather than what they are capable of independently', (Ellis, 2008, p.532), and that teacher feedback which builds on this will ultimately support learners within their zone of proximal development.

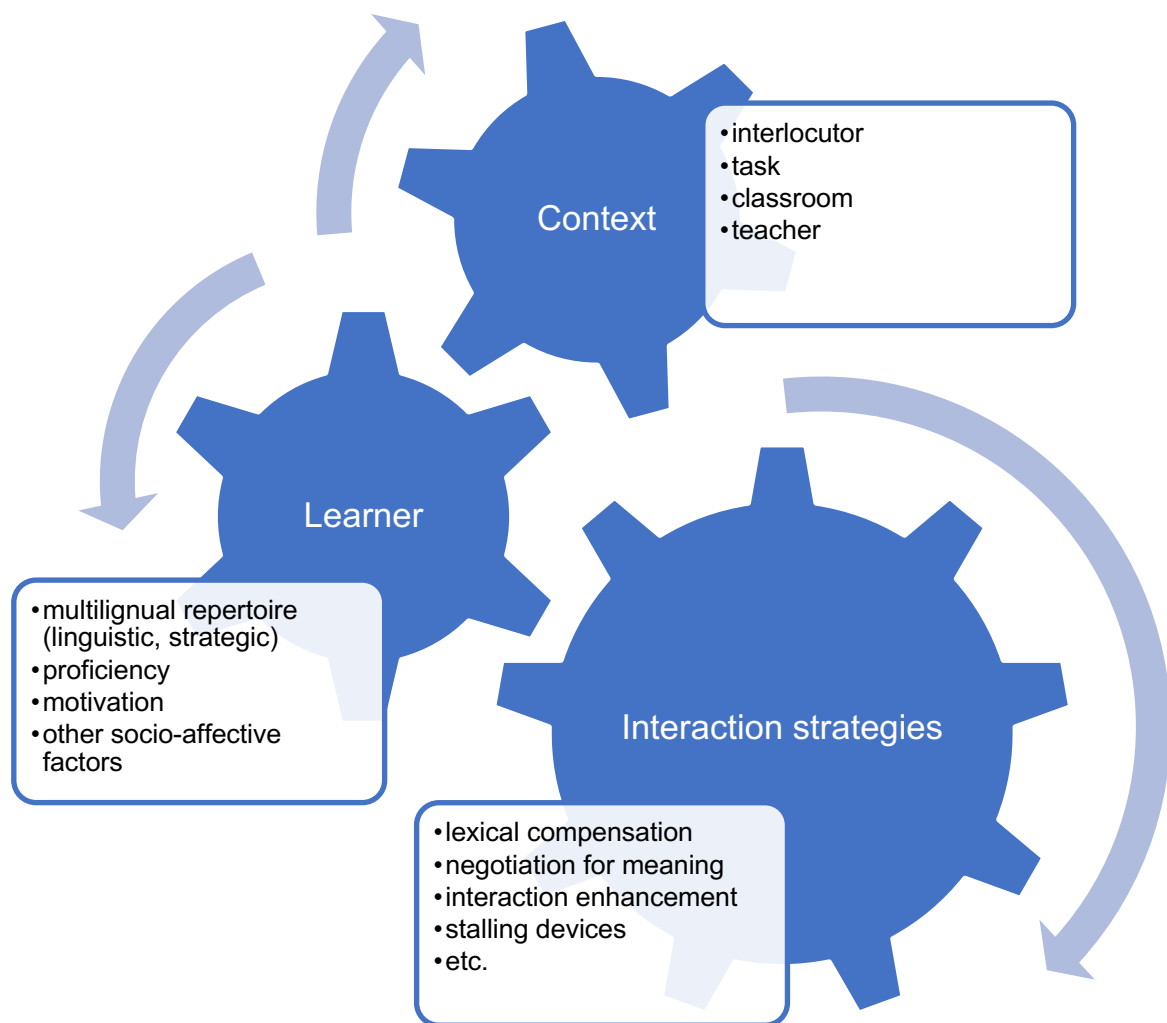


Figure 1: Factors affecting the use of interaction strategies

To investigate whether teacher feedback does indeed have an effect, two main perspectives might be adopted. First, the aim could be to find some general principles of how instruction affects learner-learner interaction. Second, alternatively the very idea that such general principles do indeed exist could be refuted. Instead, it could be claimed that the effect of an intervention will always depend on the interaction of the individual learner with her/his environment. The main aim would then be to investigate what effect the intervention has had in that specific situation. The first would be rooted in a rather positivist research paradigm, and would probably involve some quantitative approaches to the investigation whereas the second would rather depart from a constructivist's perspective and take a qualitative form (Richards, 2003, p.36). Nevertheless, Richards et al. (2012, p.23f) state that

'the modern quantitative approach is (...) largely **probabilistic** and **post-positivist**, and seeks mainly to test claims of relation and causation against representative samples from the real world – and strives to be critically aware that research is undertaken in a social world with agendas, motives and incentives which can inject bias into the research enterprise'.

The dividing line between different research paradigms and traditions is not as clear-cut as it may seem at first sight. Many researchers nowadays 'combine elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration' (Johnson et al. 2007, p. 123 in Richards et al., 2012, p.303). As a starting point, this study adopted a constructivist view in that it focused on a few learners only in a real classroom setting and did not try to use a representative sample.

Interactions in real classrooms are shaped by many different factors and have been studied from various angles (Kim, 2015). Bowles and Adams (2015) maintain that qualitative research might be better suited for uncovering the various facets of a task in action. In addition, the intervention was a novel experience for both the learners and the teachers, and took place in the classroom setting. Thus, the nature of the study was exploratory, and called for a design that would be able to shed light on such a complex phenomenon. The basic approach therefore was qualitative and tried to explain the phenomenon under investigation from an emic perspective. A microgenetic analysis was used, i.e. an examination of 'how the participants approach an activity, what roles they assume, and the level of involvement and contribution of each participant', (Ellis, 2008, p.522). At the same time, it was of importance to observe the frequency with which learners were using the strategies both before and after the intervention, which called for an outsider's perspective using quantitative measures. To cast light on the different aspects of the phenomenon covered, this study therefore mixed methods (Creswell and Clark, 2010; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). The purpose for mixing methods here is mainly a 'complementary' one (Riazi and Candlin, 2014), and by doing so the study aims at uncovering the organic and complex nature of task-based episodes (Norris, 2011, p.588). However, the quantitative data mainly informed the qualitative data and simply followed from the qualitative analysis. In sum, the study used an exploratory mixed methods design (Creswell and Clark, 2010).

If the development of competences – including strategic competences – is seen as cumulative, tracking task performance on just two or three examples does not suffice. Multiple iterations of tasks must be used, and a longitudinal design becomes inevitable (Norris, 2011, p.588). Besides, single task repetition may not be adequate for studying the efficacy of a treatment (Newton, 2016, p.277). Macaro (2010) also called for longitudinal studies, and the inclusion of more information about the setting, the task and the learners to better see the relationship between strategic behaviour and language learning success. Therefore, a longer time-span than is often found in similar studies was considered. To investigate the 'effects of instruction longitudinally', Ortega and Ibarra-Shea (2005, p.33) suggest using a time-series design. In a time-series design, several waves of observation both before and after the treatment are carried out. A time-

series design, however, is most useful for 'examining change in an entire system' (Creswell, 2012, p.314) but not necessarily for investigating individuals. Very similar to a time-series design, but focusing on the development of individuals rather than a group as a whole, is a single-subject multiple-baseline design (Lodico et al., 2010). In this design, each participant receives an experimental treatment at a different time. It is often chosen when the treatment cannot be reversed, as when strategies are being taught. For this study, that means that every dyad was recorded several times before every learner received feedback from the teacher only once, and afterwards they were recorded several times again.

Some aspects of this design qualify it as a supplement to a qualitative longitudinal investigation. First, individuals need not be assigned randomly because they are tested several times before the intervention and thus serve as their own control. This is a major benefit if one wants to work with learners in intact classes. Second, although Morse (2010, p.348) maintains that it invalidates the quantitative part of a mixed methods project to use the qualitative sample, this objection seems not to be valid here. With a single-subject design, valid conclusions can be drawn from even a relatively small number of participants. Also, spreading the treatment over some time, i.e. providing feedback to individual learners only once but at different points in time for each dyad, most probably reflects the way a teacher would give personally-tailored instruction. With current class sizes of over twenty learners, teachers cannot normally provide individual feedback to every learner at once. Finally, individuals are observed at multiple points in time, which reduces the Hawthorne effect (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p.187f) for both the qualitative part of the investigation and the quantitative one.

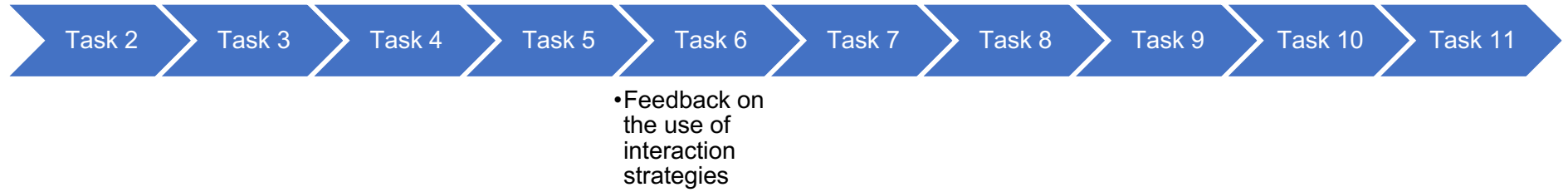
Possible threats to validity in a single-subject multiple-baseline design are "history" and "participant attrition" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.53f). Learners are introduced to interaction strategies during their normal English lessons. They might perform differently even though the treatment had not taken place yet. Still, if there are enough measurements, the effects of such an event might be controlled for (Dörnyei, 2007, p.54). Attrition might be more problematic. Participants may drop out because they change school or are not willing to participate in the study any more. With this in mind, enough participants were chosen for the proposed study so that drop-outs could be replaced. In any case, the study stretched over a single school year, and as was expected there were no dropouts.

Considering all the above, this thesis addressed the following three research questions:

- 1) What interaction strategies do low-level learners use?
 - a. Which strategies do they use?
 - b. Which are the preferred strategies?
 - c. Do all learners use the same strategies?
 - d. Does the use of strategies change over time?
- 2) What is the relationship between the use of interaction strategies and language proficiency?
 - a. Is there a relation between the use of specific interaction strategies and language proficiency?
 - b. Do learners who are using more fluent and more complex language use different strategies from learners at lower fluency- and complexity-levels?
- 3) How does teacher feedback on interaction strategies impact learners' immediate and long-term use of interaction strategies?
 - a. Does the use of strategies change immediately after the instruction?
 - b. Do these changes last or do learners revert to their initial use of interaction strategies?
 - c. Does teacher feedback on interaction strategies have any immediate or longer-term effect on learners' speaking proficiency?

In sum, the study used an exploratory mixed methods approach (Creswell and Clark, 2010), was longitudinal (11 months) and quasi-experimental, i.e. it involved eight dyads from intact lower secondary classes, and data were collected at various time points before and after the feedback. The feedback was provided to individual learners once only, at several different points in time for every dyad. For example, as can be seen in Figure 2, in between task 5 and 6, the researcher and the teacher watched the performance of task 5 by dyad 2CD and prepared feedback for this dyad. Before 2CD fulfilled task 6, the teacher provided the feedback. Dyad 2EF got their feedback before attempting task 7. The first recording (task 1) served the sole purpose of giving learners the chance to become accustomed to the presence of the researcher and the camera, and is therefore not indicated in Figure 2. Each feedback concerned different strategies, so that various strategies for each dyad were examined by the researcher, thus resulting in a single-subject multiple-baseline design (Lodico et al., 2010). This design permitted teachers to focus on individual learners at different times and allowed data collection according to a single-subject baseline design. An overview of all three research questions with proposed methods of data collection is in Appendix 3, and the complete data collection schedule can be found in Appendix 4.

2CD



2EF

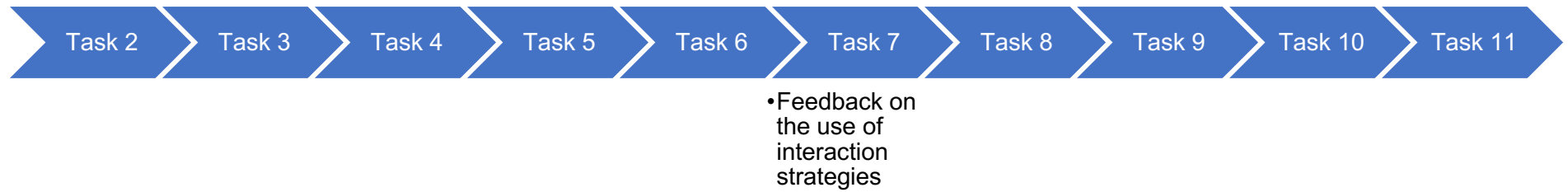


Figure 2: Single-subject multiple-baseline design

3.2 Participants

Participants were selected based on the choice by the teachers who would collaborate with the researcher. An email was sent to a random sample of around twenty known to the researcher in her role as a teacher trainer. The email informed them that a project was planned which would focus on the development of spoken interaction and the effect of teacher feedback. Seven expressed their interest in the project. To finally have a balanced variety of data ('maximum variation sampling' (Lodico et al., 2010)), i.e. from learners with a variety of language backgrounds, gender, prior knowledge of English and language proficiency, one female teacher in a suburban setting, teaching a higher-level class, and one male teacher in a rural area teaching a lower-level class were chosen. What further distinguished the two was that despite both being experienced and working as supervisory teachers of English at the training college, the female one regularly participated in further development courses for English, whereas the male focused more on training in music teaching. Neither had previous specialist knowledge of interaction strategies, but both were convinced of the importance of teaching speaking, and were therefore willing to participate. This selection procedure meant that data would be gathered in two different state lower secondary classrooms in two distinct settings. Additionally, this permitted working with two different teachers, one with quite close links to the training college English department, and another less familiar with recent developments. Both, however, had undergone the 50-hours compulsory training for all foreign language teachers who were about to implement the new competency-based curriculum.

Of all the learners and their caretakers permitting data collection, in each class, the data from eight learners with the least missing data was chosen for analysis. This resulted in only three female and 13 male participants. Pseudonyms were used for all participants. The pairing of the learners for the interactions was left to the teachers' usual practice, as it was the intention not to change classroom routine. Pairs did stay the same throughout the whole study to observe each pair's development, which might be unusual for a lower secondary classroom, but because this pairing was only used once a month and teachers do normally change pairings, these learners probably still had enough possibilities for working with other learners.

Learners were about 13 years old. At the beginning of the project, they had been studying English as their second foreign language at school for two years. In foreign language lessons, teachers mostly used the target language, whereas in other subjects standard German – so-called school language – was used. In informal settings, however, teachers and learners mostly used Swiss – a German dialect. Many participants also

spoke other languages at home. Learners were taught English for three 45-minute lessons per week. The following table provides an overview of learners' gender and language background.

Learner ¹	Sex	Language background
1C	M	speaks Italian with both parents, German with brother, Italian with little sister
1D	F	speaks Tamil and German at home, watches YouTube videos in English
1E	F	speaks Albanian at home
1F	F	speaks Italian with one parent at home, German with the other
1G	M	speaks German at home
1H	M	speaks German at home, sometimes for fun English or French, aunt speaks Italian with his cousins
1I	M	speaks German at home
1J	M	speaks German at home, often goes to the French-speaking part of Switzerland for holidays
2A	M	speaks Kurdish, on the phone Arabic, started learning German in 2012
2B	M	speaks German at home, until 2014 he spoke Tajik at school and studied Russian and English there
2C	M	speaks German to his mother and Dutch to his father
2D	M	speaks German at home
2E	M	speaks High German to his mother. His father speaks English to him, but he always answers in German as he hates English.
2F	M	speaks Italian at home
2I	M	speaks German at home
2J	M	speaks German at home, his grandmother and his father's cousin speak Czech to him; he can understand but does not speak it

Table 2: Learners' gender and language background

¹ number = class, letter = learner ID

Both classes worked with the official course materials. New World 3, version E (Fischer et al., 2015a) (higher level) was used in class 1 and version G (Fischer et al., 2015b) (basic level) in class two. The course materials follow a task-based syllabus with a focus on content-learning. They include written and recorded authentic and semi-authentic texts with related pair and group tasks and some explicit vocabulary and grammar features. Speaking activities often serve the purpose of discussing new content, rather than simply practising speaking as a skill. The topics covered during the school year of data collection, were 'Tourists in Scotland', 'Non-verbal communication', 'Culture gaps', 'Big cities', and 'Explorers'.

The course materials consisted of two parts: the coursebook and the accompanying booklet 'My Resources', which offers some classroom phrases such as 'Asking for something' or 'Conversation fillers' (Fischer et al., 2015b, 2015a). For this, the authors present a collection of phrases which learners can use during pair or group work. The book suggests that learners look at this list before they start a group project or prepare a presentation. Furthermore, learners are reminded to learn these expressions by heart so that they can 'react fast' in interactions (My Resources, Fischer et al., 2015a, p.3). The phrases of interest to this study are on page 9 in My Resources. They cover the following topics: 'Express your opinion', 'Exclamations' and 'Conversation fillers'. On the left, useful English expressions are listed, and German equivalents are provided on the right. Learners are also given a collection of strategies; however, speaking strategies are limited to the following two: 'prepare sentences' and 'use sample sentences and phrases when speaking'. Actual interaction strategies are missing.

3.3 Ethical concerns

Before the start of the project, the researcher contacted the head of school and discussed the details of data collection and ethics. The main ethical challenge was the fact that informants were school children (aged 13-16) and that they were being investigated by making recordings, a method which is often used for assessment purposes. Learners and their parents might have felt pressured to take part in the project for fear of bad marks. Both learners and parents were therefore informed about the aim of the project, and they were offered the chance to ask questions. Learners also could withdraw from the research process without having to fear any negative consequences. The consent forms were signed by learners' caretakers (cf. Appendix 5). As the learners only attended the teachers' secondary classes after the start of the school year, it was decided that the two teachers would pass on the consent forms to their colleagues at primary. Teachers' colleagues would hand out and collect the consent forms as this was the usual procedure at the school for any such project. Because of the relatively small

sample, the researcher finally had very detailed information on individual learners. As soon as data was collected, learners' identity was therefore hidden by replacing real names with fictitious ones. In all publications, examples were chosen in such a way that people who knew the class could not identify the learners. Furthermore, all electronic data was stored password-protected and any other data kept in a locked cabinet. To ensure non-participants were not disadvantaged, all learners – including non-participants – benefitted from individually-tailored feedback. Another potentially problematic aspect of the design was that withholding the treatment from some participants for an extended period might be unethical (Creswell, 2012, p.318). However, even under non-research circumstances, teachers would not be able to give feedback to every learner at once. It is therefore assumed that the research design did not disadvantage learners more than normal teaching would. The two teachers were involved in the data collection and analysis process, but this was restricted to formative assessment and providing feedback to the learners. Additionally, teachers were only informed of anonymized results of learners' overall proficiency, to ensure no information gained from the research project could have negative effects on the learners' end of semester marks.

3.4 Intervention

The list of expressions in 'My Resources' mentioned above was adapted to include a wider range of interaction strategies and to establish clearer links between a specific situation which might occur during speaking (e.g. not knowing a word) and a possible strategy for tackling this problem (e.g. Asking the partner for help) with the appropriate phrase for implementing the strategy (e.g. What's ... in English?). As an earlier investigation showed (Reber, 2005), learners' main communication problems seem to be their lack of lexical knowledge and how they can mutually overcome this. Therefore, not only the 'social behaviors for negotiating meaning during interaction', (Goh and Burns, 2012, p.66) but also cognitive strategies, the techniques used 'to compensate for gaps in lexical knowledge and related linguistic problems', (ibid., p. 66) were listed. Metacognitive strategies were ignored as they would have to be addressed and observed differently. A provisional list of strategies and corresponding expressions was first discussed with the two teachers and then revised twice. Finally, the list was created in such a way that it could be photocopied and could replace page 9 in the existing booklet (cf. Figure 3 and Appendix 6). This list was given to the learners at the beginning of the school year, but they were only referred to it when they were given feedback. Otherwise, it was left to the learners whether they wanted to use this list during their interactions.

The two teachers were trained by the researcher on how to use this list for giving individually tailored feedback. At the first meeting the concept of interaction strategies was explained, and illustrated with examples of learner interactions and teacher feedback from the trial. Involving them in compiling the list for the learners reinforced their understanding of what potential interaction strategies might be. At a later meeting, two recordings from the pre-intervention phase were used – one from each class. They listened to the recordings and individually noted two strategies these learners used well, and two they might consider using more often in future. The suggested feedback, and some more general aspects of the way these learners interacted, were then discussed. It was also pointed out that feedback should be based on specific examples to help learners better understand the function of interaction strategies, and if needed also provide the necessary language, e.g. lexical chunks for use as stalling devices. The discussions took much time, but showed clearly that both were really engaged, and truly interested in supporting their learners. The teacher with a strong background in English soon showed a thorough understanding of interactional features, and noted very interesting aspects, such as the compensatory use of gestures and mime to establish intersubjectivity, or the importance of alignment moves. The other displayed a keen interest in feedback per se, but otherwise paid more attention to surface features, such as the many hesitation markers or grammatical mistakes.

2) Zeit zum Überlegen oder Formulieren gewinnen

a) einzelne Füllwörter verwenden

Hmm ...	Hmm ...
Um ...	Ehm ...
Well ...	Na ja ... / Nun ... / Also ...
Well, actually ...	Also, eigentlich ...
Right ...	Also ...
I see ...	Na gut ... / Verstehe ...

b) ganze Chunks verwenden

Let me see ...	Moment ... / Also ...
Let me think ...	Moment ... / Also ...
... you know weisst du ...
How can I say?	Wie kann ich das sagen?
Err, just a second.	Ehm, eine Sekunde / Ehm, einen Moment.
Hang on (a second).	Warte (eine Sekunde).
Give me a second, please.	Eine Sekunde.

Figure 3: Photocopiable list of interaction strategies and possible expressions with school language equivalents

The feedback was spread over four months with every pair of learners receiving it at different points in time (cf. Appendix 4). The respective class teacher watched a pair's recorded interaction intensively and completed a feedback sheet (cf. Appendix 7) for these two learners indicating which interaction strategies they should continue using and which new strategies they might consider using in the future. She/he also provided the accompanying linguistic phrases. For preparing the feedback, teachers used an abbreviated version of the learners' list (cf. Appendix 2). The researcher listened to the recordings too, and handed her feedback to the teachers. It was left to the teachers whether they wanted to make use of this, as teachers may benefit from an established rapport with learners and a greater understanding of their needs. The feedback sessions were conducted in the school language or dialect which permitted the provision of more detailed feedback. Before the next task-based interaction was recorded, the pair of learners met with the teacher, and the teacher explained the notes on the feedback sheet to the learners, as a teacher would normally do when giving feedback. This short instructional sequence was also audio-recorded but not transcribed and a copy of the feedback sheet collected for later analysis and reference (cf. Appendix 8).

3.5 Data collection

3.5.1 Pre- and post-testing

Video-recordings of learners' task performance served as main evidence of their task-based interaction. For ecological validity purposes (Wegener and Blankenship, 2007), and because the focus of the study is on the interaction in a Swiss classroom environment, the recordings were made in a real classroom rather than a laboratory setting (for a discussion of the classroom versus laboratory setting see section 2.3.5). During a single school year, learners were video-recorded monthly while carrying out a communicative task in pairs. In the course of the school year, every pair was interviewed three times while watching their task performance. To test the research protocol for the interview, the timing and technical issues, a trial was carried out in a comparable classroom (cf. conclusions drawn from trial in Appendix 9). The following will explain the video-recordings and video-stimulated interviews in more detail.

3.5.1.1 Video-recordings

As beginners sometimes compensate for their lack of knowledge with the use of gestures or mime, data had to also capture non-verbal information. In addition, identifying strategies such as implicitly asking for assistance, i.e. when learners indicate through their kinetic behaviour whether they are appealing to their interlocutor for help,

required an elaborate analysis based on detailed data. Therefore, video-recordings rather than audio recordings or mere lesson observation – a relatively ‘closed’ technique (Allwright and Bailey, 1991, p.4) – were used. In each class, 8 pairs of learners were recorded at 11 points in time. The first recording was discarded, as it only served the purpose of learners getting to know the researcher and the research tools. Of all the other recordings, one pair missed two sessions, and one missed one session, which totalled in 77 recordings of 3 to 20 minutes, a total of 11.5 hours of video.

To make the observations before and after the intervention comparable, the tasks used for generating the interactions needed to be comparable too. However, using tasks which were too similar might have resulted in practice effects and diminished interest and thus jeopardised the validity of the data (cf. Ortega and Ibarra-Shea, 2005, p.39f). All the same, some practice effect is part of any teaching programme. Learners do complete various similar language learning tasks in the normal course of their studies. Besides, to ensure ecological validity, tasks had to be similar in structure and content to what is normally required by learners in this context (Wegener and Blankenship, 2007). Therefore, various test tasks from lingualevel (Lenz and Studer, 2008) – a test instrument developed in Switzerland – were chosen, and adapted to resemble the coursebook tasks. Some of these were tested in a trial (cf. Appendix 9.4). The criteria for adapting the tasks were chosen in such a way that they might offer learners equal opportunities to use interaction strategies. The resulting tasks (Appendix 10) considered the following criteria:

- 1) Activities had to be ‘tasks’ in the sense that they permitted ‘language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome’ (Samuda and Bygate, 2008, p.69) and thus give learners the chance to use all available language resources and strategies.
- 2) Activities were all interactional tasks, i.e. there was always an interlocutor present and thus followed conversational rules which could put learners under time pressure (Poulisse and Schils, 1989).
- 3) Turn-taking and the organisation of the interaction were not controlled, so that learners could indeed make use of interaction strategies. Some lingualevel tasks contained suggestions on using specific interaction strategies (e.g. “Hör zu, was der andere sagt und reagiere darauf.” ((Listen to what your partner is saying and react to this)) (Lenz and Studer, 2008, p.MI_04_engl_A)). These were omitted in order not to influence learners into using or even overusing a specific strategy. However, rough indications on who should start the discussion, or implying that learners should first share their ideas and then reach consensus were not amended.

- 4) All tasks required learners to use narrative or collaborative discourse rather than description or expository discourse.
- 5) Topics had to be familiar to the learners, as task familiarity can impact on the interaction (e.g. Mackey et al., 2007) and learners needed to have the possibility for drawing on context (Poulisse and Schils, 1989), whether it was because they had talked about the topics in class or because they were of relevance to teenagers, and in their two years of English tuition they must have covered them in some way (e.g. homework, hobbies). Added to that, all of them should be of a subjective rather than objective nature to permit integration into the normal teaching routine and lower the demands on attention and working memory (Robinson, 2001). Some lingualevel tasks were therefore adapted content-wise.
- 6) Tasks should be suitable for the required level of competence as indicated by lingualevel because over- or under-challenged learners might not be able to make use of strategies. Chosen tasks could be used for levels A2.1/A2.2 – B1.1/B1.2. Tasks 7 and 10 were indicated as suitable for levels B1.1 – B1.2. However, with task 7 learners could talk about the here-and-now (classroom) and task 10 was adapted content-wise to match with the coursebook topic. It was therefore assumed that they should not be too demanding.
- 7) All tasks were similar in task type (Willis and Willis, 2008). Most tasks consisted of listing or sharing personal experience with subsequent comparing or ordering, sorting or problem-solving. Task 5 only required sharing personal experiences, task 6 only problem-solving.
- 8) All tasks used similar key features in order to generate similar amounts of negotiation for meaning (Ellis, 2003, p.96; Bowles and Adams, 2015). Learners mostly started the interaction with a one-way information exchange of what had been prepared. All the tasks but 5 and 11 required learners to reach some agreement, which necessitated two-way information exchanges. Tasks 5 and 11 only required one-way information exchange; no consensus had to be reached, but learners had to ask the partner for specific information, and they had to justify their views. The outcome was always open, i.e. there was no 'predetermined solution' to the task.
- 9) All the tasks provided learners with approximately 10 minutes of individual preparation time, which made them less complex in a resource-depleting way (Robinson, 2001). During this time, learners were not allowed to talk to their partner, but they could use 'My Resources' to look up words or strategies. The cognitive complexity of the tasks was very similar, as learners always had to communicate rather detailed information, and apart from task 11, the

amount of shared reference was high as the topics were familiar to both learners.

- 10) Tasks were of equal resource-directing complexity (Robinson, 2001). All tasks required learners to justify their views (reasoning). Because of the open outcome, learners could choose how many elements they wanted to talk about, another resource-directing characteristic. Additionally, all but the last task asked learners to talk about things in the here and now.
- 11) Tasks were of equal resource-depleting complexity (Robinson, 2001): All tasks were very similar in that learners always had preparation time and could draw on prior knowledge. Most tasks consisted of two steps: first listing then sorting and ordering or comparing.
- 12) Task instructions were written in such a way that they could be understood by the learners without further explanations. Instructions were therefore written in German and instructions as given by lingualevel shortened as the teachers felt was appropriate for their learners.

While completing the tasks, learners were recorded using Canon Legria mini X camcorders, which are often used by YouTubers. These recorders permitted use of a wide zoom function. The device itself was small, and could be placed on the desk, close to the learners and still would catch an image of the two learners talking to each other. To also record how learners started and finished their conversations, the cameras were turned on as soon as they started preparing for the interaction.

3.5.1.2 Video-stimulated recall interviews

Video-recordings of learners' interactions were complemented by stimulated recall interviews. Identifying specific features of interaction without the interlocutor's interpretation of an utterance (Foster and Ohta, 2005, p.425f) can at times be difficult. A method which is building on how participants themselves see the data and at the same time helps them to avoid simplistic interpretation is "stimulated recall" (Gass and Mackey, 2000). In a retrospective or stimulated recall interview, learners are prompted by a stimulus to recall and verbalise their thought processes during task performance. Stimulated recall integrates learners' perspectives in order to uncover cognitive processes which are not evident through simple observation. As only some strategies may be associated with observable behaviour (Chamot, 2005), stimulated recall interviews were used in an attempt to tap learners' strategic thought processes. Therefore, as previous studies on strategy use had done (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.23; Mackey, 2002, 2012, p.13), the observation of learners' behavioural learning outcomes, i.e. the proceduralised strategy use as evidenced in the interactions, was complemented

by learners' comments. Using stimulated recalls alongside video recordings could thus increase reliability and richness of data and add to 'interpretive validity' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.58).

Results obtained from both the viewpoint of the researcher (analysis of interactions) and the learners (analysis of recall interviews) could then be compared. Some claim that such triangulation might undermine the first rigorous analysis, simply because the object of study may indeed be different when seen from various viewpoints, as it is based on different social realities (Silverman, 2006, p.291f). Stimulated recall exhibits participants' understanding and orientation, whereas the interaction is a display of participants' understanding and orientation (Pomerantz, 2005). Burch (2014), for example, argues that CA permits observation of interactants' plans in their interactions, and cautions that even retrospective recall interviews may only be attempts at explaining what happened during the interaction. He therefore advocates taking a purely Conversation Analysis perspective and exploring communication strategies from what participants display in their interaction, rather than relying on psycholinguistic constructs. Pomerantz (2005) also raises issues of validity and cautions that investigators 'should consider at the very least how, and possibly why, the reported matter became a reportable matter' during the recall (Pomerantz, 2005, p.102) and notes that thoughts which occurred during the interaction might not be available for reporting after the interaction.

Still, when used with the necessary care, video-stimulated recalls might have some benefits.

'Participants' comments may serve as suggestions of places in the interaction for close investigation; they may help us to understand the bases of puzzling patterns of interactive conduct; they may serve as correctives of inferences we may be making about the apparent aims, concerns, or understandings of the participants; they may serve as confirmatory evidence for claims about the functions of features of discourse; and they may lead us to investigate possible instances of conduct standing in place of possibly withheld actions' (ibid., p. 112).

Therefore, to avoid the danger of over-interpreting data collected in the stimulated recall interviews, these only served as secondary data, whereas the main data were the recordings of the task performance, and thus what participants displayed in their interactions. In the first place, the interviews served the purpose of clarifying passages in the recordings which were unclear to the researcher, and second, to identify instances of reported strategy use.

The quality and richness of data gathered with stimulated recall interviews relies to a great extent on participants' skills. Young teenagers might not be well aware of the thought processes and strategies used during the interaction and could therefore not be able to pause the video at appropriate places nor add any useful comments. Some processes might be unconscious or complex, and therefore very difficult to access (Gass

and Mackey, 2000, p.111). Still, previous use of stimulated recall in the context of Swiss state schools showed that many learners were indeed able to contribute to the richness of data (Reber, 2005, 2010). Similarly, Lam (2010a) found low-level learners of a similar age could reflect on their use of strategies in the stimulated recall interview. Besides, it was believed that using the video-recording would be a strong and contextually rich stimulus (Dörnyei, 2007, p.149; Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.54) and thus further support learners in their recall.

The time lapse between the task performance and the stimulated recall also had to be considered, as this can be crucial for the quality and quantity of what learners can contribute. The time lapse between task performance and its verbal report should be as short as possible – no more than 24 hours (Dörnyei, 2007, p.149) – as otherwise learners might not be able to access the content of their memory but will rather just hypothesise on their thought processes. In the first instance, class 2 learners did their task in the morning and the recall after a lesson of French in the afternoon. They seemed not to have recalled the finer details of their conversations. It was therefore agreed that as soon as possible, one recall was conducted right after the task performance (cf. Appendix 4 for the exact schedule).

To further support learners in recalling their thought processes, the researcher also stopped the video at places which seemed of importance. However, this prompting was done with care, because the more a researcher prompts the learners, the greater the danger of researcher interference. A precise research protocol tested in the trial gave an idea of how much structure should be involved in the interview (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p.79) and how participants should be helped to stay focused on their thought processes during task performance (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.92) (Appendix 11). Additionally, learners were interviewed with their interaction partner. This, of course, might have distorted some of the answers, as one learner might be more dominant and the other simply confirm his/her partner's ideas. On the other hand, being together with a peer can lower anxiety. If during the recall inequality seemed problematic, the interviewer prompted an individual learner. Last, to ensure the foreign language was no obstacle for the learners, they were allowed to use the school language or dialect during the recall interview (Dörnyei, 2007, p.150).

The 'articulation of thoughts can easily (...) mediate development' (ibid., p. 151) and therefore learners watching the video and articulating their thoughts might at that point enhance their learning and thus 'practice effect' would distort the data (ibid., p. 53). A data collection plan therefore also included information as to when which pair should be interviewed. The first recall was conducted before the intervention so that all pairs had equal practice effects before the intervention and all the learners were interviewed three times. To avoid "social desirability bias" (ibid., p. 54), the second recall was not

undertaken right after feedback was provided, but some time later. In addition, the researcher rather than the teacher conducted the recall interviews. Even though learners might find talking to the teacher less threatening than talking to a stranger, they were probably more open towards a stranger in other ways. This became evident in some interviews when learners started complaining about English lessons. After some time, learners did no longer perceive the researcher as a complete stranger. Another benefit of the researcher doing the recall was the lowered intrusiveness for the rest of the class, as the teacher could continue the lesson, and the researcher simply take out two learners for the interview.

3.5.2 *Field notes data*

Throughout the data collection process, the researcher kept a research diary where any additional possibly relevant information, such as discussion points with the teachers, difficulties arising during recordings, or information on special circumstances, was noted. This was to ensure that the final description of the investigation was as thick as possible and could be transferred to other contexts more easily (Richards et al., 2012, p.331). Accounts from the teachers were also collected (e.g. emails, oral comments made during meetings) as were some observations made while recording the learners.

3.6 Data processing methods

For the present study, the same “language data” (Dörnyei, 2007, p.19) for both the qualitative and the subsequent quantitative analysis was used: video-recorded interactions. Recordings of task-based interactions were imported to EXMARaLDA (Schmidt and Wörner, 2009) and transcribed following GAT2 conventions for a basic transcript (Selting et al., 2011) but also included information on prosody (cf. Appendix 12). The choice of GAT2 transcription conventions allowed the investigation of micro-level interactional features. To avoid an unmanageable mass of data, non-verbal features of the interaction were only transcribed when audio-data was not sufficiently clear or when they replaced verbal behaviour. Because of time constraints, transcription first focused on those interactions which were used for subsequent feedback, plus a random sample of other interactions. Once data collection was finished, all the remaining interactions were transcribed. Subsequently, interview data were watched and passages referring to the use or non-use of interaction strategies transcribed and inserted into the transcript of the interaction. For this data, a simplified version of minimal GAT2 transcript (Selting et al., 2011) – excluding overlaps and pauses – was considered to have a sufficient level of granularity.

In the interview, learners sometimes clarified specific passages of the task-based interaction, which permitted reconsideration of the initial transcript. For example, the learners explained some names of computer games they had used, or they clarified passages containing foreignized German. Transcripts of the task-based interactions were further validated by other people listening to the recordings and inspecting the transcripts. Each teacher, for example, double-checked one of the recordings they had already watched in detail to give feedback to the learners, and one recording of learners from the other teacher's class. In total, 9 out of 87 transcripts were double-checked.

3.7 Data analysis

3.7.1 Developing codes

Video-recordings were analysed using an applied conversation analysis method (ten Have, 2007). The overall approach was inductive in that categories for interaction strategies emerged from the data. In line with CA methodology, a turn-by-turn qualitative analysis was carried out to examine low-level learners' turn-taking organization, sequence organization, repair organization and turn design (ibid.), i.e. to find the interactions' underlying 'rules' with which learners construct and design their turns in view of interacting with limited linguistic resources (ibid., p. 150). As the interactions took place in an institutional setting, forms of asymmetry were also considered (Heritage, 2004). However, the analysis also drew on existing categories from the literature, such as cognitive and interactional strategies listed by Goh and Burns (2012, p.66). Based on this, provisional coding (Saldaña, 2013, p.144) was applied and a provisional list of codes created before starting the investigation. Thus, the analysis was neither purely data-driven nor concept-driven but rather, as Gibbs states, combined both 'sources of inspiration' (2007, p.46): data and literature. As Richards (2003, p.271) points out, analysis is usually not a linear process, but any categorisation is highly interconnected with all the other elements of a research study.

The danger with any provisional codes is that a researcher's preconceptions may distort an objective view of 'what is really happening there' (Saldaña, 2013, p.146) and divergent ideas or cases might be overlooked. It was therefore essential that every time interactants seemed to be using a specific predefined strategy, this was analysed in the context of the sequence in which it occurred and not only by considering lexical choice. Words such as 'okay' for example, could be found at different places in a sequence and thus have different functions. Besides, what is traditionally called the C's (comprehension check, confirmation check, clarification request) are often limited to their form but not the

function they serve in the interaction (Foster and Ohta, 2005) and they are therefore difficult to apply in practice.

‘Rather than indicating a communication problem, they may in fact be performing some other discourse function, such as expressing agreement or encouragement to continue’ (ibid., p. 411).

These authors therefore suggest that utterances in the form of confirmation checks or clarification checks should first be analysed closely in context to see how the interactants themselves view them; whether they perceive them as devices to sort out trouble, or if they are using them for some other purpose, mainly to help and encourage the peer.

Instances when the participants themselves addressed ‘the talk as revealing a misunderstanding in need of repair’ (Schegloff, 2009, p.204), were focused on, i.e. when at least one of the learners signalled mis- or non-understanding, or they displayed some perturbation in the production by using lengthy filled or unfilled pauses (Wagner and Firth, 1997), or a noticeable effort was detected in attempts to produce language and mutual understanding. This also included the presence of school-language based strategies and ‘paralinguistic and kinesic features both in lieu of and in support of linguistic inadequacy’, (Khanji, 1996, p.146).

Any qualitative data analysis runs the risk of being influenced by the researcher’s subjectivity (Cohen et al., 2011). Silverman (2006, pp.295–303) therefore suggests we use analytic induction (constant comparative method and deviant-case analysis), comprehensive data treatment, and appropriate tabulations to validate qualitative data analysis. Using the constant comparative method means that the analysis begins on a relatively small part of the data, and then the emerging hypotheses are tested on a steadily expanding dataset (Silverman, 2006, p.297). By so doing, deviant cases are sought out and addressed (ibid.). With the present data, this was achieved by constantly expanding and adapting the existing categories in EXMARaLDA’s annotation panel (Schmidt and Wörner, 2014). Whenever a deviant or unclear case was found, it was compared to earlier cases of the same category, and if necessary, a new category added. For this purpose, an XML file containing names, descriptions and examples of all the strategies was written. This file could continually be adapted and used in the annotation panel of EXMARaLDA.

Thus, an iterative-inductive process was used to fine-tune the coding scheme, and existing categories served as a template but remained flexible throughout the whole data analysis process. Once a major change had to be made, the corpus of already transcribed and annotated recordings was searched for similar cases. For this, EXMARaLDA’s corpus manager and analysis tool were used. For example, when it was decided to create a new sub-category to an existing category, the description in the annotation panel was adapted accordingly, and by doing a corpus search, all existing

annotations of that category were checked to see if any other instances also fell into the new sub-category. Despite regular cross-case analysis, the discrimination between strategies was sometimes difficult. Self-repetition or other-repetition, for example, can be used for various purposes and might even serve various purposes at the same time. Therefore, while developing codes and annotating strategies, checklists were written for difficult cases and any decisions taken while working on the data, and the decisions and examples added to the annotation panel. On the whole, the use of appropriate software (EXMARaLDA and its various tools) had ensured a high degree of precision and reliability. Whenever possible, the search function of EXMARaLDA was used in order not to miss any cases. Every transcript, for example, was checked for the occurrence of hesitation markers (e.g. *ts*, *eh*, *e'*), and specific lexical items such as 'really'.

Strategies such as 'feigning understanding' which required the speakers' retrospective comments for identification, were only annotated when they were mentioned in the recall interviews, but they were excluded from quantitative analysis. Similarly, strategies such as 'mumbling' or 'over-explicitness' were not included in any quantitative analysis, since it is difficult to define what is normal or 'over-explicit' in the given context. Next, closely related strategies were merged for the quantitative analysis, as during the annotation it became evident that distinguishing between them would necessitate very fine-grained and at times rather random decisions on how to differentiate between them. Any further considerations and decisions taken while identifying and grouping strategies can be found in Appendix 13.

With every transcript, the number of interaction strategies increased. At various points during the transcription process, the annotation panel was studied in detail and compared with existing taxonomies (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997; Lafford, 2004; Nakatani, 2006; Goh and Burns, 2012) to reduce the number of strategies, re-categorise, or form main categories and sub-groups. For example, at some point, it was found that the way interlocutors responded within a negotiation move should also be considered. So far, only the initiation of negotiation had been included. Thus, the category 'response' (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997) with sub-categories as identified by Lafford (2004) were added. After analysing approximately 50% of all the data, the codes seemed saturated (Saldaña, 2013).

To further validate the codes, the analysis as described above was complemented by "data sessions" (ten Have, 2007) with the two teachers and a teacher trainer colleague. At these meetings, understandings were shared and critically discussed. In preparation for these meetings, unclear codes were flagged, and respective videos, transcripts and provisional codes prepared for discussion. At the meeting, teachers either individually watched some videos and then commented on them, or flagged cases were watched and discussed. Based on this, further decisions

concerning the codes were taken, which resulted in a coding manual and a final set of codes for interaction strategies (Appendices 14.1 and 14.2).

3.7.2 Validating analysis

To establish trustworthiness, data was triangulated with interview data. Additionally, the findings were corroborated through consultation with the two teachers, a teacher trainer colleague and a novice teacher. The following explains this in more detail.

3.7.2.1 Stimulated recall interviews

Whenever learners commented on how they overcame troubles in interaction, this was transcribed, and the comment added on an additional line to the respective transcript (cf. sample transcript of learner-learner interaction with stimulated recall interview data inserted in Appendix 15). This way, any analysis could draw on the transcript of the interaction itself but also check this with the comments learners themselves made about this sequence. The following shows an example of an instance which was first considered a self-repair where 2A replaces 'to' with 'for' (Extract 2). However, from the interview (2AB7SR), it became evident that the intended phrase would have been 'a computer to work for the school'. While speaking, 2A skipped the verb 'work' as he could not recall it.

064 a computer to eh (0.8) for the school.

Extract 2: 2AB7

Because of time constraints, it was not possible to conduct stimulated recall interviews for all the interactions; some similar incidents might have gone unnoticed. Other themes pertaining to the use of strategies to overcome knowledge gaps were also identified in the recall interviews. For example, the comment by a learner how much he/she loves or hates speaking English was associated with the topic of willingness to communicate. The stimulated recall interviews only served as secondary data, and therefore no intercoder or peer checking were administered.

3.7.2.2 Peer debriefings, intercoder and intracoder checks

At various points in the research process, annotations were discussed with outsiders. First, codes and annotated cases were double checked with the two teachers; based on this, the codes were developed further. One teacher subsequently coded four transcripts without knowing the researcher's annotations. The researcher then discussed some of the differences with the teacher and thus descriptions of the codes were again

developed further. The other teacher looked at the use of 'okay' and 'yes' in two of the transcripts of his learners and confirmed the various usages of these words.

It became evident that other-repetition, commonly used words such as 'okay' or 'yes' or gestures and mime which could all serve various purposes in the interactions were the most frequent source of differences. In Extract 3, for example, the two learners are talking about what they would like to have in their ideal classroom. In line 031, 1D uses the word 'write' shortly after 1C is using it. This can be considered a completion which was unnecessary because 1C just needed more time to retrieve the word himself, or it can also be considered a form of listener support token uttered by 1D to show that she is following. In this situation, it was decided to consider this a completion because it follows a clear sign of hesitation by 1C.

```
028 1D: and a desk;
029      of course;
030 1C: <<pp>yes> and the desk(0.4) because we can't (0.5)e:hwr[ite](0.3)on
the: bottom,
031 1D:                                     [write,]
032      (0.3)[((laughs))]
033 1C: [or si]t (0.6)the[re eh we]can't;
034 1D:                                     [yeah]
035      (1.1)and we need a sofa;
```

Extract 3: 1CD7

In line 034, the next difference in annotation was a word which can have various functions in speech. 'Yeah' can again be considered a means to provide listener support, or it can serve the purpose of gaining time or to show agreement or state that one wants to close this topic and move on to the next one or both. As 1C is still speaking but does not really have a next turn and 1D is using continuous intonation with her 'yeah', it is considered rather an expression of agreement and a signal that she wants to move on and add another thing she wants to have in the classroom. Besides, it can be seen in the video that just before she utters 'yeah' she looks at her paper, probably to check what she could say next.

This example illustrates two important issues concerning data analysis: first, during the process of annotation and cross-checking it was important to re-watch the video. In many obscure cases, it was the video which delivered the necessary information as to which category a specific passage belonged. Second, being familiar with the recordings was essential for taking the right decisions in due time. Disagreement in the annotation was, therefore, probably a question of not having the time to immerse oneself in the data for an extended period, rather than that the categories were not clear. This might also be one of the reasons why inter-rater agreement was higher with the teacher than the teacher trainer colleague or the novice teacher, who were neither familiar with the tasks nor the learners. Deciding on the form of a strategy (repetition, language used, hesitation markers) was very simple, as was identifying instances when

learners made the trouble source visible by asking for help explicitly. However, the subtle strategies which are used in highly co-constructed talk were much more difficult to pinpoint, and deciding on a specific function of a widely used lexical item such as 'yeah' or 'okay', was much more challenging and required a high degree of familiarity with the data.

In preparation for intercoder checks, 14 annotated transcripts were discussed, but it soon became evident that the qualitative analysis had resulted in a more varied and more complex understanding of the use of interaction strategies than anticipated. This might be due to the fact that most previous studies had taken a quantitative stance on the phenomenon, so the focus was sometimes more on the form of the strategy than its function (Foster and Ohta, 2005). Analysis of the data according to the emic perspective taken in this study was therefore more challenging, and necessitated an understanding of conversation which some of the people involved in this study lacked. Therefore, a simplified version of the annotation panel was created with a focus on the main categories only, and an exclusion of any response moves. This was still very elaborate, with over 70 different strategies, and therefore only very basic intercoder checks were possible. One of the teachers, a novice teacher and a teacher trainer colleague independently annotated six different interactions. In general, there was high agreement on whether learners sought help from their peers, whether they provided support, with or without making the trouble explicit, or whether they provided listener support. There were very few cases the researcher had missed, but quite a few the other raters had missed. In the subsequent discussion, it became evident that other raters often missed an instance because strategies were used in bundles (e.g. combining time-gaining with assistance appeal) and they did not know how to use the search function in EXMARaLDA. When discrepancies were found, these were re-checked by the researcher using the video recordings. The researcher then made the final decisions about which category the case should be allocated.

Because intercoder checks rather served the purpose of clarifying existing codes for the researcher, it was decided to also use 10% of the data for intracoder checks (van den Hoonaard, 2008). Six months after the last transcript had been annotated, the researcher re-annotated 8 transcripts for all the strategies except for those which could be identified by using the search function in the transcription programme (hesitation 'hmm', lengthening, foreignised words which were used more than once and were annotated as 'same as before', gestures, frequent expressions to gain time such as 'I don't know'). The intracoder check revealed the following: there was again high agreement as to the main categories (cf. Table 3). Some strategies were identified as such but attributed a different category. Others were identified as different strategies but within the same main category (i.e. 'providing self-help', 'supporting the partner without

exposing the trouble', 'providing listener support', 'supporting the partner while exposing the trouble' or 'asking the partner for help'). Next, there were instances which were annotated as strategies the second time, but not in the initial annotation, and quite a few cases which were missed the second time. Strategies which were missed the second time were excluded from the percentage count. Cases missed in the first annotation were included as being different. It might be assumed that by spending more time annotating the transcripts during intracoder check, the missed strategies would have been identified. However, some cases which were not annotated the first time had been unidentified even after working through the transcripts several times. They were therefore included as differences. The reliability of the coding was calculated using simple percentage agreement for each of the main categories. Some of the scores are not very high, but the mean for the provision of self-help is rather high with 82%. The 74% for all the other categories is rather low, though this is mainly caused by one very low percentage where, in total, only three instances of strategy use were identified. For the totals, both agreement percentages are quite high: 85% and 77%. Still, these discrepancies have to be considered when data is quantified.

	Providing self-help			Supporting the partner and asking the partner for help, providing listener support		
	same (same and different but same category)	different (missed in first annotation and annotated differently)	percentage	same (same and different but same category)	different (missed in first annotation and annotated differently)	percentage
1CD11	13	8	62%	21	5	81%
1EF11	65	8	89%	22	3	88%
1GH7	88	19	82%	15	4	79%
1IJ3	21	6	78%	4	1	80%
2AB7	33	9	77%	30	14	68%
2CD6	14	1	93%	1	2	33%
2EF4	10	3	77%	0	0	
2IJ10	20	1	95%	7	1	88%
Mean			82%			74%
Totals	264	55	83%	100	30	77%

Table 3: Results of intracoder checks

3.7.3 Measuring proficiency

Using more strategies does not necessarily mean an increase in the quality of the interaction (Aston, 1986), but at the same time some strategies have indeed been related to higher proficiency (Nakatani, 2010). For these reasons it was necessary to observe whether the frequency of use of specific strategies and changes in strategy use were related to the development of linguistic proficiency. In a small pilot study (Reber, 2016), a wide range of available proficiency measures was applied to a small sample of the data. This should permit a decision as to which measures should be applied to all the data (cf. excerpts in Appendix 17). Finally, three different aspects of proficiency were measured: fluency, syntactical complexity, and lexical complexity. No measures for accuracy and interaction were used as these proved to be either too unreliable or too time-consuming for this project (Reber, 2016).

Fluency is of a multifaceted nature, and therefore various techniques have been used to measure it (McCarthy, 2010). Researchers often distinguish between speed (rate of delivery), breakdown (pausing behaviour), and repair (frequency of self-corrections and repetitions) fluency, using different measures for each one of them (for an overview see Segalowitz, 2010). Skehan (2014, p.18f) suggests that we should group the different aspects of fluency into flow of speech (breakdown and repair fluency) and speed of speech (speed fluency) and complement this by composite measures such as phonation time. For the present project, it was decided to limit the measurements to both speed fluency separately and a composite measure of various fluency components (for reasons see Reber, 2016). For speed fluency a “pruned speech rate” (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005) was calculated, i.e. the number of words (excluding hesitation markers, repetitions, self-corrections, false starts, one-word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses) per minute, ignoring passages when learners were writing, laughing or speaking German (longer than two words) or only using gestures and mime. As a composite measure of flow, “phonation time ratio” (Towell et al., 1996; Kormos and Dénes, 2004) was applied, i.e. the percentage of time spent speaking as a percentage proportion of the time taken to produce the speech sample. To obtain a pruned text of every learner’s utterances, all utterances were rewritten, and hesitation markers, false starts, self-repetitions and verbatim echo responses removed (cf. coding manual in Appendices 16.1, 16.3 and a sample text in its original and pruned form in Appendices 16.5, 16.6).

L2 complexity is of an equally multidimensional and multi-layered nature as fluency. It may encompass dimensions such as discourse-interactional, propositional and linguistic complexity (Bulté and Housen, 2012). Norris and Ortega (2009) therefore propose using measures which involve different aspects of global complexity, e.g. ‘overall complexity (e.g. mean length of T-unit), complexity by subordination (e.g. mean

number of clauses per T-unit), and complexity by subclausal or phrasal elaboration (e.g. mean length of clause)' (ibid., p. 574), and complementing these by local measures of complexity, such as structural variety and sophistication (e.g. frequency of passive forms) or morphological measures (e.g. variety of past tense form). Wang and Skehan (2014) subjected different linguistic complexity measures to a factor analysis and found that the 'highest typical loading were (...) the measure of subordination per AS-unit' (Wang and Skehan, 2014, p.169).

Therefore, two common measures of syntactic complexity in learners' spoken talk (Bulté and Housen, 2012; Reber, 2016) were used in this study: a measure of subordination (subordination score: mean number of clauses per analysis of speech unit (AS-unit) (Foster et al., 2000) and a measure of length (average length of AS-unit: mean number of words per AS-unit). Only two issues were found to arise from applying the AS-unit to the data. First, it had to be clarified that for a level two application (ibid.) not only one-word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses had to be excluded, but also combinations of the two. The two syntactical complexity measures were complemented by two measures for lexical complexity: the texts were analysed with the help of Text Inspector (Text Inspector, 2016) for measure of textual lexical diversity (MTLD) (McCarthy and Jarvis, 2010) and lexical sophistication ('word level' score), i.e. the extent to which learners access less frequent words (ratio of A2- and B1-level words per number of A1-level words multiplied by 100). To run the learners' texts in Text Inspector, pruned texts had to be further manipulated by excluding all foreignized and non-standard words as otherwise these would have been automatically classified as very low frequent (cf. coding manual in Appendix 16.4, a sample original and pruned text in Appendices 16.5 and 16.6). Furthermore, 3 or 4 interactions had to be merged to obtain long enough speech samples to calculate MTLD and word level scores. This gave a total of only three different measures per learner for MTLD and word level: one some time before the intervention, another right before and after the intervention, and one well after the intervention towards the end of the school year.

Another question to be addressed concerned the length of the learner interaction to which the measures were applied. Gilabert (2004) for example, only analysed minutes 2-4 of learners' production to measure speech rate. This decision depends on the nature of the task learners have to complete. The output of spoken production tasks, such as the narration task used by Gilabert, might be less prone to change than the language produced by learners undertaking a highly interactional task with pre-task preparation time. Because learners were given preparation time, one of the speakers often slightly dominated the first part of the interaction by relying on what he/she had prepared, and it was only after some time that learners contributed to the interaction more equally and their speech became more co-constructed and hesitant. Skehan and Foster (2005) have

found that under planning conditions the nature of the interaction does indeed change with time. It was therefore decided to analyse complete interactions, and not only part of them.

The use of appropriate software (EXMaRALDA and Word) has ensured a high degree of precision and reliability when calculating proficiency measures. First, the following could be gained by automatically analysing the transcripts:

- Pause length
- Pause number
- Annotated time per speaker, i.e. time when speaker sounded > phonation time
- Number of words in pruned texts
- Check that no pause was missed
- Check that pauses shorter than 0.4 seconds were not included by mistake
- Structure check to verify that every pause was attributed to the right speaker

3.7.4 Other measures used

To see how long learners spent on the task, a 'shared time on-task' measure was developed. In EXMARaLDA the time of recording was calculated and from this the following deducted:

- Beginning of recording: time when learners are getting ready for the task, e.g. moving chairs, sorting papers
- During the task: exclude passages when learners are writing, exclude pauses before, within and after such passages
- End: exclude time spent waiting for the teacher to stop the recording

To compare the use of strategies by individual learners, the absolute number of strategies used by a learner had to be corrected for length of talking time by this learner. For this, in EXMARaLDA the annotated time per speaker (including all utterances, filled and unfilled pauses) was counted, and from this the following deducted:

- What was deducted for 'shared time on-task'
- Passages when speakers are interrupted by another group or the teacher or when they are talking to another group or the teacher
- Passages in German: two or more words uttered by the same speaker or a single word following an utterance of two or more words.
- Pauses in between such passages
- Laughter, coughs

- Passages when speaker uses mime or gestures but no sound to fill pauses

For more details about how pauses were measured, see the coding manual in Appendix 14.3.

3.7.5 Visual inspection and statistical analysis of quantified data

To address one of the main caveats often associated with qualitative analysis, namely the issue of generalizability and representation, the qualitative analysis was complemented with quantitative coding of the data. Thus, the analysis was further validated by adding simple counting (Silverman, 2006, p.299): First, to obtain ‘a sense of the variance in the data’ (ibid., p. 299), and later this was used to check the prevalence of some phenomena, and to see how learners’ use of interaction strategies developed over time.

Once all the transcripts had been coded, frequencies of strategy use per learner and per interaction were extracted from EXMARaLDA’s analysis and concordance tool to an Excel-sheet. This data was then analysed by creating various plots in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2016), and thus the effect of the intervention on the frequency of strategy use investigated. Some warn about using CA-based data for quantification (Schegloff, 1993; ten Have, 2007), despite the fact that studies drawing on CA often discuss specific instances but give these ‘a wider relevance as an exemplary treatment of something that is typical or atypical in some sense’ (ten Have, 2007, p.158) and thus informally quantify data. In this study, quantification was used in two ways: first, some informal type of quantification was used to see which interaction strategies were applied, and how often. Then, quantification was used to see whether within a single case (one learner) there had been some changes; but here again, informal quantification was used and results always considered in relation to the previous qualitative analysis of both learners in the dyad.

Barkaoui (2014) discusses different methods for the analysis of longitudinal data in second language research. He claims that typically data is ‘plotted against time in a line graph’ (p. 88), inspected visually and supplemented by statistical analysis. However, to date the use of statistical analyses remains controversial, as data usually has two problematic characteristics: ‘serial dependency or autocorrelation’ and ‘small number of cases and/or observations’, (ibid.). As this data set does indeed only contain a small number of cases, data obtained by coding the interactions for the use of interaction strategies and speaking proficiency was inspected, mainly visually. Results for specific individuals were plotted on a graph. The horizontal axis recorded the month in which the observations occurred, and the vertical axis displayed the dependent variables for a single individual. Frequencies could thus be interpreted descriptively. A summary of all data collection and analysis procedures and products can be found in Appendix 3.

Statistical tests were only used to relate the use of strategies to proficiency scores and observe any changes in proficiency before and after the intervention. Results thus obtained, however, were again discussed in the light of the qualitative findings and the visual inspection. Heritage (1995, p.405) suggests using statistics in CA

‘in almost all cases where a claim is made that the use or outcome of a particular interactional practice is tied to particular social or psychological categories, such as gender, status, etc’.

In this study, statistics are used to verify correlations of the use of specific interaction strategies and proficiency scores. To measure the degree of correspondence between an interaction strategy and the proficiency score, a correlation was calculated. As the relationship between the independent and dependent variables was not linear, i.e. data were not normally distributed, Spearman’s rho was used for this (Turner, 2014). In addition, in order not to violate the independence of the data (Larson-Hall, 2016, p.206), the means of each individual’s repeated measures were taken before the correlation was calculated, rather than that the individual’s repeated measures were used.

To further investigate data on changes in proficiency, findings from the visual inspection of line graphs on the development of fluency and complexity of learners’ language before and after the feedback were corroborated with robust paired samples t-tests. This test was chosen because two means of the same dependent variable (proficiency) for the same group of people were measured (Turner, 2014). Further, because the number of participants was low, the data skewed and had outliers, so Jamovi’s robust paired samples t-test (Love et al., 2018) was used. This employs bootstrapping, i.e. ‘draws multiple samples from the same data set’ (Loewen and Plonsky, 2015, p.16), and 20% trimmed means, a more robust approach to the question of outliers or skewed data than the ordinary paired samples t-test (Larson-Hall, 2016, p.307). Still, as suggested by Plonsky et al. (2015) this was combined with the parametric Wilcoxon signed rank test (Turner, 2014). A Wilcoxon Signed Rank statistic was used because the independent variable, represented by the learners’ complexity and fluency scores before and after the instruction, has two levels. The dependent variable, learners’ complexity and fluency scores, yields rankable data, though the actual data are not normally distributed. A non-parametric statistic is appropriate because the sample is not drawn from a normally distributed population.

3.8 Summary

This study investigates a relatively under-researched context: state school elementary learners at lower secondary who are learning English as a third language. In this context, learners already possess individual interactional abilities drawn from their

other languages (Marx and Hufeisen, 2004, p.145). Therefore, the intervention was tailored to individual learners – an instructional procedure which has not so far been investigated elsewhere. Data were gathered in both a higher-level class of an urban Swiss state school (class 1) and a lower level class (class 2) in a more rural setting, during normal classroom time over a school year. This permitted the researcher to work with two different teachers and their learners as informants and collaborators. Data consisted of 77 recordings of learner-learner task-performance, 24 video-stimulated recall interviews and field notes data. Between recordings 4 and 8, the normal class teachers intervened by providing feedback to individual learners on the use of interaction strategies. Every dyad received this feedback once.

The main approach in this study was qualitative, and the research design, including all research instruments, was created in such a way that it reflected normal classroom routine as closely as possible. At the same time, though, methods were matched to research questions. An exploratory sequential mixed methods design was used. First and foremost, qualitative language data was collected. Emerging codes were used to analyse the data quantitatively, employing a single-subject multiple-baseline design (Lodico et al., 2010).

Video-recordings were transcribed using EXMARaLDA transcription software (Schmidt and Wörner, 2009). During the transcription and analysis process, discussions with the two teachers, a novice teacher and a teacher trainer colleague showed where the properties of strategies were still unclear and further investigation was needed. Once all the transcripts had been coded, frequencies of strategy use per learner and per interaction were analysed by creating various plots in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2016), and thus the effect of the intervention on the frequency of strategy use was investigated. In parallel, the quality of the language in the different interactions was examined using three different proficiency measures. Statistical analysis of correlations and robust paired samples t-tests were used to test the relation between the use of interaction strategies and proficiency.

4 Findings and Discussion

Following is a discussion of the study's key findings. Illustrative extracts from interaction and interview transcripts will provide the reader with a "thick description" (Ponterotto, 2006). This should permit an understanding of the various strategies used by individual learners, illustrate the categories identified in the data, show the development of strategy use and enable understanding of the effect of the teacher feedback. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section describes the interaction strategies used by the learners in this data set, addresses the question of frequencies with which learners use the strategies, and discusses the individual use of strategies, i.e. in what ways learners differ in how they compensate their resource deficits. The second section shifts the focus to the relation between proficiency and the use of interaction strategies and addresses some questions of learning, whereas the third section focuses on the impact of the feedback by discussing its impact on strategy use and proficiency.

4.1 Low-level learners' use of strategies

Extract 4 illustrates how low-level learners use specific strategies to keep the communication channel open despite their linguistic resource deficits. For this interaction, learners had to ask each other about their hobbies. They could tell their partner which topics they wanted to talk about and then they had five minutes' individual preparation time (cf. task instructions in Appendix 10.5). In line 112, 1F attempts a question but immediately stops. She gains time by self-repeating part of a word and then repairs her question. While doing this, she uses various other time-gaining strategies such as lengthenings and fillers. 1E answers with a blunt 'no' (line 115) but then self-repairs this by using an approximation 'fifty-fifty' to say that sometimes she does like sports and at other times she does not. She further exemplifies this saying that she did not like today's fitness session at school. She first expresses her disgust with gestures and only then adds a word she assumes or knows she can transfer from the school language to English: 'the horror' (line 120).

In line 121, 1F continues with her next but more precise question, upon which 1E answers by compensating the word 'push-ups' with mime. At the same time, she uses German 'als' instead of 'than', probably assuming she could transfer this directly from German, or else to continue the conversation despite her lexical gap. 1F then uses dialect (line 125) to check whether she has understood her partner correctly. 1E confirms while giggling, thus probably marking the use of dialect as non-standard. In line 127, 1E expresses her ignorance of the word in English and sums up what she has said previously. Before she does so, she uses the filler 'ehm' followed by 'I don't know'. The

latter may signal the vagueness of what follows, but uttering her ignorance also gains her time for her summary. 1F confirms with 'yes' and 1E finishes her summary, this time marking topic completion by lowering her voice. In line 134, 1F turns to a new aspect of sports: dancing. She self-corrects 'dance' to 'dancing'. 1E immediately reacts with sound and mime and thus shows that she is following. In line 136, 1F probably attempts to say that she does not like dancing but 1E interrupts her – or repeats what her partner has just said and finishes the utterance. Finally, 1F confirms with 'too, too' probably meaning 'me too'.

In line 139, 1E continues with the next topic 'reading' by asking her partner how much she reads in a week, using self-repetition of the first part of the word and lengthening a sound. 1F provides a rather detailed answer in lines 141-145. To do this, she uses various time-gaining strategies such as lengthening and self-repetition and also self-corrects 'rainy' to 'raining'. The way she does so (squints her eyes, looks to the side and then to her partner again), implies it is rather an own-accuracy check than self-repair only. 1E supports her partner with a confirming 'yes', upon which 1F continues with lengthening the sound of the word 'and' to gain time and then using the coined word 'winding'. 1E backchannels with 'yes', 1F laughs realising or signalling she had not used standard English, uses self-repetition and lengthening again while ending her rather long utterance with raising intonation. 1E then completes her partner's utterance with 'peoples' probably assuming that 1F had lacked the word to finish her utterance. Finally, in line 156, 1F confirms by reformulating the suggested completion.

112 1F: [an]d::: (0.5)because,
 113 (1.1)no ehm(1.9)°°h and(0.9)be(0.4)ehm you lik:e,
 114 (0.4)fitness?
 115 1E: (1.3)no.
 116 1F: (0.5)and why?
 117 1E: (0.3)äh fifty-
 118 fifty yeah' ehm(0.4)the fitness:,
 119 (1.1)in this day it was;
 120 (0.9)((runs flat hand over neck, sign of disgust))the horror;
 121 1F: you like sit-
 122 ups?
 123 1E: (1.1)ehm sit-
 124 ups is better als>>pp>ehm>((imitates push-ups))
 125 1F: Ligischtütze. ((German dialect for push-ups))
 126 1E: <<laughing>yes;>
 127 I don't know how to say that in English.
 128 (0.5)but ye:s I like it;
 129 (0.4)ehm(0.4)I dont know;
 130 (0.3)sit-
 131 ups is the best from <<dim>all fitness;>
 132 1F: ye:s;
 133 1E: <<pp>it's=[easy.>
 134 1F: [=but I hate] dance dancing.
 135 1E: <<laughing>ohoho>
 136 1F: I don't
 137 1E: I don't can that.
 138 1F: (0.8)too too
 139 1E: (0.9)((laughs))(0.5)ehmh how much: do you read;
 140 (0.5)in the week.
 141 1F: (0.9)when the weather is: ehm is(0.6)rainy(0.3)no raining,
 ((looks at partner))
 142 (0.4)
 143 1E: yes,
 144 1F: a:nd:(0.8)winding,
 145 (0.5)
 146 1E: yes,
 147 1F: ((laughs))
 148 1F: I I read a lot;
 149 (0.7)and when the:::(0.5)weather is nice and beautiful,
 150 (0.4)when the sun comes,
 151 it's warm,
 152 then I go;
 153 (0.5)swimming with the others,
 154 (0.6)
 155 1E: people;
 156 1F: ((laughs))yes friends;

Extract 4: 1EF5²

As can be seen merely from this short extract, learners use a wide range of strategies to sustain the conversation despite their limited resources. Most frequently, learners use self-reliant strategies, such as various time-gaining strategies, lexical compensatory strategies (e.g. lexical transfer) or self-repair. Moreover, they support their partner without the partner asking, by using means which do not expose the trouble directly and thus do not interfere in the flow of the interaction. In this extract, for example, they complete the partner's unfinished utterance (e.g. line 155) or use confirmation checks (e.g. line 125). They also use paralinguistic means or simple words to show their

² First number = class, letters = learners, second number = time of recording

partner that they are following (e.g. lines 135 and 143). What is missing in this extract, is some form of other-initiated other-repair or help-offering. The different strategies will now be discussed in more detail.

4.1.1 Providing self-help

Learners use various self-reliant strategies such as time-gaining, self-repair or lexical compensatory strategies. Many of these are used by either drawing on the target language, other language-resources or paralinguistic means. The following will illustrate these in more detail.

4.1.1.1 Time-gaining

To buy processing time and still keep the communication channel open, learners use various time-gaining strategies. The simplest way of gaining time is to pause, i.e. produce an unfilled gap. However, this bears the danger of losing your turn. Therefore, many learners accompany longer word or idea searches with gestures and mime, either by looking into the air or at one's task sheet, or they even use more prominent gestures such as shaking both hands up and down. Such pauses filled with gestures and mime may additionally be filled with a sound, the most frequent being 'uh' or 'uhm'. Clark and Fox (2002) suggest such fillers can be considered conventional words which are used to announce a word search, decision-making of what to say next or indicate the intention to keep or cede the floor. They add that 'uh' announces a minor delay, whereas 'uhm' indicates a major one. Both these filled pauses can also be drawled to signal the continuation of an ongoing delay, in the same way as any other conventional word can be lengthened. Learners in the data set do usually use these fillers in the above way, however the pronunciation may vary between more English sounding [ə] and Swiss [æ]³.

Time-gaining strategies, however, are often used in chains of strategies. Extract 5 is a typical example. 1G and 1H discuss how they want to furnish the classroom. 1G argues that they lack the space for a reading corner in it. In line 076, 'ehm', followed by self-repetition and drawling of a sound show the hesitation. In line 077, this is followed up by a more elaborate way of signalling that 1G is looking for a word; he expresses his ignorance. 1H laughs, thus probably signalling that he has realized his partner's struggle, but he makes no attempt at supporting him. In line 080, 1G can finally express the intended meaning. Longer time-gaining expressions such as 'I don't know how to say this' can be perceived as an assistance appeal but in many cases the partner does not or cannot provide help. Sometimes, the learners uttering this phrase even continue without hesitation, which shows that such expressions can also be perceived as an extended stalling device.

³ In this paper all fillers are transcribed following German spelling. 'eh' roughly corresponds to English 'uh'.

073 1G: yes.
 074 and,
 075 (1.7)he eh(0.7)a reading corner is not so good;
 076 we have **ehm: not(0.6)not s not so:(0.7)so:(1.6)**
077 I have no idea how to say this, [(0.5)]
 078 1H: [(laughs)]
 079 [(laughs)]
 080 1G: [we have no space.]
 081 (0.3)we have [no]space for the for a reading corner.
 082 1H: [yes;]
 083 1G: <<p>yes;
 084 1H: ((laughs))

Extract 5: 1GH7

Another stalling device frequently found in this data is ‘okay’ followed by a pause. In talk using English as a lingua franca ‘okay’ is used in more functions than in native speech (House, 2013). Among others, it may function as ‘Opener, Starter and Attention Getter marking a change in a speaker’s orientation and awareness’ (ibid., p. 64) or mark a structural boundary (ibid., p. 64). In Extract 6 below, ‘okay’ is used, first to close the topic (202), and then to signal the start of a new one, which is followed by a pause (203) before the new topic is indeed started (204). Using ‘okay’ permits 2C to pause without losing the turn and gaining time for formulating the next utterance. This simple way of gaining time for formulating the next utterance, and the fact that ‘okay’ is also used in German, might be the reasons why in this data set, ‘okay’ followed by a pause is very frequent.

202 2C: (0.4)you are finished **okay;**
 203 (2.0)**okay;** (1.5)
 204 how wars;

Extract 6: 2CD11

Sometimes, learners also accompany pauses by gestures. Gestures can fulfil various purposes. They may be time-gaining devices (strategic beat, (Gullberg, 1998) or underline what is being said (strategic iconic, (ibid.)). In line 127 (Extract 7), for example, 1C moves his hand in a circle, either to underline the idea of ‘walking all day long’, i.e. somehow walking on and on as though you were walking on a never-ending circle, or to fill the pause and thus signal that he is thinking about how to say ‘all day long’. In this specific extract, gestures might even serve both purposes at once.

123 1C: (0.5)why walking is good for knees and you can relax,
 124 (0.4)an:d you a:re(0.8)this is good;
 125 (0.3)for(0.5) body this good for the body when you make,
 126 (1.2)walking;
 127 **((moves hand in a circle))**all days you make walking all days you can
 make,
 128 (0.6)and then,
 129 (0.4)the body,
 130 is good;

Extract 7: 1CD2

When gestures are solely used to gain time, this might not be due to linguistic resource deficits only but also for thinking about what to say next, or in some instances even to play a role. In Extract 8 for example, 1J probably did not use gestures to gain time for recalling the word ‘hundred’ – it is the same word in the school language – rather he used this gesture to show that he is deliberating how much money he might offer his partner. From the video-recording it can be seen that the gesture is rather overdone, indicating that 1J is acting out a person who is deliberating.

133 1J: okay;
 134 I give you:**((tickles his chin (3.7)))** m::h hundred dollars
 135 1I: no no no.

Extract 8: 1IJ6

Some ways of filling pauses are specific to individual learners. 1H for example, frequently fills pauses with laughter whereas 1F uses lengthenings accompanied by exhaling as a stalling device. In the stimulated recall interview 1GH4SR, 1H mentions that in line 011, he didn’t know whether he should say ‘no’, ‘yes’, ‘so’ or ‘fifty-fifty’. He first needed time to think and filled this with ‘eh’ and laughter.

010 1G: ehm do you like homework?
 011 1H: (0.3)**eh**
 012 **((laughs (1.8)))eh <<laughing>fifty-fifty>**
 013 **((laughs (0.4)))**
 014 [**<<laughing>and you,>**]
 015 1G: [**((laughs (1.0)))**]**((laughs (0.6))) <<laughing>no::>**

Extract 9: 1GH4

4.1.1.2 Self-repair

Self-repair can consist of self-initiated self-repair of pronunciation and grammar, but it is mostly used to replace German or foreignized words with more standard words or a paraphrase. Self-repair often manifests the ongoing planning of talk, and serves the purpose of managing processing time pressure. In the recall interview for Extract 10, 1G comments that he had self-corrected (1GH 5SR). He most probably needed more time to recall the correct form.

194 1G: (0.4)we need to: eh
195 (0.5)to buy **some things**;
196 (0.3)
197 1G: ts **something**;

Extract 10: 1GH5

In Extract 11, 1J wants to stress the fact that the air in the city is polluted. He uses the coined word 'smokig' (line 381) and immediately self-corrects this to smoky even though the message was obviously clear to his partner, as the overlapping 'yes' demonstrates. It seems that while 1J was uttering the coined word, he realised that he was using a German ending and then replaced this with a more English-sounding ending.

381 1J: but the(0.3)contra: is(0.5)he's very:(1.5)**smokig**.
382 (0.5)[**smoky**.]
383 1I: [ye]yes(0.4)and the pro of the village are (0.5)sh she have fresh
air,

Extract 11: 1IJ9

Self-monitoring and planning own output in progress is evident in cases like Extract 12. 2I reformulates, self-repeats a chunk and replaces 'at the' with 'on the' before he can utter his final version 'I make watersport on the afternoon'. Learners at very low levels may often not have enough proceduralised, implicit knowledge of grammatical rules to produce fluent speech with accuracy. Unless they can use ready-made chunks, they still need time to apply rules correctly. 1F for example, mentioned in the interview (1EF11SR) that she found the last interaction particularly demanding because she had to talk about past events and was constantly trying to use the past tense correctly.

022 2I: (2.3)Thursday make I(0.7)at the morning golf and at the
afternoon(0.4)ehm(0.4)watersport;
023 (1.0)I make watersport at the a (0.2)on the afternoon

Extract 12: 2IJ2

4.1.1.3 Lexical compensatory strategies

Learners in this data use various lexical compensatory strategies, such as paraphrase (approximation, word coinage, circumlocution), conscious transfer of lexical items from other languages, literal translation and code switching. Extracts 13 and 14 show the flexibility with which learners at low proficiency levels may in fact use lexical compensatory strategies to achieve a communicative outcome. In line 171 of Extract 13, 2A wants to provide an English translation of 2B's Swiss German 'necher' (closer). While trying to do so in line 171, he stops and reformulates his utterance to the negated opposite.

```
168 2B:  aha ja,  
169      (0.8)Thun is ehm  
170      necher; ((Swiss German for 'closer'))  
171 2A:  (0.5)yes it's [very it's not far;]  
172 2B:      [a and Bern is ?u:: ja ]ja  
173 2A:  <<p>Berne far;>
```

Extract 13: 2AB11

In the stimulated recall interview (1GH7SR) to Extract 14, 1G states that in line 076, he wanted to say 'not that many' but had just forgotten this expression. He therefore simply started the sentence from scratch so that it 'worked out' (1GH7SR). To gain time for his reformulation, he uses an expression of ignorance. This can be explained by the differing problem sources at various phases of speech processing (Dörnyei and Kormos, 1998). When encoding the preverbal message, learners need to simultaneously manage their resource deficits and processing time pressure, which will result in concurrent use of lexical compensatory strategies and stalling devices.

```
073 1G:  yes.  
074      and,  
075      (1.7)he eh(0.7)a reading corner is not so good;  
076      we have ehm: not(0.6)not s not so: (0.7)so: (1.6)  
077      I have no idea how to say this,  
078 1H:  ((laughs))  
079      [((laughs))]  
080 1G:  [we have no space.]  
081      (0.3)we have [no]space for the for a reading corner.  
082 1H:      [yes;]  
083 1G:  <<p>yes;  
084 1H:  ((laughs))
```

Extract 14: 1GH7

Another frequently used strategy in this data was the creative production of original expressions (Mauranen, 2012). Multilinguals

'negotiate ungrammatical and even unintelligible lexical items or grammatical and syntactic structures, and they adopt them as shared resources for communication' (Canagarajah, 2009, p.18).

Upon two assistance appeals in 1EF5 for German 'Gefühl' (feeling), for example, 1E provides the word 'expressions' but adds 'I think', thus signalling uncertainty. From then on, however, 1E and 1F use 'expressions' whenever they mean 'Gefühl'. Such faulty support or a lack of other-correction can be a signal for both to continue using a non-standard word. 1J expresses this in the recall to 1IJ9. In Extract 15, when 1I is asked about his use of 'kino' (German word for cinema, here used with English pronunciation), he states that the lack of other-correction resulted in them using the non-standard word until the end of the interaction.

1J: wöu irgendwie hani dänkt gha **cinema** würds heisse oder?
 ((because somehow I thought it would be called '**cinema**', wouldn't it?))

1I: Aha ja.
 ((Ah, yes.))
 (...)

1J: I ha dänkt gha, **wenis fautsch hät gseit gha oder Chino, de würds är korrigiere** aber är het o gseit gha Chino. **drdür isch es bi däm blibe** im ganze Gschpräch.
 ((I thought **when I had said it wrongly or 'Chino' (Swiss for cinema), he would correct it** but he also said 'Chino'. **Because of this it stayed with this throughout the whole interaction.**))

1I: I ha nid dradänkt, **i has verstanget** u när hanis nüm meh gfragt.
 ((I didn't think of it, **I understood** it and then **I didn't ask it any more.**))

Extract 15: 1IJ9SR

As long as the partner does not signal that there is indeed a problem, they continue using the non-standard word. There is a similar example in 2AB5. 2A uses 'freedly' (probably for 'free' or 'happy') three times without being corrected by his partner. His partner even uses the word himself after having heard it from 2A. When learners are aware that they are using foreignized or school language words, however, they generally mark this with laughter. In Extract 16 for example, 2I uses the German 'Windhund' with German pronunciation, continues in English and then adds a German adjective (line 006). His partner first giggles and then acknowledges this with 'yes'. They seem to be aware that 2I is mixing codes here.

006 2I: (2.0)I think(0.9)the(0.5)**Windhund**[(1.2)][it's: not really](1.1)**hübsch**.
 ((nice))
 007 2J: [[(giggles)]] [[(giggles)]]
 008 (0.8)yes,

Extract 16: 2IJ3

Such non-standard words often represent the state of learners' interlanguage (Loewen and Reinders, 2011, p.98), an as yet not clearly established knowledge of a

word, or they are a mixture of German and English. Sometimes learners switch to German entirely as with 'Windhund' whereas at other times they use highly 'Englishified' words such as 'winding' in Extract 17 below. 1F first self-corrects 'rainy' to 'raining', probably applying the rule that a noun can be transformed to a verb by adding the suffix '-ing'. In analogy, she later transforms the noun 'wind' to a verb by adding '-ing'. In German, this would work – verb and noun are based on the same stem – in English the verb has a different meaning. And still, for the interlocutor, this was sufficiently clear; 1E confirms with 'yes' in line 146.

141 1F: (0.9)when the weather is: ehm is(0.6)**rainy**(0.3)no **raining**,
 142 (0.4)
 143 1E: yes,
 144 1F: a:nd:(0.8)**winding**,
 145 (0.5)
 146 1E: yes,

Extract 17: 1EF5

Such interim words can appear in different forms within one interaction. In 1IJ7, for example, learners talk about whether to have a 'Lesecke' (German for 'reading corner') in the classroom. They only use this word correctly when reading it from the task sheet. Otherwise, they use it in various different forms. 1J first uses 'reading corner' while looking at his paper. He is probably not yet able to recall the word without support. Later in the interaction, when they are not looking at the task sheet, they use 'reading corn', 'readi(ng) corn' with the 'ng' swallowed, 'the the corner', then confuse it with CD recorder (cf. recall interview) and use 'the recorder', 'CD recorer'. Finally, 1J uses 'reading corner' again while looking at his paper. Other examples of such an interim's version are the following: In 1GH10, 1H coins the word 'dork' from German 'Dolch' or Scottish 'dirk' and uses this instead of 'dagger' (or 'dirk'). He might have met the word 'dagger' or 'dirk' – maybe in computer games – but can only partially recall it. In Extract 18, 1G might have drawn on a word-by-word translation of German 'es gibt'. He translates the first part to English and integrates the second, German part by dropping the 't'. Without the 't', the word sounds more like English 'give'.

178 1G: is(0.4)eh is e:' it i:'(0.4)eh(0.5)**it gib** ((partly German for exists))
 a Haggis eating(0.9)eh(1.0)Haggis eating ehm(0.4)competition

Extract 18: 1GH2

Replacing an unknown item with a foreignized word from a known language is a strategy which is strongly encouraged by the set course materials. Among multilinguals, native-speaker standard error-free production of language is not necessary. The main

purpose is intelligibility (Mauranen, 2012). In the classrooms investigated here, foreignizing German words will most certainly result in mutual understanding. Despite the fact that learners have had four years of French before data collection started, there are only very few foreignized French words. Foreignized German words are much more frequent. Lexical L2-transfer seems to be less common when the language is perceived as more distant (Ringbom, 2005). One can argue that foreignizing German words might not always be a very effective strategy – especially when talking to non-German speakers. In the Swiss German classroom, however, foreignizing is a very efficient lexical compensatory strategy. The fact that learners normally hesitate before they use a foreignized word, might even indicate that when they continue using a non-standard word, their attention may have been drawn to this lexical gap. The item fitting into this gap might become more salient in future input and thus contribute to the incremental acquisition of a lexical item (Schmitt, 2010, p.19ff).

When learners are aware that the interlocutor is using a non-standard form of a word, or she/he is compensating a word with gestures and mime, they often attempt at providing the missing word. In Extract 19 below, for example, 1C uses gestures and mime to replace a word or phrase (line 159). Even though he does not mark this with hesitation, 1D provides the missing expression. By compensating lexical gaps with foreignized or coined words, learners might thus provide the space for a collaborative word search. Continuing the interaction in the classroom by drawing on another common language will ultimately provide learners with more input and output and thus learning opportunities than when they abandon the message. This might even be true when learners use a non-foreignized German word. In Extract 16, above, when 2J switched to German twice, he could at least say ‘it’s not really’ – a rather useful chunk for a learner at a very low level.

157 1C: (0.3)also also the the youngest is five day difference of the eh
oldest.
158 1D: (1.1)okay;=
159 1C: =and the the when they go out mp3 player they make tsch tasch tsch tsch
tsch ((mimes pressing on a touch screen quickly and hard)) and then the
mp3 player ((claps))((puts head down miming being shot))
160 1D: it **destroyed**;
161 1C: yes.

Extract 19: 1CD6

Besides, drawing on other languages can in fact be very creative and result in language play (Pomerantz and Bell, 2007). In Extract 20 below, for example, foreignizing a German word first leads to a misunderstanding and then results in language play and the experience of various possible forms. 2C and 2D are planning an excursion and they argue over who has to do which job on board the ship. Both want to be the captain and

want the other to clean the ship. First, 2C uses the words 'shrub the board' for German 'das Deck/Bord schrubben'. This negative transfer does not trigger any reaction by his partner other than that he reacts to the content of the utterance; he refuses the job. In the recall interview, 2C mentions that his partner misunderstood the word as 'shrump the board'. 2D then uses 'shrump' for 'shrub' which generates laughter and teasing other-repetition by 2C. From then on, 2D keeps using 'shrump' while 2C uses 'shrub'. 'Shrump' is even conjugated with the German verb ending for third person plural (line 477). The fact that they only start laughing and teasing once they are using 'shrump' may indicate that they consider 'shrub the board' a more standard version than 'shrump the board'.

370 (0.7)ts°°h[the the Auf the Aufgab](0.3)wer übernimmt welche Aufgabe;
 ((who does which job))
 371 2D: [we're the Titanic pro.]
 372 (0.8)[ehm][I have to no no]no[I say]that I [say that I say that I
 say that,]
 373 2C: [you:][you you no no]
 374 [you have]
 375 [you have **shrub** the
 board,]
 376 2D: I [say that,]
 377 2C: [<<laughing>no,>]
 378 2D: I say that;
 379 °°hokay;
 380 ehm:(0.4)
 (...)
 395 2C: you,
 396 **shrub** the board,
 397 (1.0)((laughs))[(laughs)]and I;
 398 2D: [(laughs)]
 399 2C: drive the ship.
 400 2D: ?no:.
 401 2C: d(o) ye[s]
 402 2D: [I]drive the ship and you **shrump** [the board.]
 403 2C: [(laughs)]
 [(laughs)]<<laughing>**shrump**>[(laughs)] [no;]
 404 2D: [(laughs)] [(laughs)] [neue
 405 In]sider((laughs)) [<<laughing>sh>] ((laughs))
 406 2C: [**shrump**]
 407 **shrump**,
 408 2D: ((laughs))klatsch on the boden and **shrump** the board.
 409 2C: **shrump** the board.
 410 2D: ((laughs))
 411 2C: yes.
 412 2D: I'm sorry.
 413 2C: he you [**shrub** the] board and I drive the ship.
 414 2D: [camera;]
 415 (1.1)no.
 (...)
 437 2C: [ship;]
 438 and I cooking (0.4)and you **shrub** the board.
 439 2D: no:.
 440 2C: (1.3)[xxx::: xxx](0.3)[you **shrub** the board.]
 441 2D: [I want to sleep.]
 442 [(laughs)](0.5) [no.]
 443 2C: [you **shrub**]the board and sleep
 and I sleep.
 444 2D: m:::hnotch the whole board.
 445 o[ne]quadratmeter [I **shrump**.]
 446 2C: [yes,]
 447 [no,]
 448 2D: (0.4) [the rest,]
 449 2C: [no,]

450 2D: have the crew;
 451 (0.3)to make.
 452 2C: no;;
 453 (0.7)you **shrub** the bo[ard.]
 454 2D: [for]what we have a crew;
 455 2C: we don't have a crew.
 (...)
 468 2C: [<<pp>we eh no]okay;
 469 [we have a crew,]
 470 2D: [we have to have a]crew[the **shrump** the]board.
 471 2C: [yes crew,>]
 472 2D: ((laughs))
 473 2C: <<p>sh **shrump** the board,=
 474 2D: =you drive and I sleep.
 475 2C: (0.4)and I cooking and you shrump the board,
 476 and [you can't not sleep,>]
 477 2D: [no the crew **shrumpt** the]<<laughing>board.>
 478 2C: no.
 479 okay;
 480 you **shrub** you you don't [**shrub** the board you cooking.]

Extract 20: 2CD10

Many compensatory strategies probably only become evident to the analyst when learners are not entirely successful, i.e. when the alternative expression contains some inaccuracies revealing the resource deficit. In the stimulated recall interview to 1GH10, for example, 1G states that he could not recall the English word for German 'töten' and this is why he then simply said 'fight with the chickens' (1GH10SR). The only indication of some problem is the lengthened 'can' followed by the filler 'eh' in line 207 of Extract 21. That the learner did consciously use paraphrase only became evident when he mentioned this in the recall. Many similar instances in other interactions might have stayed unnoticed.

206 1G: (0.9)no yeah fish fish snack is good;
 207 °bu[t chickens]we can: eh **fight with the chickens**,
 208 1H: [but fish,]

Extract 21: 1GH10

Similarly, literal translations might not be detected as such unless they are mentioned in the recall interview. Many German compounds can be translated word for word into English and therefore, in many cases, using literal translation from German to English can be a successfully applied strategy. In the recall interview to 1GH10, 1G states that he wanted to say 'Salzwasser' but did not know the word in English. He states his thoughts: 'Then 'Wasser' 'water', 'Salz' 'salt'. No idea whether this is correct', (1GH10SR). Frequent use of foreignizing therefore does not necessarily mean a learner is a good strategy user. Other learners might have used lexical compensatory strategies in such a successful way that they cannot be identified in the transcript.

4.1.2 Supporting the partner without exposing the trouble

When learners perceive a lack in their partner's resources, they often support the struggling partner without making explicit that the communication risks breaking down. This is in line with findings that learners maintain a supportive discourse by using means such as co-construction and prompting rather than signalling communication problems by using negotiation (Foster and Ohta, 2005; Ohta, 2001b). Such other-support is normally perceived as very positive by the supported. In Extract 22 for example, 1D completes her partner's unfinished utterance from line 136. In the interview (1CD9SR), 1D explains that 1C's self-repetition in line 136 made her assume he lacked a word and she therefore helped him. In the interview, 1D compares this to 'rescue' – a positive annotation for the support provided.

133 1D: ((gestures))m::h [that's sad;]
134 1C: [and the e' pe]oples who want to ge to go eh the spa,
135 1D: y[eah]
136 1C: [ta]ke the: the: ehm
137 1D: **the bus,**
138 1C: yes,
139 the bus,
140 (0.4)this go to the city,

Extract 22: 1CD9

4.1.2.1 Confirmation check

When two learners at a low level interact, understanding might sometimes be like a guessing game and confirmation checks can be a means for playing that game. In Extract 23, the researcher focused 2C's attention on the fact that he finished 2D's sentence, upon which 2C describes this guessing game. He mentions the various possibilities of what 2D could have wanted to say and that he chose the correct one. By completing the other speaker's utterance, learners anticipate what the other wants to say and check this understanding by inserting the best guess.

123 2D: =we need
124 2C: good clo[thes,]
125 2D: [gooth] (0.4)good ehm:
126 mans to
127 e:h
128 2C: **to**((mimes steering))
129 **driving this ship,**
130 2D: driving the ship,

Extract 23: 2CD10

2C: i ha gar nid gwusst, dass er dä Satz het wöue näh. är het eifach öppis mit Männer gseit, nächär het er gmeint villedt zum Schiff fahre oder irgendöppis zum Putze oder choche.u när hani haut das mit em fahre gseit u när ischs gnau das gsi.

((I didn't know that he wanted to take this sentence. He simply said something with men, then he probably thought driving to the ship or something to clean with or cooking and then I said this with driving and then it was exactly that.))

Extract 24: 2CD10SR

The difference between interrupting and supporting a struggling partner by completing his/her utterance might be very subtle. Depending on the overall speed with which a learner is speaking, a pause might be long enough for the partner to complete an utterance without this being perceived as an interruption. Upon focusing learners' attention on line 257 in Extract 25, for example, 1F states this was both an interruption and support (1EF6SR). However, later in the interview 1F says it was probably rather 'helping' and that in general they immediately 'hit on it' ('Mir chöme grad sofort druf').

256 1F: (0.4)I understand you very good;
257 (1.1)I speak **your ehm::**
258 1E: **language?**
259 1F: (0.6)<<laughing>yes>[((smiles))]okay;
260 1E: [((smiles))]
261 1F: (0.6)it's good.

Extract 25: 1EF6

In a later recall interview then (Extract 26), 1F states that she had finished the sentence for her partner in line 241 of Extract 27 because she knew there was not much more to be said. She thinks that she knows 'from the looks' or 'how exactly one emphasises' what the partner wants to say.

1F: da hani grad dr Satz für si fertig gmacht praktisch
((there I've just finished the sentence for her, practically))
(...)
1F: da hani grad witergfahre wöu ig ha gwusst da chunt nüm viu zum säge
((just continued because I knew there isn't much more to be said.))
(...)
1F: ja ig ha iz ömu gwusst was si meint me merktz eigentlech scho a dä Blicke oder wiä das ms betont me merkts scho
((yes I knew what she wanted to say. you realize from the looks or how exactly one emphasises it, you realize it.))

Extract 26: 1EF11SR

238 1E: [I go at home,]
 239 (1.1) I go at home,
 240 **brush my teeth,**
 241 1F: (0.5) **and go in the bed,**
 242
 243 1F: and sleep;
 244 1E: ((nods))
 245 1F: okay,

Extract 27: 1EF11

When learners co-construct language, as 1E and 1F above, the definition of who is the speaker and who is the listener is blurred, 'speaker/hearers collaboratively produce utterances which they jointly own', (Ohta, 2000, p.51). Still, offering ample waiting time seems important, as assistance is 'only helpful when it is needed not when it is redundant with the learners' established abilities', (Ohta, 2001b, p.89).

Besides using completions, learners can also confirm their understanding by using other-repetition, sometimes combined with a modification of the interlocutor's ill-formed utterance. In such cases, other-repetitions are in fact other-initiated repairs locating the trouble source with a very high degree of specificity (Schegloff, 2007, p.101). Such confirmation checks are usually rather simple in form as Extract 28 shows – learners echo the previous speaker's turn – sometimes reformulating it slightly ('a train' in line 057) and are responded to by a simple 'yes' and sometimes a repetition of the targeted word (line 058). This makes them an ideal means for low-level learners to establish mutual understanding.

056 it gives(0.6)it gives (0.5) **train**,
 057 1G: (0.4) **a train**;
 058 1H: **yes a train**;

Extract 28: 1GH9

The cline between guessing and knowing what the partner wants to say on the one hand, and supporting or interrupting is summarised in in Figure 4. It illustrates the various possibilities that exist between confirmation check and completion. Depending on how strong the speaker's urge to also check the understanding seems, an utterance can be interpreted as confirmation check with completion, or completion only. Because of this potential overlap between mere completions and confirmation checks, in the course of the analysis it was decided to merge all four types into one category called 'confirmation check'.

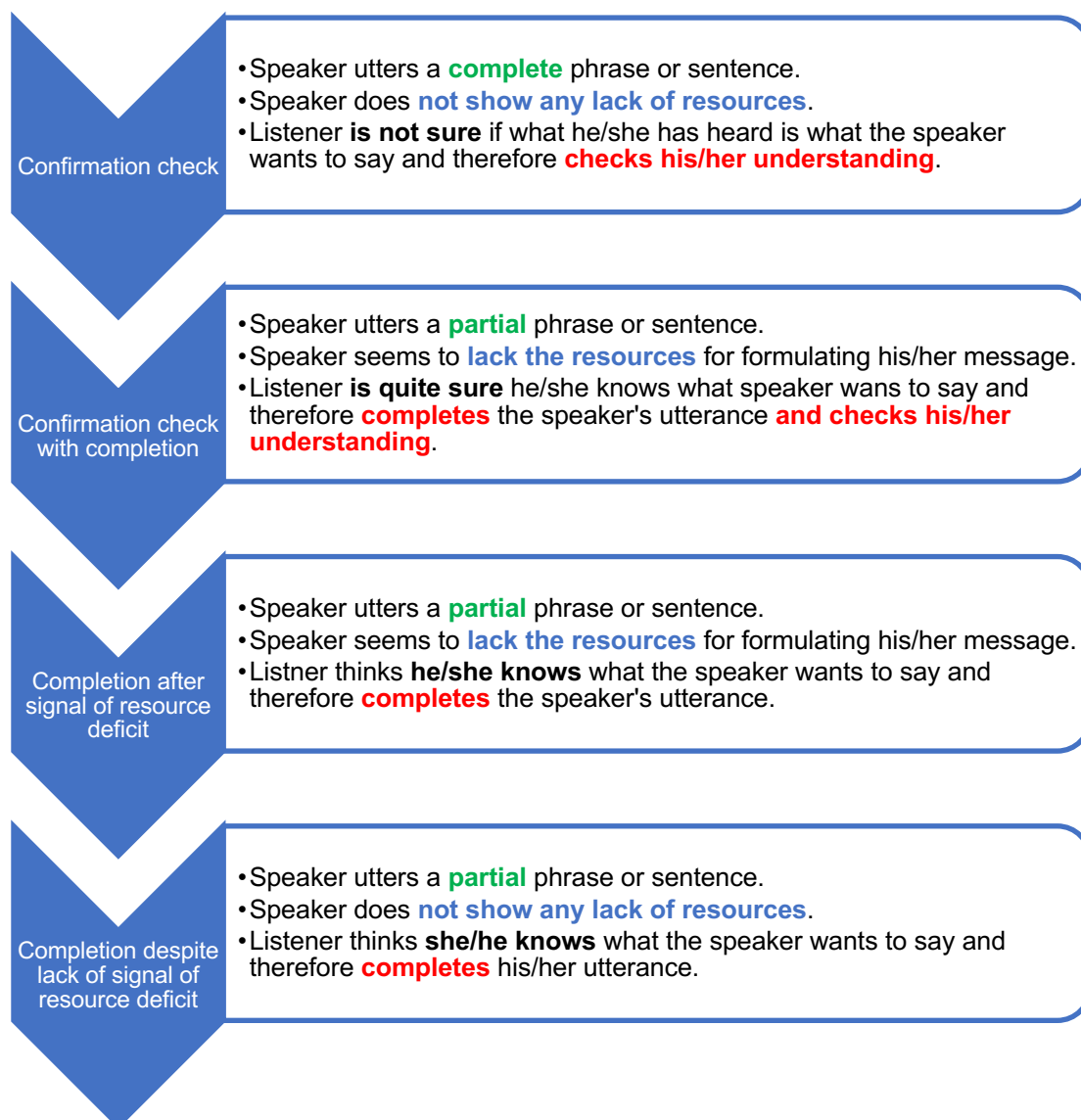


Figure 4: Cline from Confirmation check to Completion

4.1.2.2 Supportive self-repair

Supportive self-repair is used when an own utterance is repaired in order to ease understanding for the partner. This can be done when the speaker anticipates a resource problem in his/her partner and therefore self-repairs before the partner signals non-understanding, or when the partner does not realise he has a problem. The most common way of pre-empting a breakdown because of the partner's perceived resource deficit is to switch to the mother tongue. However, learners also use other means such as integrating the problematic item into a sample sentence, self-repetition or use of gestures and mime. Extract 29 provides an example of a learner rephrasing his previous utterance because the partner has obviously not understood but did not realize this himself. In lines 007-009, 2I asks 2J why he does not like homework. 2J's answer to this shows that he has not understood the question properly (line 010). 2I first asks for clarification (line 011) but immediately repeats his initial question with less hesitation. 2J seems still not to understand and repeats his previous answer (line 016). This time, 2I translates his question to ease comprehension (line 018). 2J does not answer, upon which 2I further explains in German that 2J's answer does not match his question (lines 019-020). 2J then explains that he did understand and asks what his partner thinks about homework. In line 024, 2J then indicates that his partner had supposedly used a wrong word. The issue is still not entirely clear, 2I probably attempts another reformulation (027) but is being interrupted by 2J.

```
007 2I: (0.9)why;
008 (0.3)why,
009 (0.2)you(2.7)<<laughing>you>(0.5)you find bad aso homeworks bad?
010 2J: (0.5)((laughs))(2.3)yes and no.
011 2I: (0.9)†wa:::? ((German dialect for 'what'))
012 2J: (2.2)ehm=
013 2I: =aso(0.9)I have say,
014 (3.0)why find you,
015 (0.4)the homeworks bad.
016 2J: (1.1)yes and no.
017 2I: (2.5)
018 <<p>wiso fingsch se nid guet.
((why don't you like it))
019 (2.0)wiso.
((why))
020 (0.8)u när seisch [du](0.4)[ja u nei>]
((and then you say yes and no))
021 2J: [ <<p>ja]
022 [nei](0.8)homeworks si bad i weiss scho
(0.4)wiso wie fingsch du homeworks.
((homeworks are bad I know. Why what do you think about homeworks.))
023 2I: <<p>aha>
024 2J: böš <<laughing>hesch du gseit.> ((evil you said))
025 (0.3)fi(1.0)ehm:::(0.6)
026 (2.2)
027 2I: what for [for]
028 2J: [nei jitz darf]i mau öppis[frage.]
((no now I can ask something for once))
029 2I: [okay.]
```

Extract 29: 2IJ4

When 2I first realises that his partner cannot follow him, he repeats his question with less hesitation and adapted word order; the second time he uses a German translation to support his partner. Only when this fails does he address the trouble explicitly and corrects his partner in German (line 019). Other-correction might be considered impolite, as it can threaten the listener's negative face (Brown and Levinson, 2014), i.e. his/her desire not to be obstructed in his/her actions. Self-repair, however, is less face-threatening as it does not intrude on the listener nor does it explicate the trouble (ibid.). This is probably why 2I first tries to self-correct his utterance in such a way that the partner can understand before he uses other-correction.

Similarly, in an attempt to ask his partner a question, 2C reformulates this many times but does not use other-correction (Extract 30). He wants to ask his partner whether he thinks one can have a better life in a city or a village. He first asks in line 496, rephrases and elaborates the question after a clarification request by his partner in line 500, and then rephrases or repeats it twice in English (lines 504-506, 525-530), adds an explanation in German (line 532), repeats his question in English again, this time adding his explanation in English but using a wrong question word – a very typical mistake for German speakers, which might have obscured the situation even more (538-543) – before he finally capitulates and translates his question and explanation to more elaborate German (line 561). Following is a long discussion in German about the issue.

496 2C: (0.7) **where live better;**
497 2D: (1.4)
498 2C: think;
499 2D: (0.3) what?
500 2C: (0.5) **where lives you better in the city or in the village;**
501 2D: I want to live in the village.
502 2C: (0.3) no no nid ((shakes his head, probably looking for words))
503 2D: yeah in a vill[age]
504 2C: [where]you no [no no no no.]
505 2D: [I don't know.]
506 2C: (0.4) **what is b what is better (0.5) to live=**
507 2D: that here is a kaff;
508 that hav:e,
509 (0.4) two or five houses.
510 2C: <<p>?hwat the f
511 2D: a Village ((name of a village)) it have a
512 2C: ((laughs)) [a caff a caff] ((laughs)) les Kaff ((laughs))
513 2D: [million people.]
514 [(mime)]
515 [(laughs)] yeah that i
this is a p caff.
516 see camera see that is a caff.
517 2C: no no no no no (0.7) <<whispering>you> [you] you (can't) this.
518 2D: [(laughs)]
519 (1.0)
520 2C: no.
521 2D: (0.4) why [is this] good;
522 2C: [but]
523 [the the]
524 2D: [it's have a] sho[op] [it's have all.]
525 2C: [the] [question **the**] question is,
526 (0.9)
527 2D: that [is the caff]
528 2C: [**where] live be (0.6) [where live better;**

529 2D: [((laughs))]
530 2C: **in a city or in in the village;**
531 2D: es chunnt ja drufa;
((it depends))
532 2C: (0.5)**nid wo du wosch.=**
((not where you want))
533 2D: =that is a caff and that here is not a caff.
534 2C: (0.4)that's a village;
535 [that here is a caff; no no no no; listen to me; listen to me.]
536 2D: [I was in America and we wore and was in a Dorf there was one]Mc
Donald and five houses.
537 (0.6)only that.
538 2C: **wait wait wait listen to me.**
539 (1.6)**the question is where live better;**
540 **in a city or in the land.**
541 **or on on the (0.5)village.**
542 (0.8)**not,**
543 (1.2)**who you live.**
544 2D: (0.7)°°h(0.6)yeah hm yes,
545 h°°(1.8)in the caff I [not live good but]in a in Village ((name of
a village)) I live good.
546 2C: [no no no no]
547 2D: [but]
548 2C: [that hie is a]village.
549 2D: [in a]
550 2C: [that is a]village
551 2D: in a big city;
552 2C: °°h[a land i]
553 2D: [I live]good.
554 2C: of the land.
555 2D: (2.3)
556 2C: land,
557 [or villages]
558 2D: [mir chunnts eifach druf]ab was [obs es Kaff isch oder nid.]
((it's just important to me whether it is a village (pejorative
word) or not))
559 2C: [ja mir wüsse mir wüsses]
((yes we know we know it))
560 2D: ((laughs))I chaminid [entscheide wöu]
((I can't decide because))
561 2C: [äs isch äs isch eifach wo wo lebt me] beser;
ir e Stadt oder im ne Land nid wo du wosch wohne.((it is simply where
do you live better; in a city or in the countryside not where you want to live))

Extract 30: 2CD9

Paralinguistic means are sometimes also used to further explain an own utterance to the partner. In Extract 31, 2A uses gestures and mime to illustrate the phrase 'big waves' and then also adds German even though 2B might have understood the English accompanied by gestures and mime, as otherwise he would probably not have confirmed this (line 157, 158). What becomes evident from these extracts is that many learners often first try to use less direct ways of resolving the trouble and try to use English or paralinguistic means. Only later, will they make the trouble more explicit and use German.

155 2B: is a big ehm <<p>Herausforderung>
156 2A: big wave so:: ((shows wave with his hand)) [grosse]Wellen
157 2B: [ja;]
158 **yeah;**

Extract 31: 2AB10

4.1.2.3 Implicit other-correction

Learners sometimes implicitly correct the partner by modifying the other learner's last utterance. In Extract 32 for example, 1E implicitly corrects 1F's foreignized use of German 'auto' (line 401). She uses the marker 'yes' as an uptaking and discourse-structuring device (House, 2013), followed by other-repetition with an implicit correction to then move to the next topic. By doing this, she shows that she is following her partner, and still manages to insert other-correction. Such embedded correction does not result in a side sequence addressing the trouble but the focus is on the next action (Brouwer et al., 2004); 1F does not pick up the repairable item but 1E continues with a next topic.

397 1E: (0.6)for me too.
398 they too much people,
399 (0.7)
400 1F: yes too much **autos**,
401 1E: **yes cars**,
402 (0.4)and I th think,
403 (0.9)they(0.5)they(0.5)can(0.5)make one children.
404 1F: yes;

Extract 32: 1EF3

Implicit other-correction framed as an uptaking device was even found when the listener only made an attempt at correcting the partner's utterance (line 110).

109 1H: (0.6)a:::' I I go with my:(0.5)cousin: ((pronounced as in German))
110 1G: (1.5)<<p>**cu with your yes;**>
111 1H: and my cousin isch John Cena;

Extract 33: 1GH11

4.1.3 Providing listener support

In everyday conversation, interlocutors show their empathy or affiliation with each other by using assessments, response tokens and agreement (Nofsinger, 1991).

Learners also show empathy or affiliation with their peers by providing listener support, i.e. by using

‘conversational objects that indicate that a piece of talk by speaker has been registered by the recipient of that talk’ (Gardner, 2001, p.13).

In this way, they signal their interlocutor they are following despite any resource deficits or non-standard forms used by the other learner. Gambits such as interjections, agreement markers, backchannels for acknowledgment and other-repetition are used to ‘convey understanding of the interlocutor’s previous turn and signal readiness to continue the conversation’, (Tecedor, 2016, p.28).

Extract 34 illustrates various forms of listener support (in **bold**). In line 037, 1F uses other-repetition to show she is following and to express her disbelief, which she then makes more explicit in line 041 by using a longer phrase to evaluate her partner’s utterance. In lines 046 and 061, she uses other-repetition again. 1E confirms with ‘yes’. When 1F was asked in the interview what the function of this ‘yes’ was, she responded that it meant ‘I have understood it’. She called it an ‘in-between word’ used to not stay silent for too long as this would sound ‘weird’. She then compared this to telephoning when people also say ‘yes, yes’ (1EF8SR). In line 066, 1F assesses 1E’s story with an evaluative response token. In the literature, various terms have been used for these conversational items (for a summary see Gardner, 2001) but many agree that they do fulfil important functions in conversation, such as showing understanding, backchannelling and acknowledging receipt (McCarthy, 2003).

033 1E: [and there are] a lot of photos and photographs and you can
learn it and so.
034 and yes school tours and all,
035 (0.3) and there are more than thousand five hundred people there,
036 and they're and th[at's::]
037 1F: [thousand] five hundred [peoples;]
038 1E: [yes,]
039 (0.3) that's very.
040 [<<p>cool,>]
041 1F: [that's a] (0.5) **that's a lot of people;**
042 1E: yes but is a very (0.3) big museum,
043 (0.5) [and]ehm then we can visit the museum and look,
044 1F: [and,]
045 1E: I think this eh
046 1F: <<p>**and look;**>
047 1E: **yes,**
048 <<laughing>°°> an:d the special isch is,
049 1F: [((laughs))]
050 1E: [that]ninety-
051 fif(0.6)ehm ninety-
052 hundred fifty-
053 eight,
054 (0.8)ehm by the second floor,

055 (0.5)
 056 1F: **yes,**
 057 1E: (0.5)ehm
 058 (0.3)the there are the Claude Monets pictures,
 059 (0.5)and there was fire.
 060 1F: (0.7)
 061 **fire;**
 062 1E: yes.
 063 (0.4)and they(0.4)wa ehm(0.4)next to the::(0.4)building from Modern
 Art was a little building.
 064 and they jump from the window,
 065 (0.4)and ts was by the little Modern by the little(0.4) build[ing.]
 066 1F: [a]::h
 [that's very]crazy.
 067 1E: [and there was fire;]
 068 yes and then
 069 I think we can look how they make that and so.

Extract 34: 1EF8

In general, non-native speakers seem to underuse discourse markers and smallwords, which can have a detrimental effect on productive fluency (Götz, 2013, p.40). Even at a B1 level, learners seem to provide listener support less frequently and prefer backchannels over more elaborate confirmations of comprehension than those at the C levels (Galaczi, 2014). Both the provision of verbal and non-verbal backchannels can enhance learners' fluency during oral tasks (Wolf, 2008). Götz (2013) identifies specific fluency enhancement strategies and claims that learners could increase the degree of naturalness and perception of fluency if they used these more and more appropriately. Besides, 'making positive comments or using other conversation gambits such as "I see" and "It sounds good" ', (Nakatani, 2010, p.94) most significantly predicted higher post-test conversation scores.

In the context of this paper, the term 'listener support' is used despite the fact that previous similar studies have used the term 'active response' (Nakatani, 2010, p.122). The following were categorised as 'listener support': using backchannel markers such as 'yeah, right, okay, oh yes, okay okay' (Carter and McCarthy, 2006; Maynard, 2009), and response token phrases or assessments (Nofsinger, 1991), such as 'that's nice'. Besides, listener support also includes shadowing, i.e.

'exact, partial, or expanded repetition of the interlocutor's preceding utterance to show the listener's understanding of important issues' (Nakatani, 2010, p.122).

In the recall interview for 1EF11, 1F explains that she repeats 1E's utterance when she has understood it correctly and adds 'then it's okay'. This illustrates the function of shadowing as showing understanding and giving the green light to continue.

'I tue meh **so aus wiederhole, wenis richtig verstange ha**, tuenis mängisch wiederhole. tuenis nomau zäme fasse, när. **När isch guet.**'

((I rather **just like repeat everything when I have understood it correctly**, I repeat it sometimes, I summarise it again. **Then it's okay.**))

Extract 35: 1EF11

The lower the proficiency of the interlocutors, the more important the provision of listener support probably is. When breakdowns in communication constantly loom over the interactants, consolidating interactional and relational bonds might be even more pertinent. McCarthy (2003, p.43) claims that

'[L]isteners regularly (...) choose response tokens that orientate affectively toward their conversational partners and project and consolidate interactional and relational bonds in the same way that extended small talk episodes do'.

One core action teachers can take to enhance learning opportunities during task performance is to motivate 'the learner to invest intensive mental energy in task completion' (Van Avermaet et al., 2006, p.175). A major tool for this is believed to be positive feedback (ibid., p. 181). However, if the teacher does not want to intervene during task performance – as in the tasks used for this study – learners rely on receiving positive feedback and being supported affectively by their peers. Listener support, even when used in form of simple gambits such as 'yeah'/'yes' can be used to do exactly this (House, 2010). It is therefore probably a very important kind of other-support in lower-level learner interaction.

4.1.4 Supporting the partner while exposing the trouble

At times, learners support their partner while making explicit that the communication risks breaking down. They do this by explicitly offering help, using comprehension checks or explicitly correcting the other speaker's utterance. However, such instances are very rare in this data.

4.1.4.1 Offering help

A help offer can be a sign of affective trouble among interactants, as it may evoke unequal power between the two learners in that one is more knowledgeable than the other. In Extract 36, for example, 1I needs time for thinking and asks his partner to wait (line 212). 1J then addresses the trouble directly by asking if he can help, but 1I bluntly refuses this help offer (line 213), upon which 1J urges 1I to continue with the next question (line 216). When in line 218, 1I does ask a question, 1J mocks him with the comment 'wow'.

```
210 1J: mach mau ((hurry up))
211 1I: please wait,
212     (0.9)please wait,
213 1J: (0.6)can I help you;
214 1I: (0.4)no;
215 1J: (0.4)okay,
216     then ask a question;
217 1I: yes;
218     I (0.8)have question for you;
219 1J: (0.5)wow;
220 1I: (0.7)oh my God ehm (0.8)eh how was the test with how many sectors,
221     (0.7)is(0.5)in the te[st,]
```

Extract 36: 1I11

Help can also be offered in a slightly less direct way by giving a choice of answers. In Extract 37, after 1C's struggle in lines 030-032, 1D suggests using 'good or bad'. 1C then picks one of the options for his answer (line 034).

```
028 1D: what do you think of sport,
029     (1.4)
030 1C: ehm-
031     (0.9)
032     ((shrugs))
033 1D: is it good or bad-
034 1C: (0.6)is good,
```

Extract 37: 1CD5

4.1.4.2 Comprehension check

Comprehension checks also address the trouble directly. They are used to see whether the partner has understood the speaker's last utterance. The non-understanding can be due to a perceived resource deficit or the feeling that the speaker's own limited resources resulted in a potentially non-intelligible utterance. In Extract 38, 1D is probably not sure whether 1C understood the word 'meat'. In line 299, she therefore checks her partner's understanding.

292 1C: [yes](0.3)als (0.4)the ehm ts(3.2)I know people they ehm ts(0.5)they
work to the Metzger;
293 1D: (0.5)mhm;
294 1C: they can bring food;
295 1D: yeah that's good meat;
296 you [mean mea]t
297 1C: [yes;]
298 (0.3)yes
299 1D: **you know what meat is;**
300 1C: yes I know what meat is;
301 1D: (0.3)I like it;
302 1C: (0.4)I also;
303 1D: (0.9)that's good;
304 ((laughs))

Extract 38: 1CD10

4.1.4.3 Explicit other-correction

The most direct way of making the trouble visible is explicit other-correction. This mostly concerns words rather than grammatical or phonological features of the language. The most frequent way of correcting the other learner is to repair a German or foreignized word. In Extract 39, 2D uses foreignized German for hospital (line 325) accompanied by laughter, which shows that he is aware of using non-standard English. 2C corrects this to English (line 327). 2D then self-corrects and apologetically adds he was tired, thus mitigating the correction (Lyster et al., 2013). In contrast to implicit correction, learners do attend to the repairable and a side sequence is produced (Schegloff, 2007).

```
325 2D:      [ I think ]I ehm have to go to the Krankenhaus, ((hospital))
326          ehm((laughs))
327 2C:  hospital [hos]pital
328 2D:      [hospital]
329          (0.5)I'm tired.
```

Extract 39: 2CD9

2D's mitigation of explicit other-correction above is typical of many instances of other-correction in this data. In Extract 40 below, 1F attenuates the potentially face-threatening situation (explicit other-correction) by sheepishly adding in a teacher-like style that her partner should be using English thus evoking the context of the classroom where explicit other-correction by the teacher is part of the normal routine.

```
645 1E:  but I was: little I was: seven yers old?
646 1F:  ((sneezes)) [((sneezes))] (0.5)aha,
647 1E:      [I don't know.]
648          ((laughs)) Gsundheit;
649 1F:  bless you
650 1E:  ((laughs))
651 1F:  in English please.
652 1E:  (0.4)<<p>bless you;>
653 1F:  okay;
654          (0.8)an:d: yes;
```

Extract 40: 1EF5

In the interactions between 2A and 2B, however, correcting the partner by providing 2B with English translations for words he is using in German seems normal (line 277). There are no signs of mitigation here. The difference in proficiency, which is acknowledged by 2B in the interview (2AB7SR), is so obvious that other-correction is probably no longer perceived as face-threatening. We can also argue that 2B's extended use of German was perceived as an assistance appeal by 2A. In that case, however, 2A would probably have translated the whole sentence rather than only the keyword.

276 2B: Fahrkarte wotsch du die [bsorge;] ((tickets do you want to buy them))
277 2A: [ehm](0.3)**ticket**
278 2B: ticket ticket fo:r the ship;
279 2A: (0.3)yes,
280 2B: (0.6)[tu]

Extract 41: 2AB10

4.1.5 Asking the partner for help

After various failed attempts at self-help, learners may finally ask their partner for help. In Extract 42, for example, 1C wants to say that he likes light brown dogs but lacks the English word for 'light brown'. His word search probably already starts in line 010 with lengthenings and reformulations and then in line 011, he explicitly appeals for help. 1D asks for clarification before she provides an answer. 1C utters a simplified version of his request in line 013, upon which 1D corrects his English (however from the recording is not entirely clear whether this sound was actually uttered by 1D) and then asks for clarification again. 1C repeats his initial question keeping the non-standard form 'on English'. 1D repeats the German word to ensure she has understood correctly (confirmation check in line 017) but maybe she also repeated this to gain time for thinking about the answer, or both. 1C confirms and only then – in line 019 – 1D provides help. 1C repeats the English word he was given by his partner, which may serve as a signal of comprehension – a procedure also found frequently in ELF communication (Mauranen, 2006) and then integrates the new word into his utterance (020).

```
009 1C: (2.7)I,  
010 (0.5)I like(0.5)dogs:::(0.3)becaus:e(1.0)he ar:e e:h(1.1)really;;  
011 (2.3)e:hm(0.5)I like the bro the(1.9)how do you say hellbraun;  
012 1D: what?  
013 1C: hellbraun on English  
014 1D: <<pp>(in);>  
015 (1.5)he?  
016 1C: (0.8)hell how do you say hellbraun hellbraun on English;  
017 1D: (0.3)hellbraun;  
018 1C: (0.2)<<pp>y[es;>]  
019 1D: [light] brown  
020 1C: (0.4)light brown(0.5)I like the light brown dogs,
```

Extract 42: 1CD3

4.1.5.1 Assistance appeal

Such successful resolutions of assistance appeals, however, are rather rare. An assistance appeal often triggers various attempts at providing help – be it the partner helping or finally the speaker providing some self-help. In Extract 43, 1E is looking for the words 'ice skates'. She first uses gestures and mime to ask for the English word (assistance appeal) upon which 1F attempts to provide help (line 081), but is then interrupted by 1E's self-help with a coined word (line 082). 1F adds another guess derived from French or Italian (language spoken at her home) (line 084), which is then transformed by 1E into a word which sounds more English (line 085), then replaced by another coined compound word (line 086) and finally a paraphrase in line 088. 1F interprets 1E's lexical compensatory strategy in line 080 as assistance appeal and both of them show an astonishing willingness and linguistic creativity to find the English word

for ice skates. This illustrates again how strategies work in concert and how the use of strategies is a joint venture of the two interlocutors.

080 1E: I like to ehm go with the:(0.5)((**touches her foot**))
081 1F: with
082 1E: **ice** <<laughing>**shoes,**>
083 ((laughs))
084 1F: ah ehm(1.2)**patti** no no no no.
085 1E: **patins** or so;
086 (1.0)eh the soe **shoes of the glace**(0.4)when we
087 1F: ye[s,]
088 1E: [go] for ice hockey **the shoes for ice hockey.**
089 1F: yes.
090 1E: (0.4)I like to
091 1F: (1.0)eh^o I (1.0)fifty-
092 fifty.

Extract 43: 1EF5

4.1.5.2 Clarification request

An assistance appeal is frequently followed by a clarification request and work on the trouble then takes a few extra turns. The reason for this might be that learners need some time to realise that in fact the partner has not continued the topic but has inserted a repair sequence as a post-first expansion (Schegloff, 2007). Extract 44 illustrates this. In line 095, 1C cannot continue his utterance because he lacks the phrase 'be afraid of'. 1D then interprets that he does not know whether he wants a dog (line 079). Upon this, 1C utters the word he lacks in German, thus not continuing from his partner's last utterance. This then triggers a clarification request by 1D (line 100) and is followed by a repetition of the assistance appeal (line 101) and some provision of help (line 102). The assistance appeal and the following clarification request are both uttered in a lower voice, thus marking them as off-record (Hancock, 1997). The immediate confirmation in lines 103 and 105 help to continue the interaction in a smooth way despite the earlier non-understanding. For the actual clarification request, 1D uses 'what?'; more frequently, however, learners use very simple incomprehension tokens such as 'hm?' or German 'he?' or 'was?' as was also the case in ELF data (Mauranen, 2006; Pietikäinen, 2016).

```
093 1D: do you think you want to have a dog?
094 1C: (1.3)no;
095 I ha I have e:h(0.3)ts
096 (0.5) (0.9) (0.9)
097 1D: you don't know,
098 right,
099 1C: <<pp>Angst>
100 1D: (0.5)<<pp>what?>
101 1C: <<pp>Angst;>
102 1D: you're afraid;
103 1C: (0.6)yes;
104 1D: (0.5)of them
105 1C: yes;=
```

Extract 44: 1CD3

Normally, clarification requests are not 'treated as face-threatening or interruptive' (Pietikäinen, 2016, p.14). In fact, they are often included in the interaction in an unobtrusive way. In the above extract, 1D probably only marked her clarification request because 1C had used a lower voice for the assistance appeal. In line 103, 1C directly orients to the content of 1D's provision of help from line 102, and treats the provision of help as though it was a confirmation check by 1D. The initial clarification request is mitigated by treating it as a confirmation check.

4.1.5.3 Repetition request and exemplification request

Asking the partner to repeat and asking for an example are both very rare in the present data. Extract 45 illustrates a repetition request using only minimal language and Extract 46 an exemplification request while using the school language. The second is marked with laughter and gestures maybe signalling the use of German within the English sentence as non-standard. However, the insistence on an example in line 058 might also indicate that asking for an example was overdoing it in this context, or maybe reminds learners of teacher behaviour. As these instances were so rare, no learner commented on them in the recall interview.

171 1G: (0.6) **he?**
172 <<p>**repeat;**>
173 1H: eh when you are eh old,
174 1G: yes,
175 1H: (0.4)eh I think eh(0.3)äh then you are not,

Extract 45: 1GH3

055 2I: (0.6)play homework,
056 (0.3)eh **what have you** e::h(1.0)ah **Bispiu?** ((example))
057 2J: ((laughs))(0.7)pfh^o(1.8)no.
058 2I: (1.5)**why have you not a Bispiu.** ((example))
059 2J: ((laughs)) [((gestures))] (1.6)<<soundless>xxx xxx>(1.7)ehm(2.4)
060 2I: [((laughs))]

Extract 46: 2IJ4

4.1.6 Qualities of interaction strategies

As can be seen from the examples above, most strategies can be implemented by mobilizing different linguistic or paralinguistic resources. Speakers can for example gain time with nonverbal behaviour such as mime and gestures, by using the school language, filling gaps with hesitation markers, laughter, single words or English phrases. Drawing on more elaborate means, such as English phrases to implement a specific strategy, is not necessarily better, nor shows a more advanced use of English. Using a phrase instead of a single word or mime might indeed not always be more appropriate, let alone more efficient. When speakers have to use a foreign language to establish mutual understanding, they seem to be very adept at using minimal linguistic devices such as repetition or single words (e.g. 'okay', 'yeah', 'yes') to fulfil various purposes (e.g. Mauranen, 2006). Even the use of the school language does not necessarily need to be negative. Within a sociocultural perspective, L1

'acts as a critical psychological tool that enables learners to construct effective collaborative dialogue in the completion of meaning-based language tasks' (Antón and DiCamilla, 1999, p.245).

The school language can be used to provide scaffolded help and establish intersubjectivity (ibid.) – a very important function in low-level learners' talk.

Gestures can complement or substitute most strategies (Gullberg, 1998). They can fulfil various functions in interaction such as revealing agency, holding the floor or coordinating information exchange (Negueruela-Azarola et al., 2015, p.239). In fact, they can be seen as 'as fundamentally similar to oral strategies, and as reflecting the same underlying processes', (Gullberg, 1998, p.35). A fast-growing literature shows that learners use a range of semiotic and paralinguistic resources. They are not only using these to compensate for deficient language knowledge but also using them in similar ways as linguistically competent speakers do (e.g. Eskildsen and Wagner, 2013; Markee and Kunitz, 2013; Mori and Hasegawa, 2009; Pietikäinen, 2016).

Still, overuse of nonverbal or L1-based means might affect perceived fluency or complexity. The strategies found in this data were therefore subdivided into four categories, depending on which resources learners were drawing on for enacting them: using more elaborate or accurate English (e.g. chunks as fillers), minimal or inaccurate use of the target language (e.g. using 'okay' as a filler, or using an incorrect phrase for seeking assistance), using paralinguistic means (e.g. using gestures to gain time) and using the school language (e.g. using a German filler). This is a slight adaptation of Færch and Kasper's (1984) sub-classification of noncooperative strategies into three levels: L1 or another second/foreign language-based, the learner's interlanguage-based, drawing on non-linguistic means. However, in this data, learners drew on the different resources not only for noncooperative strategies but also cooperative ones, such as

when they asked the partner for help in partially foreignized German. Additionally, differentiating between drawing on standard and more elaborate forms rather than very simple or non-standard means seemed to be an important differing factor between proficiency levels.

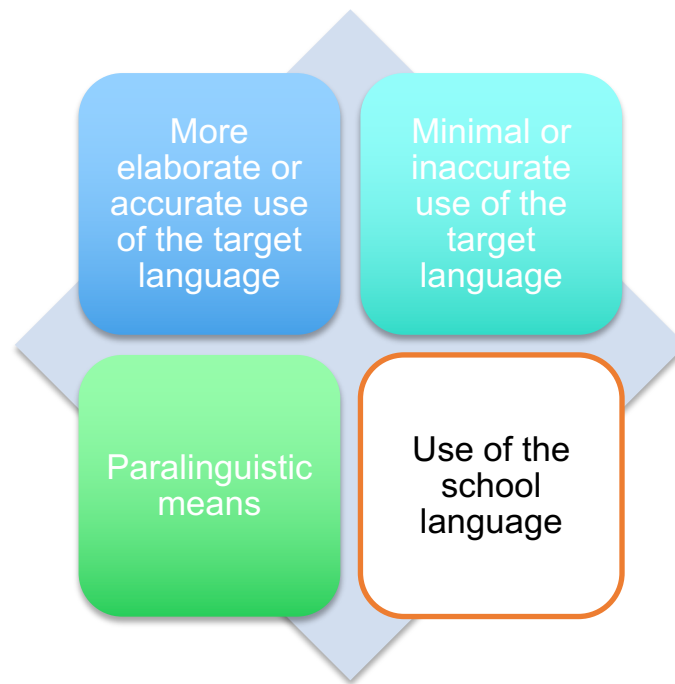


Figure 5: Learner resources

4.1.7 Preferred and avoided strategies

Earlier findings show that learners, for the most part, avoid negotiation for meaning in the classroom context (Foster, 1998) and that they prefer self-reliant strategies to interactional strategies (Kouwenhoven et al., 2016). While learners generally hold positive beliefs about corrective feedback (Sato, 2013), a lack of self-efficacy might be one of the reasons for the infrequent use of other-correction (Philp et al., 2010). Kouwenhoven, Ernestus and Mulken (2016) also explain the preference of self-help by the fact that self-solving a problem might be more efficient, but add that it is also potentially less face-threatening than involving the partner in the problem-solving. Similarly, in an ELF context, monologic self-repair, such as false starts, rephrasing the content, wording or grammar – sometimes adding hedges – is very common (Mauranen, 2006). Unmitigated other-correction, however, is rare in learner-learner interaction (Lyster et al., 2013). This is in line with the preference for self-correction in repair organization in ordinary conversations (Schegloff et al., 1977). Similar preferences for self-repair can be observed in this data: By far the most frequently used strategies are self-help strategies (Figure 6). However, it has to be considered that this does not mean learners either use self-help strategies or rely on their partner exclusively. Rather, as seen before, learners use strategies in chains, and when they ultimately rely on their partner for resolving the trouble, they normally first use self-help strategies.

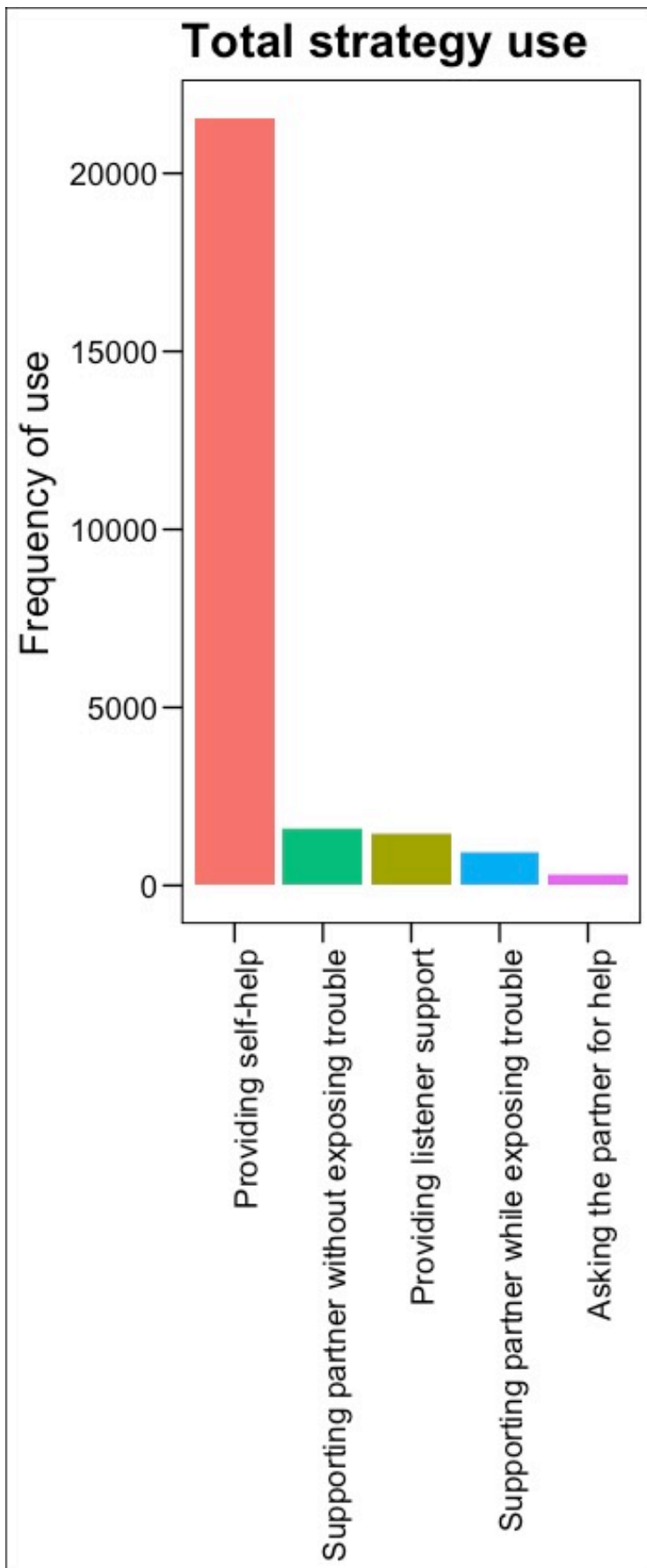


Figure 6: Relative frequencies of interaction strategies (frequency per length of interaction in seconds*1000)

Figure 6 also shows that when support is provided by the interlocutor, implicit support is preferred over support which does expose that there is indeed some trouble. The second most frequently used category is 'supporting the partner without exposing the trouble', i.e. an attempt to support the partner even when one has not been asked explicitly to do so and in such a way that the trouble is not being exposed, e.g. by using confirmation checks and completing the partner's utterance. This is in contrast to some earlier findings that beginner speakers only rarely finished the previous speaker's turn (Tecedor, 2016) but it is in line with findings in ELF communication where confirmation checks and depending on the context also co-constructions were found frequently (Mauranen, 2006; Pietikäinen, 2016). Providing help while exposing the trouble and directly asking the partner for help were used least frequently. Confirmation checks, for example, are used more frequently than clarification requests. Others also found that learners preferred confirmation checks over clarification requests or rarely used clarification requests (Iwashita, 2001; Naughton, 2006). This is rather astonishing, as in the classroom – a place where people gather to learn – we could assume that learners should be more willing to expose trouble and directly ask for help. Indeed, trouble shooting per se might not be problematic in low-level learner interaction.

'The anxiety level of advanced-level students was more strongly influenced by their fear of negative evaluation than was the anxiety level of intermediate- and elementary-level students' (Kitano, 2001, p.553).

In the low-level learner classroom, it is clear to all the interactants that trouble is normal. What might be problematic though, is the way it is addressed. Some more face-threatening ways of dealing with trouble might only be used when tensions rise, as was found in EFL talk (Pietikäinen, 2016, p.15). Teenage learners wish to be accepted by their peers (Kroger, 2007) and speaking in a foreign language as a beginner learner might result in negative peer opinion (Tsui, 1996). Therefore, the first choice for resolving the trouble is probably face-saving. In a study carried out with slightly younger learners (10-11 years of age) than in this data set (Gagné and Parks, 2013), however, learners used more requests for assistance and other-corrections and dispreferred confirmation checks. This difference in preference might be attributed to the age difference; learners in that study had not yet reached puberty.

Færch and Kasper (1984) explain the various more or less explicit ways of assistance appeal by building on Grice's 'cooperative principle' (Grice, 1975). They claim that the interaction is governed by the principle 'if learners signal that they are having problems formulating themselves, help out', (Færch and Kasper, 1984, p.55). This, they continue, is however in conflict with facesaving principles (Goffman, 2014). Explicitly addressing the partner's resource deficit might damage his/her positive face (Brown and Levinson, 2014) and is therefore being avoided, and confirmation checks are used

instead of other-correction or clarification requests. Extract 47 illustrates the preference for less face-threatening strategies. In lines 115 and 117, 1F attempts to complete 1E's unfinished utterance – a support strategy which does not expose the trouble. Her guesses seem not to work, and it is only then that 1E asks the partner for help by saying the wanted word in German, which is still a very effortless and efficient way of involving the partner in resolving the trouble – much more economical than for example asking with the phrase 'What does xx mean in English?'. Finally, they solve the problem by agreeing on a coined compound.

113 1F: (0.6)and do you [like;]
 114 1E: [and]you can eh go ehm
 115 1F: (0.3)walking;
 116 1E: (0.5)no.
 117 1F: shopping,
 118 1E: schlittschuhfahren;
 119 1F: ?ah ehm(1.4)
 120 1E: pate
 121 1F: pa nei[((laughs))]
 122 1E: [patiner] ((laughs)) ehm
 123 1F: e:::h
 124 1E: yes.
 125 1F: yes:: i::c::::e(0.9)
 126 1E: ice-
 127 walking,
 128 1F: (0.3)yes;
 129 yes.
 130 1E: ((laughs)) ((laughs)) ice-
 131 1F: ice-
 132 walking
 133 1E: dancing.
 134 1F: nice idea.

Extract 47: 1EF9

Another explanation for a preference for less explicit ways of assistance appeal is the fact that these provide the interlocutor with a wider range of response possibilities. As Færch and Kasper (1984, p.57) point out, by using more implicit ways of problem indication, such as implicit signals of uncertainty (e.g. hesitation phenomena),

‘the conditional relevance of the speech act is low, as it allows for a wide range of socially acceptable responding behaviour’.

Because of the wider range of response possibilities, low-level learners might be able to react in a socially acceptable way despite their limited linguistic resources. It might be easier to complete the partner's utterance with an anticipated item and thus have the freedom to also draw on paralinguistic or L1-based resources than to respond to a direct assistance appeal, such as an appeal for a translation of a specific item to the target language.

In Extract 48, for example, 1G wants to tell his partner that he likes doing homework such as preparing a presentation. In the stimulated recall interview, he says

he wanted to say 'ä Vortrag' (a talk) but he did not know what this was and therefore said 'presentation' because he thought this was closest to 'ä Vortrag' (talk) (1GH4SR). For him, using 'presentation' is a lexical compensatory strategy. In line 041, 1H asks for confirmation whether 1G meant a power point presentation and thus provides some help without making explicit that his partner does not know a word. 1G then expresses his ignorance (line 046), hesitates and states that he does not know what it is in English. This utterance might be considered an assistance appeal, and in fact some learners do use expressions of ignorance to indirectly appeal for help. By only asking for help indirectly, they can keep the floor, and at the same time check whether their partner can possibly help. If the partner cannot provide help, the problem need not be addressed further and the partner will not lose face by stating that she/he does not know. This is what happens in this extract: The trouble is not considered any further.

```

035 1H: e::hm ts w which homework d eh do you like to make;
036 1G: (0.5)ehm[I ]like homeworks like a presentation,
037
038 1H:          [((laughs))]
039      aha=
040 1G: =or eh' yes.
041 1H: <<laughing>ah power point,>
042      [((laughs))]
043 1G: [a power point presentation or](0.3)ehm I don't ehm:(1.3)can say
      this [in]German ehm(0.5)
044 1H:          [(corre)]
045      eh
046 1G: don't know what it is in:(0.4)English.
047 1H: e: [:h ]I like fo eh to learn(0.5)learning words,
048 1G:      [sorry.=]
049 1H: eh a:nd(0.5) test[s]
050 1G:          [do?] you? like?
051 1H: (0.8)((laughs))(0.3)yes;

```

Extract 48: 1GH4

Linguistic reasons might also play a part for the assistance seeker, not merely for the interlocutor. Iwashita (2001), for example explained the prevalence of confirmation checks in her data with the fact that uttering a confirmation check is linguistically less demanding and more efficient than using a clarification request. However, clarification requests can also be uttered with very limited resources, e.g. by using 'hm?', which is exactly the same in the school language. If it was for linguistic reasons only, clarification requests might therefore be used with equal frequency as confirmation checks. Preference of specific strategies may also be task-induced. Visual inspection of a plot of the frequencies for every task, however, showed that this is probably not the case. Figures 7 to 11 contain density plots of how frequently the different strategies were used at the different points in time (for Descriptives see Appendix 18). For most strategies, the density plots remain very similar over time. There are at times some changes, such as at

time point 7 higher use of self-help can be observed. Overall, however, frequencies are very similar during all the interactions.

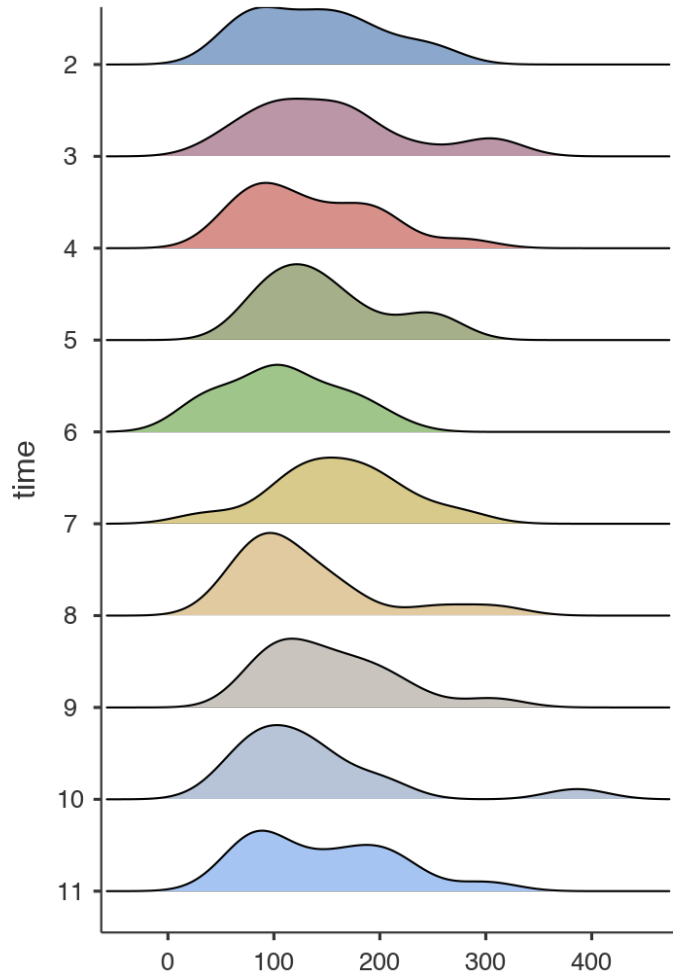


Figure 7: Density plot of how often self-help is used in interactions 2-11

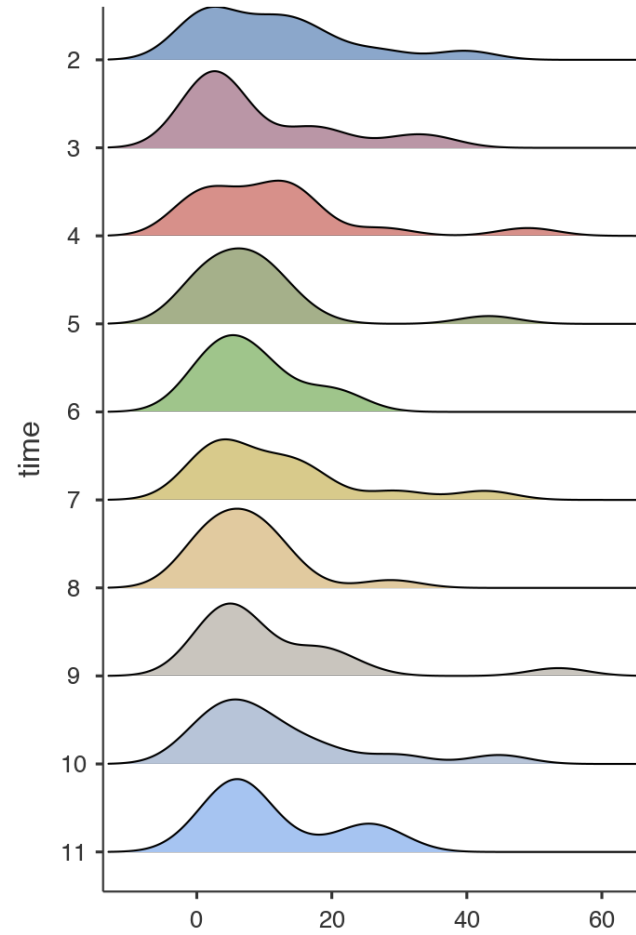


Figure 8: Density plot of how often the partner is supported without exposing the trouble

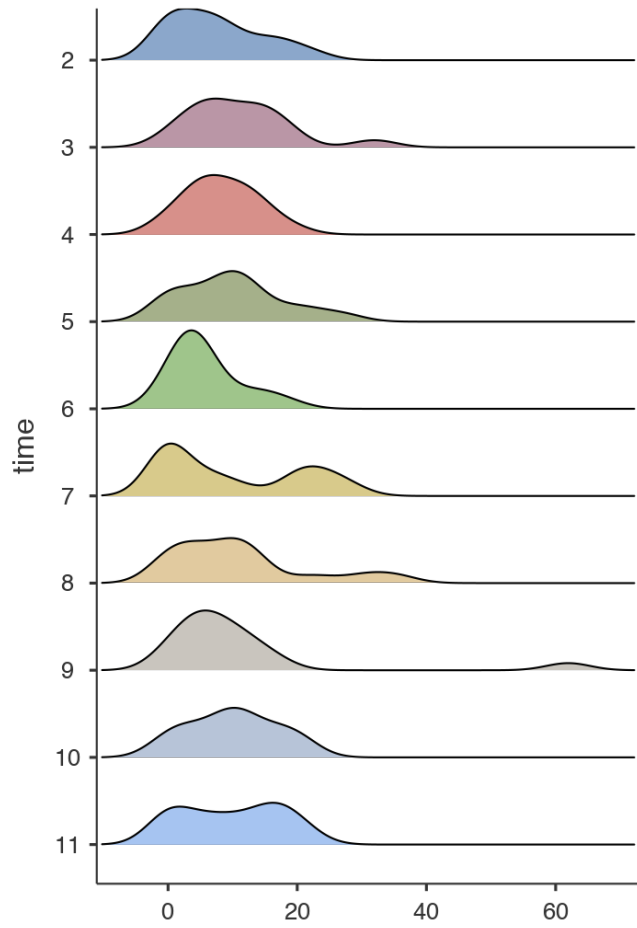


Figure 9: Density plot of how often listener support is provided

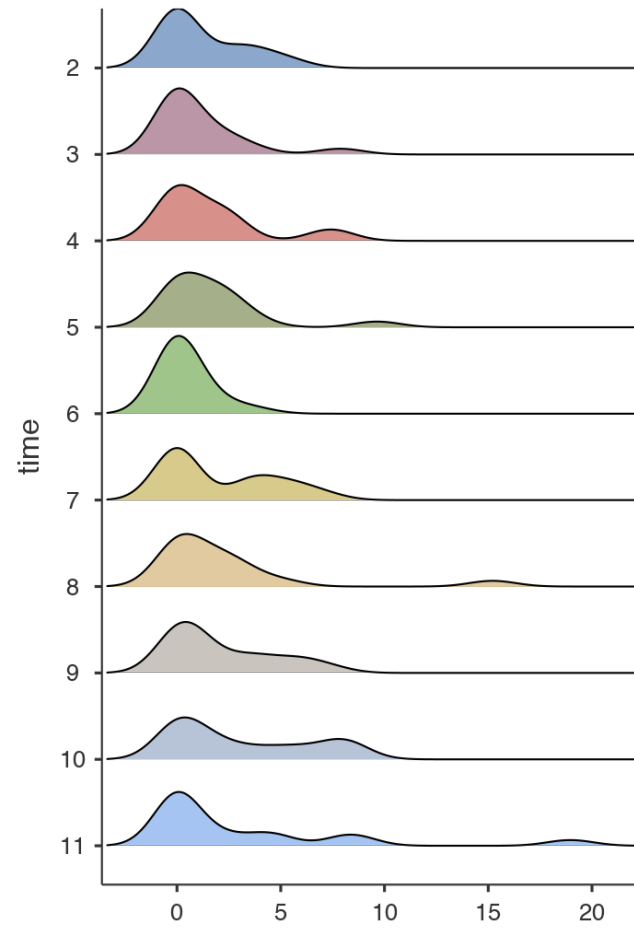


Figure 10: Density plot of how often the partner is supported while exposing the trouble

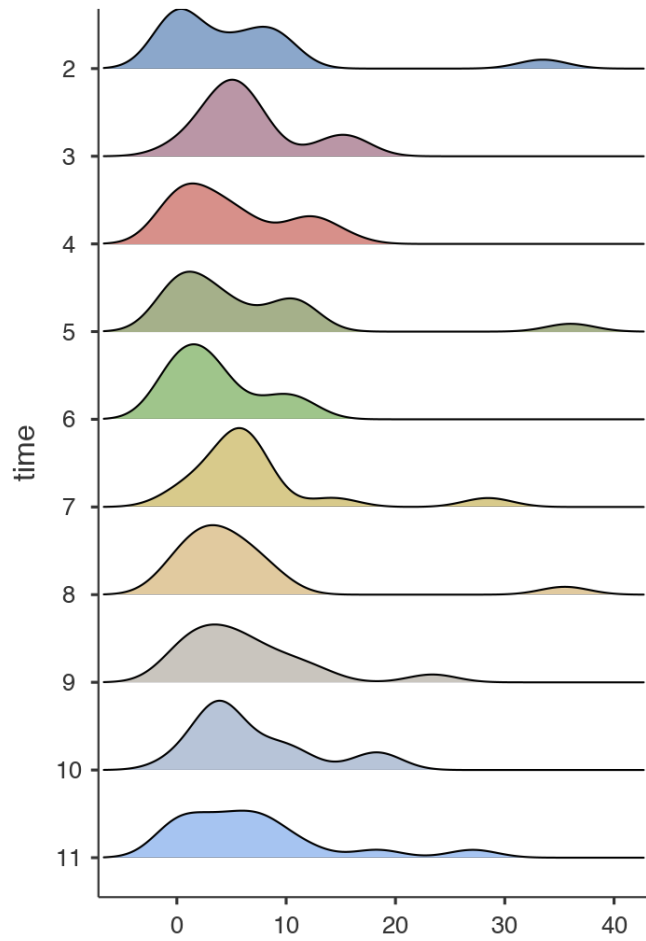


Figure 11: Density plot of how often the partner is asked for help

4.1.8 Avoiding or addressing the trouble source

Learners in this study do not always address or even resolve the trouble. They may feign understanding or leave a negotiation move unresolved. When seeking assistance and neither of the interlocutors can provide satisfactory support, they often indicate with an expression such as 'forget it' that they do not want to address the trouble any further. In the middle of a turn, learners may add 'and yeah' suggesting that they actually wanted to continue but because of lack of ideas or words decided to stop. Learners might also just ignore the unresolved trouble. In Extract 49 for example, 1E and 1F are talking about where they want to go for an expedition. 1E states she wants to go to Madagascar to see the penguins. 1F then claims that penguins do not live in Madagascar, but 1E was referring to the movie 'Madagascar'. In line 147, 1F still wants to contradict but obviously lacks a word. Instead of assisting her partner, 1E does not address the trouble but returns to her earlier statement that she wants to go to Madagascar.

```
132 1E:  oh°° I know where;
133 1F:  where;
134 1E:  (0.4)to Madagascar;
135 1F:  (0.5)oh no;
136 1E:  [by the pinguins pe pinguins; ]
137 1F:  [(laughs)][pingu      ]ins?
138 1E:  [there are      ]
139      yes in the Madagascar;
140      but also ehm pingus there are in the Madagascar;
141      [(laughs)]
142 1F:  [e:h the pinguins are ]
        in the Antarctica and [e' in the Ma]dagascar a:re(0.5)
143 1E:  [yes but]
144      it's a film;
145 1F:  oh sorry;
146 1E:  ((laughs))with the four xxx xxx pinguins;
147 1F:  (0.4)ye[s but]that's: not:(1.1)eh(1.4)h°°(0.5)
148 1E:  [you know,]
149      I want to go in the Madagascar;
150      point;
```

Extract 49: 1EF11

Such instances of obvious message abandonment, however, are surprisingly rare in this dataset as the following plot shows (Figure 12). Frequencies are plotted as box-and-whisker plots indicating the mean and the variability outside the upper and lower quartile with which a learner is seen to avoid trouble in the interaction. There might of course be cases of avoidance which are not observable in the data. The relatively low number might also be caused by the fact that learners can always switch to German to solve the problem. As learners do not truly solve the problem in the target language,

some researchers have therefore subsumed such problem-solving under 'avoidance' (e.g. Nakatani, 2006).

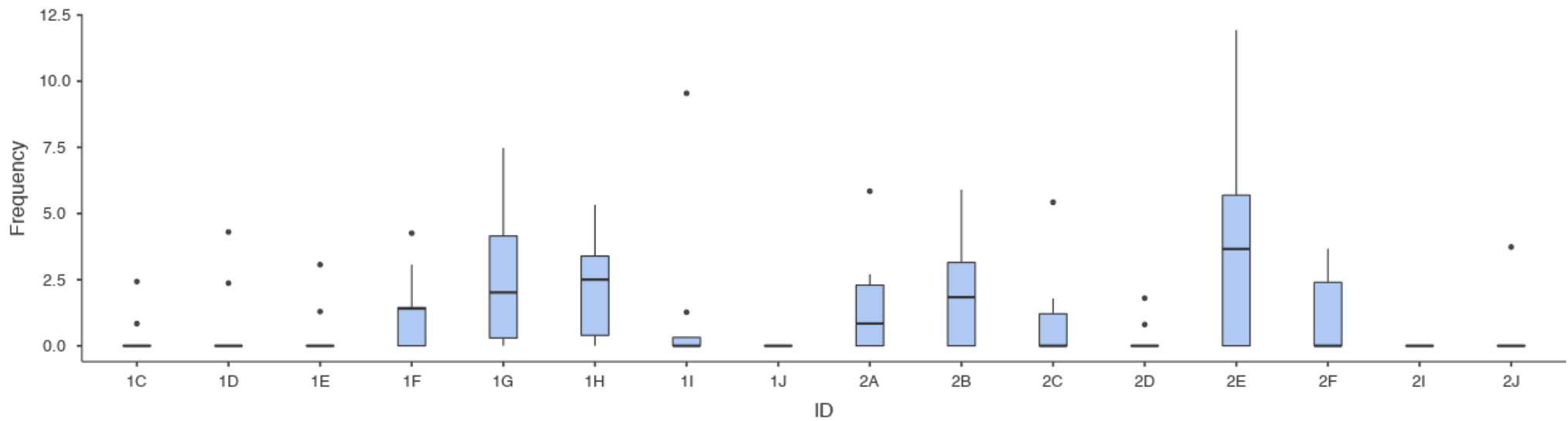


Figure 12: Frequency with which trouble is avoided (leaving a negotiation move unresolved, using 'forget it', 'and yeah' or similar phrases to signal that one is not willing to address the trouble source any further, pretending to understand (as mentioned in the recall interview))

Sometimes, learners keep looking for a word they lack even though they have established mutual understanding. In Extract 50, 1F tells her partner that her schoolbag was very full on Tuesday. In line 296, 1F first hesitates and attempts various beginnings of a word and then points at her school bag. 1E confirms her understanding by saying 'aha' in line 298. Still, even when after 1F's use of the German word the meaning is entirely clear, they both seem to be trying to recall the word (lines 301, 302). This search is then resolved with laughter and an integration of the foreignized version of the German word into 1F's utterance – which in this case was a very successful compensation strategy.

291 1F: [we]
 292 yes;
 293 (0.4)I have ehm
 294 1E: ehm Mo(0.6) [Tues]day
 295 1F: [my]
 296 1F: in my ehm (0.7)**bru** eh in my ehm
 297 (0.6)**par no in my** ((points at her school rucksack))(1.5)
 298 1E: **aha;**
 299 1F: in my ehm
 300 Rucksack,
 301 1E: (0.4) [yes,]
 302 1F: [ehm]
 303 1E: ((laughs))
 304 1F: I have the::(0.6)the:°a lot of my de[sk in my](0.6)rucksack;
 305 1E: [oh yes]

Extract 50: 1EF4

In 1EF3 (Extract 51), they insist even more. 1F cannot recall the word 'arrogant' – she is probably not aware that it is the same in both German and English. After many hesitation markers in lines 057-59, she finally appeals for help with a request for translation. 1E does not know, but instead of leaving it there, they spend the next few turns miming and paraphrasing the word.

057 1E: what do you think do you like dogs or cats;
 058 1F: (0.5)oh;
 059 (1.9)yes:::(0.3)e' dogs are(0.8)don't cats can (0.4)ehm(1.5)she's(0.8) can:(0.8)<<p>ah>(0.5)they are(0.8)ehm(1.1)**comment dit-**
 060 **on(1.1)German(1.4)<<laughing>arrogant,>**
 061 1E: (0.5)aha ehm
 062 T: One more minute then you guys can all start.
 063 1E: I don't know;
 064 ((laughs))(0.7)ehm **but do you want to say that they're so**((lifts her head and hand, looks to the side))[↑he,]
 065 1F: [yes.]
 066 1E: **I'm the beautifulst of the world.**
 067 1F: yes;
 068 **and I don't want(0.8)ehm play with you:,**
 069 **I don't like you;**
 070 but [the dog]no.
 071 1E: [yes;]
 072 1F: the dog e::h play with you::(0.6) [eh]

Extract 51: 1EF3

This insistence on resolving trouble is pair-specific and probably depends on pair dynamic. Similarly, negotiation of meaning in primary and secondary foreign language classes was found to depend on pair or group dynamic regardless of task type (Tognini et al., 2010) and to vary across dyads and individuals (Foster, 1998; e.g. Eckerth, 2009). Some pairs in this data, such as 1EF tend to follow-up on their trouble despite mutual understanding whereas others do not. Some are even willing to follow-up on trouble over many turns, despite the fact that inserting more than three repair sequences is rather unusual, and interactants then normally try to find alternative ways to continue the conversation (Schegloff, 2007, p.106). In Extract 52 for example, 2B wants to say that 'in a sausage, there is a mixture of sheep heart and lung'. This utterance is constructed over 30 turns and still, at the end, it is not clear whether they reached mutual understanding. From line 252, 2B seems to have lost his partner. 2A interprets 2B's long stretch in German dialect in lines 252-256 as an assistance appeal for the word 'sausage' but his suggestion is ignored by 2B (line 259) who seems to be looking for the ingredients of the sausage. In lines 268-274, 2A gives up and initiates a new topic. The sorting out of trouble includes two completions (lines 236, 278), two confirmation checks (line 238, 291), twice an own accuracy check (line 244, 259), two assistance appeals (line 280, 298) and a clarification request (line 297).

225 2B: (0.6)mh ts Thursday afternoon,
 226 (0.4)m hä ehm (0.6)eat(0.7)
 227 ehm(0.4)sousages,
 228 2A: (0.3)sousitsch;
 229 2B: sausage,
 230 sausage,
 231 (0.6)eh has:
 232 2A: ((laughs))
 233 2B: it nie has
 234 2A: <<p>yes>
 235 2B: in [the sau]sage [it is]
 236 2A: [is]
 237 [a sheep]heart
 238 2B: **a sheep hea:rt;**
 239 (0.3)ehm hai[:r]
 240 2A: [liver;]
 241 [**hair;**]
 242 2B: [((laughs))((laughs))nää nid hair;
 243 2A: uä
 244 2B: ehm m:::(0.6)**bo;**
 245 ((gestures))
 246 2A: ((laughs))
 247 sheep heart.
 248 2B: eh sheep,
 249 (0.7)
 250 2A: Haggis;
 251 (0.6)[eats Haggis;]
 252 2B: [n ne ne]ne ne ne.
 253 ia:: eh ds Bild hilft o nid viel; ((this picture does not help a lot))
 254 (2.4)vo wsa isch ds Schof Züg; ((what's is this sheep thing))
 255 (2.1)<<laughing>näi nid der Schof;> ((no not the sheep))
 256 (0.7)e::h di Wurscht dert; ((that sausage there))
 257 2A: (0.3)Wurscht, ((sausage))
 258 sausa[ge]
 259 2B: [**hö]hö he**(2.0)**Herz::** ((heart))
 260 2A: (0.7)and then

261 2B: hurt
 262 2A: did yo[u did you] wearing [ro]cks,
 263 2B: [??i:::]
 264 [oh]
 265 e:' [the sheep;]
 266 2A: [did you wearing]and did y[ou]did you [(laughs)]
 267 2B: [?wart]
 268 [;<<creeky>>?ou
 ?di>] (0.3) [;<<creeky>>?di>]
 269 2A: [did
]you wearing skirt?
 270 2B: (0.7)a::h
 271 2A: did you wearing skirt,
 272 2B: (0.4)
 273 2A: ziehst du Rock? (('wear you skirt'))
 274 2B: (1.4)no;
 275 2A: ((laughs))
 276 2B: ehm eh the sausage,
 277 (0.6)has a (0.8)e:'[:::]nie de he he[Härz] ((heart))
 278 2A: [sheep heart]
 279 [hurts]hurt
 280 2B: hurt [hurt]yeah(0.6)and (1.0)and ehm <<p>ehm>mbr brre **Lungä** ((lungs))
 281 2A: [hurt]
 282 (0.4)[Lunge][(laughs)][livers]
 283 2B: [(laughs)][(laughs)][(laughs)]livers(0.3)and (0.6)
 284 2A: ts oh i luege nomau ((I'll look again))
 285 2B: ja,
 286 2A: i luege mit mir, ((I'll look with you))
 287 2B: und(0.5)[the sausage]::((gestures))[e:::]
 288 2A: [liver]
 289 [liver and lung]s,
 290 (0.3)and a sausage;
 291 (0.2)**you do want to eating sausage,**
 292 2B: oh o[pf:::]pof bum bum((laughs))[ah äh eh]
 293 2A: [thit from the sheep heart]
 294
 [(laughs)][(laughs)][(laughs)][(laughs)]
 295 2B:
 [;<<laughing>hurt>]
 296 and
 297 2A: **was meinst du;** ((what do you 'mean' (want to say)?))
 298 2B: eh ah eh öh(0.5)ts **rühren was isch ds;** ((stir what's that))
 299 2A: (1.6)
 300 rühren ruhring ((stir))
 301 2B: ruhrding,
 302 2A: ((laughs))
 303 2B: and a fine;
 304 2B: (0.6)
 305 fine eh eat;
 306 mh

Extract 52: 2AB2

To investigate the willingness to resolve trouble, the joint resolution of a trouble source was analysed as to how many turns it included. For this, any turn which was contributing to the resolution of the trouble was counted. In Figure 13, the average number of turns taken for resolving trouble are attributed to the learner who initiated the trouble resolving. If learners used more than one negotiation move as in Extract 52 above, the consecutive move was added to the total. As can be seen from this, only very few learners do at times use more than the three repair tries, i.e. more than six turns. Figure 14 shows the number of turns taken for solving the trouble per time learners spend on-task. What this graph illustrates is the high amount of trouble-solving done by

2A and 2B. Considering the fact that a pair's total process of trouble resolution consists of both learners' turns, pair 2AB is the pair taking by far the most turns to do so, whereas pair 2EF addresses hardly any trouble. Most other pairs used only a limited number of turns for resolving trouble thus confirming findings by others (e.g. Philp et al., 2010; Williams, 2002).

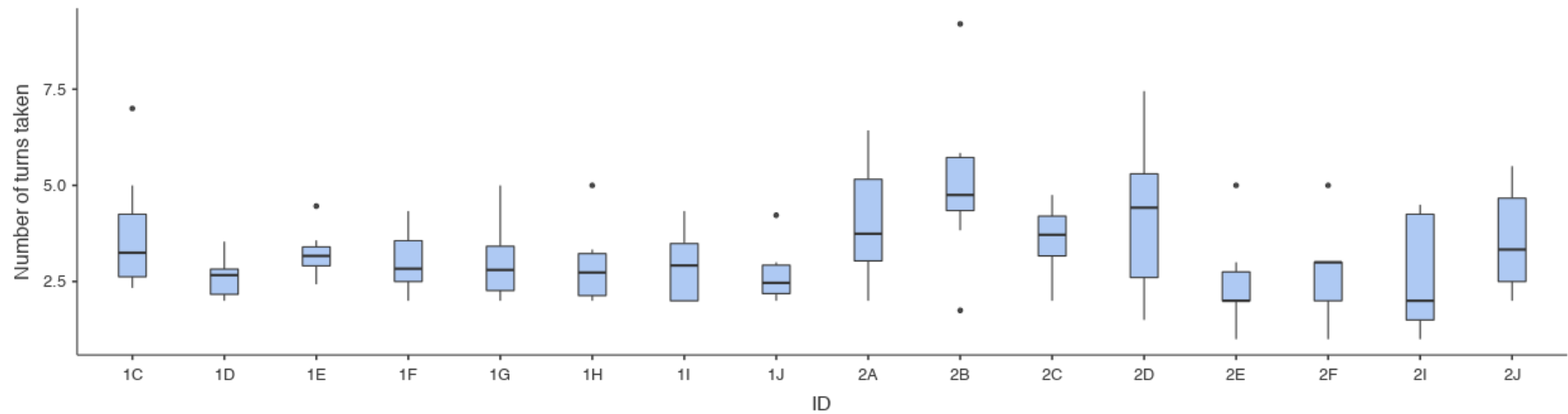


Figure 13: Number of turns taken for addressing the trouble (per trouble source) when the partner is supported or the partner is asked for help (supporting the partner without exposing the trouble, supporting the partner while exposing the trouble, asking the partner for help)

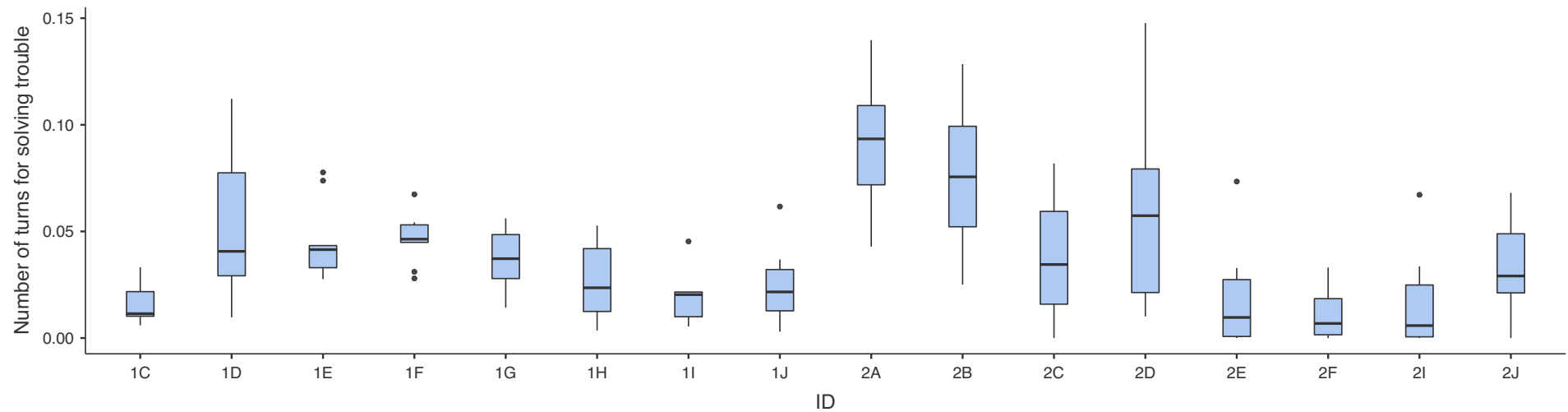


Figure 14: Number of turns taken for addressing the trouble per time on-task

The number of turns taken for addressing trouble also depends on which strategy was used to first address the trouble. Table 4 suggests that when learners asked the partner for help, this triggered most turns, while – unsurprisingly – supporting the partner in a more face-threatening way, mainly by using other-correction, this triggered least turns. A more face-threatening way of supporting the partner might only be used when one is certain that one can help, and therefore no further turns are needed to sort out the trouble. ‘Supporting the partner without exposing the trouble’ involves more guesswork and collaboration and therefore may involve more turns whereas ‘asking the partner for help’ is only used rarely and only when a serious problem exists and necessitates many follow-up turns, as due to the low level of both learners, help cannot be provided very promptly.

	Average number of turns taken for resolving the trouble
Supporting the partner without exposing the trouble	3.062
Supporting the partner while exposing the trouble	2.648
Asking the partner for help	4.477

Table 4: Number of turns taken to address the trouble source

There might of course also be task-specific differences – even though earlier findings did indicate that socio-affective factors had more influence than task type (e.g. Sato and Ballinger, 2016; Tognini et al., 2010). Table 5 summarises the number of turns taken for addressing the trouble by task. Tasks 6 and 8 generated relatively fewer trouble episodes than all the other tasks. With both these tasks, learners had to first present their view, which they could prepare, and were then asked to adhere to this view. This might have influenced the interaction in such a way that learners simply repeated what they had said before and probably worked more against each other, rather than that they established mutual understanding by supporting the partner. Overall, the number of turns taken for trouble-shooting increased slightly towards the end of the school year.

Task	Average seconds on-task	No. of trouble solving	No. of turns taken for resolving trouble	Average number of turns taken for resolving trouble per seconds on-task	Average seconds used for resolving the trouble
2	351.59	62	233	0.66	0.18
3	480.45	82	308	0.64	0.17
4	423.82	85	274	0.65	0.20
5	565.39	96	352	0.62	0.17
6	433.34	60	142	0.33	0.14
7	484.91	83	325	0.67	0.17
8	653.13	103	335	0.51	0.16
9	805.94	168	573	0.71	0.21
10	761.32	138	499	0.66	0.18
11	436.97	94	333	0.76	0.22

Table 5: Number of turns taken for addressing the trouble

4.1.9 Use of strategies by individual learners

The previous sections have demonstrated that strategies are not used in a monolithic way but rather in clusters or chains, and that participants in the interaction may rely on various resources at a time (Burch, 2014, p.647). This is in line with recent findings that given strategies can fluctuate between metacognitive, cognitive, social or affective functions (Cohen and Isobel Kai-Hui, 2018). The way single strategies are combined and the function they serve, rather than the mere occurrence of a specific surface feature, may impact on the nature of a pair's interaction. Additionally, in the interaction context is created dynamically by each contribution creating the context for subsequent utterances (Heritage, 1984). Because of this, it is not surprising that individual learners differ greatly both in their use of strategies and the way they interact. The following section will focus on the individual learner's use of strategies. To provide a better understanding of the differences across and within pairs of learners, it will describe the specific use of interaction strategies per pair. For every pair, representative extracts are presented, and the development and some general characteristics of this pair's interactions discussed.

4.1.9.1 1CD: 'I'm your teacher – I don't want to be your student'

When teacher 1 first listened to the interaction by this pair to prepare the feedback, she wondered what 1D should improve, whereas she could hardly find anything positive to say about 1C's way of interacting. Extract 53 might explain why she had this impression. 1D and 1C ask each other about their interests. 1C does not want to start so 1D chooses the first topic and asks the first question. 1C answers. 1D does not react in any way but looks down and then uses gestures to show that 1C is supposed to ask the next question. 1D utters a word in German, is provided help by 1D and then after a long pause, in line 024, asks a question. 1C reacts with a nod. In a rather unnatural way, in line 028, they then resume the topic 'sports'. 1C hesitates, shrugs, and is again given help by 1C. She provides her partner with possible answers he can choose from – a technique which teachers may use when they scaffold learners' language. 1C chooses one of the possible answers (line 034) and tries to also provide an explanation. After a longer pause, 1D completes his explanation (line 039) and thus provides the language for him. He confirms with a 'yes' and finally also adds a point (line 043). 1D finishes this with an 'okay' and then it is 1C's turn again to ask a question. His question is being reformulated and clarified by 1D (line 048) before she answers and 1C acknowledges this with an 'okay'.

011 1D: (0.6) you wanna start?
012 1C: (0.7)no you can start.
013 1D: (0.5)okay.
014 (0.4)we talk about sport.

015 we talk about sport.
 016 1D: (1.3)how do you feel when you doing sports;
 017 (0.6)
 018 1C: I fee:l: good because I like it;
 019 1D: (2.2)((looks down, smiles, looks up at partner and points at partner
 with open palm, smiles))
 020 mir müesses ((we have to))we have to ask each other;
 021 1C: (0.6)ehm(0.7)<<pp>hm::>(2.3) <<p> lesen;>
 022 1D: (0.6)<<p> read.>
 023 1C: (0.5)reading.
 024 (1.9)how do you fee::l when you read.
 025 1D: (0.5)I feel like I'm in another world.
 026 1C: ((nods))
 027 1D: ((smiles))
 028 1D: what do you think of sport,
 029 (1.4)
 030 1C: ehm-
 031 (0.9)
 032 ((shrugs))
 033 1D: is it good or bad-
 034 1C: (0.6)is good,
 035 eh we can:(1.8)
 036 we can ma can make,
 037 1C: we can
 038 (0.6)
 039 1D: you can go outs outside,
 040 and [do]something,
 041 1C: [yes;]
 042 1D: (0.4) than just sitting on the sofa,
 043 1C: (0.3)yes ((laughs)) (0.5)that's good fo::r the body.
 044 1D: (1.2)okay;
 045 (2.6)
 046 1C: ehm:(2.2)ts(0.7)eh (1.0)what do you like;
 047 (1.0)read what do you like to read;
 048 1D: (0.3)so you mean what kind of: [books do I] read.
 049 1C: [yes.]
 050 1D: ehm:::(0.6) fantasy,
 051 science fiction;
 052 romance but not much,
 053 (0.6) e:h(1.0) crimes;
 054 1C: okay;

Extract 53: 1CD5

1D seems to lead her partner through the interaction and provides him with the necessary language. She is quite dominant and 1C rather passive. Language-wise, 1D seems more flexible and pauses for shorter moments. This behaviour is very typical of many other interactions by this pair. 1D often initiates the topics, she asks the questions and keeps the conversation going. However, due to her higher language competency, she also tends to complete her partner's utterances too early and therefore sometimes rather interrupts than supports him, as Extract 54 illustrates. In this passage, they talk about how long it takes to do the homework. In line 026, 1C starts an utterance but then hesitates and 1D continues (027). In line 028, 1C regains the floor using the first word which 1D used but after a brief hesitation, 1D completes her initial utterance ('when it's difficult', but substitutes 'when it's easy') (line 029). 1C confirms and repeats the word she had provided (line 030) and then hesitates. Again, 1D completes it (line 031). She

then keeps the floor and completes with a more extended contribution (line 033). 1C confirms and finally closes the topic with a more extended turn (lines 034-037).

020 1D: (3.3)how long you need to do your homework;
021 how long does it takes you;
022 1C: thirty minutes;
023 1D: (0.9)thirty minutes;
024 1C: yes:
025 1D: (1.4)it takes me about five to ten(1.0)fifteen minutes;
026 1C: yeah yes it's(0.4)it(0.8)
027 1D: when[it's a dif]
028 1C: [when we ha]ve e'[much] (0.4)
029 1D: [easy,]
030 1C: yes when we have easy n e:h that go(0.7)[not]
031 1D: [five]minutes,
032 1C: [yes;]
033 1D: [when]you have difficult it's kind of thirty:
034 1C: yes;
035 ((gestures))when we have eh more,
036 (0.5)homeworks;
037 (0.8)it can be an hour;

Extract 54: 1CD4

Later in the same interaction (Extract 55), 1C's lower proficiency becomes even more evident. They are discussing what they want to write down, which homework they would rather not have and how much homework they would like. 1D asks a question, 1C replies that he does not know (line 105) but then still starts suggesting something (line 107). Within this utterance, however, 1D already starts the next topic (line 108). 1C seems to think of this as other-correction, integrates it into his utterance and provides a suggestion (line 109). In line 111, 1D reformulates this and 1C repeats at a lower volume, which might again indicate that he perceived 1D's reformulation as other-correction.

097 1D: (0.4)<<p>wait,>
098 a:::h.
099 so:::;
100 (2.3)I mean what kind of homework so(0.8)math and English;;
101 French,
102 German(1.4)what (0.5)not,
103 1C: (1.5)
104 1D: eh(0.6)
105 1C: I don't know;
106 1D: (2.5)
107 1C: we can wri[te]
108 1D: [how ma]ny,
109 1C: we can how many we can write not much;
110 ((laughs))
111 1D: eh not too many,
112 ((laughs))
113 1C: <<p>not too many yes;>

Extract 55: 1CD4

Even after the intervention, when the two were asked to have a conversation rather than an interrogation (cf. Appendix 19), 1D dominates the interaction and 1C is more passive. In the feedback, 1D was asked to use more listener support and 1C was recommended to use more fillers and ask for clarification or repetition more often. Nevertheless, in most interactions, 1D takes the initiative at the very beginning by either asking if her partner wants to start, or whether he is ready. In line 023 of interaction 7 (Extract 56) for example, 1D explains her ideas then looks at 1C, but 1C only nods and does not take the floor. After this, 1D makes the next suggestion (line 029). Despite not taking the floor, 1C, however, is an active listener, which is shown by his frequent use of listener support (lines 025, 027, 036).

```

023 1D: we need many chairs,
024      (0.3)for all of us;
025 1C: (2.0)[yes;]
026 1D: [at ]least one chair;
027 1C: ((nods))
028 1D: and a desk;
029      of course;
030 1C: <<pp>yes> and the desk(0.4) because we can't (0.5)e:h
031      wr[ite](0.3)on the: bottom, ((points at floor))
032 1D: [write,] (0.3)[((laughs))]
033 1C: [or si]t (0.6)the[re eh we]can't;
034 1D: [yeah]
035      (1.1)and we need a sofa;
036 1C: (2.0)mh good idea;

```

Extract 56: 1CD7

Interaction 9, however, is rather different from the other interactions between this pair. It takes much longer, and 1C contributes more than in previous interactions. During the stimulated recall interview, 1C and 1D talk about who supports whom and who talks more, and 1C suggests that 1D often supports him (1CD9SR). Together they then look for a passage in the recording where 1D speaks more than 1C. However, they can't find any. 1C states that 1D usually speaks much more than he does – but obviously not in this interaction. In this same interview, 1D maintains that she did not like the topic they had to talk about. One reason for 1D's discomfort with this topic might be that she felt obliged to praise some very trivial characteristics of the city. In Extract 57, she states it is all so weird (line 224), and then mentions the obvious fact that in the city there are many houses (line 226) upon which 1C reacts to such a trivial characteristic (line 228) with a rather exaggerated evaluative comment. 1D however, continues mentioning other trivial facts about the city, such as the advantage of a sidewalk, and 1C maintains this is not 'cool' (line 238), thus taking control of the further development of the interaction. They then discuss whether it is better to have a sidewalk or just green grass. Later in the same interaction, 1C does not talk about life in the village in general but talks about an

imaginary village with imaginary people living there. He even asks whether 1D knows Mario, an imaginary villager.

By digressing from a rather theoretical discussion about advantages and disadvantages of village or city life and talking about an imagined but concrete here-and-now, 1C probably lowered the demands of the task and was therefore able to be in control of it more than before, and initiate topics more often. Thus, the two learners were able to engage with the other's contributions more. Had they discussed more challenging topics or invented less content, 1C might not have been able to initiate as many turns. This demonstrates that inequality in proficiency need not necessarily result in asymmetry in turn-taking, questioning or amount of talk and thus reduced contingency between turns (van Lier, 1996). Even though van Lier refers to teacher-learner interaction when he states that 'conversational teaching (...) depends on the possibility of achieving interactional symmetry among unequal participants', (ibid., p. 176), this could equally be true when a more proficient learner interacts with a less proficient one: interactional symmetry between unequal participants is possible if they talk about a topic in a way which is linguistically manageable for both of them.

222 1D: (0.9)okay;
223 (1.4)now my city <<laughing>side>;
224 (0.7)**it's all so weird**;
225 <<p>okay;>
226 (0.3)we of course have houses,
227 (0.3)[lots]
228 1C: [wo]::w
229 1D: lots,
230 (0.4)lots,
231 1C: yes;
232 1D: (1.0)of course we have a street,
233 (0.4)and,
234 (0.6)a:: sidewalk,
235 1C: (0.7)we haven't sidewalks;
236 1D: (0.6)but we have it,
237 (0.7)a[nd we have]
238 1C: [but sidewal]ks aren't cool;
239 1D: ((mime))<<pp>yeah I know> but they're cool;
240 1C: it's better with e' green;
241 1D: [green;]
242 1C: [green]green is(1.2)[so good because]
243 1D: [but you have to be care]ful;
244 1C: yes but when you have green there are a lot of fresh air;
245 (0.3)because you in the city you haven't green.
246 1D: (0.9)no::: we have little trees and something,
247 (0.4)an[d you're righ]t,

Extract 57: 1CD9

In the last two interactions, however, the tone changes again. Before the last interaction started, 1C told the researcher he was glad it was the last recording. After they had completed the task, 1D stood up and cheered: 'Yes, we're done!'. Extract 58 may illustrate why this is the case. At various points, 1D and 1C ask for clarification or

confirmation (lines 097, 099, 106, 112, 115) and use rather nasty or annoyed replies (lines 116, 119, 141). They keep telling each other how stupid they are (lines 129, 131, 132, 135) and 1C even imitates falling asleep while 1D is talking (line 142). Finally, in line 169, 1C rejects 1D's other-correction. He seems no longer to accept her superior role; he probably does no longer want to be her student but equally in control of the task.

096 (0.5)°ehm::wait(1.4)well(0.5)where did you do the test.
 097 1C: (0.7)**what?**
 098 1D: where.
 099 1C: (0.5)**where;**
 100 1D: yeah
 101 1C: in Berne,
 102 1D: [(0.9)][?ah okay.]
 103 1C: [(0.9)][(2.0)][(3.2)]ö::h(1.7)ts(1.0)ts(1.1)what was the music;
 104 1D: [(3.2)]
 105 (0.7)music;
 106 (0.3)**what type of music;**
 107 1C: ye::s,
 108 1D: (0.5)hip-
 109 hop rock 'n roll,
 110 (0.7)
 111 1C: why?
 112 1D: (0.9)**what why?**
 113 1C: (1.1)why;
 114 1D: (0.7)
 115 **why:;**
 116 1D: **there[is no]why:.**
 117 1C: [yes]
 118 (1.2)why it was this music.
 119 1D: (1.3)**how am I supposed to know that.**
 120 1C: (1.3)you you: can go ask,
 121 1D: (1.8)the party is over.
 122 1C: (0.5)yes but you° have the ce:h you ca:;
 123 1D: (0.7)do you think
 124 I would seriously go from a ca:r,
 125 1D: (0.3)go to that DJ and ask why did we listen to hip-
 126 hop and rock'n roll;
 127 (0.2)music.
 128 1C: ↑yes.
 129 1D: (1.7)**you're stupid.**
 130 1C: (0.2)no,
 131 1D: (0.5)**you have a brain but it doesn't work.**
 132 1C: (1.0)**I have my brain,**
 133 **it works,**
 134 **better than yours.**
 135 1D: (0.3)**better than mine.**
 136 1C: **yes.**
 137 (1.7) [oke]
 138 1D: [<<pp>ja>] (1.6) <<p>okay;>
 139 1C: (2.5)what have you maked.
 140 1D: (1.4)okay;
 141 (0.4) ↑it's easily ↓we danced,
 142 1C: ((snores and puts head on one side then looks up again))ah yes,
 143 1D: I should shut up right?
 144 1C: no,
 145 1D: (1.0)we danced,
 146 we
 (...)
 156 1D: (0.5)yeah,
 157 (0.5)pizza,
 158 1C: °°°hm:h ah (I de) hunger.
 159 1D: (0.5)hunger?
 160 1C: yes;
 161 you are stupid.
 162 1D: (0.3)what hunge:r;
 163 (0.6)this not an English [word.]

164 1C: [yet I]want a pizza.
 165 1D: (0.4)you're not hungry;
 166 (0.3)**you're hungry not hunger.**
 167 (0.2)that word [doesn't exist.]
 168
 169 1C: [but I have]hunger.
 170 1D: (2.6)e:::hokay;
 171 okay;
 172 <<pp>((unintelligible))>
 173 1C: (0.6)[okay.]
 174 1D: [e:h](0.7)
 175 1C: ?but I want [a pizza.]
 176 1D: [when](0.5)when was the exam;
 177 1C: (1.1)
 178 1D: when.

Extract 58: 1CD11

The change in interaction 9 can also be observed when the development of the frequencies of support strategies and assistance appeals are plotted. Figure 15 shows the frequency of the following four categories of strategies: 'supporting the partner without exposing the trouble' (implicit support), 'providing listener support', 'supporting the partner while exposing the trouble' (explicit support), 'asking the partner for help' (assistance appeal). 1D increases the provision of support without exposing the trouble, and also uses more listener support, with the most frequent use in interaction 9, but both frequencies drop again towards the end of the school year. Instead, 1D increases the frequency of supporting the partner in a more face-threatening way and by using more assistance appeals. It seems the change in tone is reflected in the change towards increased use of more face-threatening strategies by 1D. 1C also lowers the frequency of listener support towards the end, but otherwise does not change much. There might of course also be a task-induced preference for some strategies. As has been seen in section 4.1.7 (p. 127), such general task-induced differences are probably not the case.

Additionally, a comparison of total strategy use by individual learners (Appendix 20), reveals that 1D provides support more frequently, whereas 1C – as might be expected from his lower proficiency – does so less frequently than the average learner in this data set (see Table 6). 1C does use more listener support than the average learner though, confirming that he indeed seems to be an active listener. However, we might rather expect the more able peer, 1D, to use more listener support, but overall her use is only average (Table 6). This might be not enough, as it is only in interaction 9, when she uses more listener support, that the interaction is more equal.

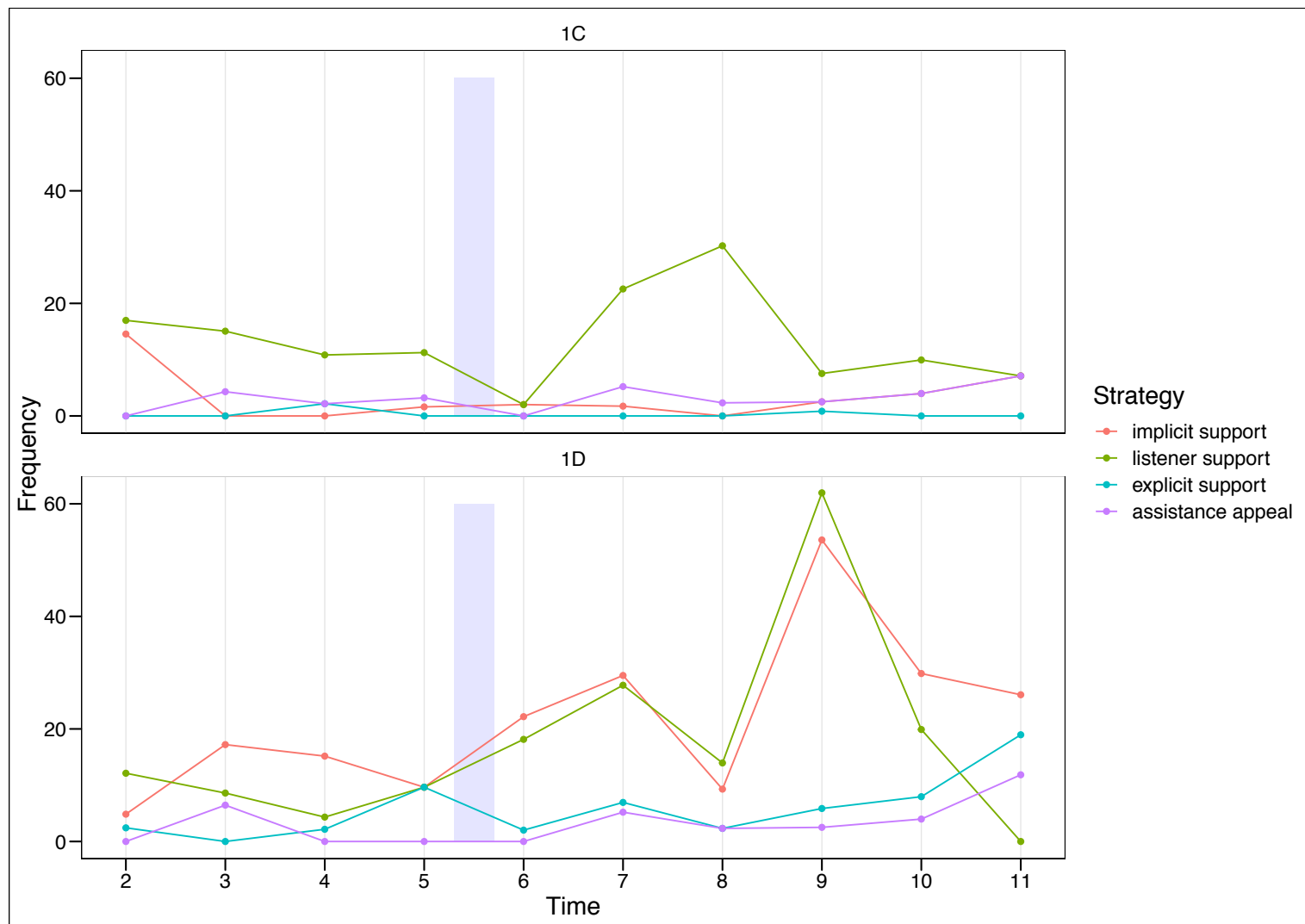


Figure 15: Use of strategies by 1C and 1D over time, measured per 'shared time on-task' (cf. 3.7.4), purple bar = feedback by the teacher

	1C	1D
Implicit support: Supporting partner without exposing trouble	-	+
Providing listener support (including shadowing)	+	
Shadowing only		
Explicit support: Supporting partner while exposing trouble	-	+
Assistance appeal: Asking the partner for help		

Table 6: Frequency with which learners use strategies compared to other learners

green = more frequent than average use in this data set

orange = less frequent than average use in this data set

white = average frequency of use when compared to other learners in this data set

In sum, 1CD's pattern of interaction changes in the course of the school year from having unequal control over the task, and not taking 'directions from each other' (Storch, 2002a, p.127) to both learners having more equal authority over the task. On the other hand, they start off with rather low mutuality, i.e. they start off with rather low engagement with the other's contributions (Storch, 2002a). With 1D changing to less face-threatening support, they share ideas more often and thus display more mutuality towards interaction 9, but they then lower mutuality again. In sum, they change from using a Dominant/Passive to a more collaborative pattern in interaction 9, and then to a Dominant/Dominant pattern (ibid.). Finally, the way the two learners interact can be described as 'I'm your teacher – I don't want to be your student'.

4.1.9.2 1EF: 'We're friends in life and friends in the interaction'

Unlike the first pair, 1E and 1F are friends in life and seem to transfer this to the interaction. Throughout all the interactions, the two learners produce highly contingent talk (van Lier, 1996). They frequently co-construct their turns and complement the other speaker's topics. This highly mutual and co-constructed talk is accompanied by ample use of alignment moves (Dings, 2014; Ohta, 2001a; Tecedor, 2016) such as listener support, completions and confirmation checks. In the way the two girls interact, they display a very low level of social distance (Giles and Ogay, 2007). Additionally, they are among the pairs producing most English (cf. Appendix 21), thus demonstrating that familiarity with the interlocutor might indeed increase the willingness to communicate (Cao and Philp, 2006). When the teacher had to instruct the two learners, she made the following comments:

'The two girls harmonize well, they know each other well, laugh a lot, keep talking without end but their language is not very sophisticated. I'm not sure what to tell them, what they could improve on'
(Field notes data, Emails 25/01/2016).

It seems the two girls need not work on the use of interaction strategies as they can keep a conversation going with very limited resources. The co-constructed nature of their interaction is illustrated by Extract 59 below. 1E tries to complete 1F's utterance but does not succeed fully (line 052), upon which 1F continues (line 053) and they finally both say the word at the same time (lines 053 and 054). 1F confirms this completion (line 55).

```
049 1F:                [yes, ]
050      beacuas:e at the school we don't:(1.3)make°°ehm(0.4)we don't (0.4)
        [are] (0.8)
051 1E:  [((laughs))]
052      so ac
053 1F:  acti[active]
054 1E:  [active] (0.4)
055 1F:  yes,
```

Extract 59: 1EF4

Later in the same interaction (Extract 60), they co-construct a whole clause. In line 233, 1F hesitates but it is clear from what has gone before that the sentence should be continued. 1E completes this (line 234) and both speak in parallel. In line 233, 1F uses the auxiliary 'can' which 1E after a confirmation in line 234, incorporates into a reformulation of her completion. The 'go out' provided by 1E in line 234 then is incorporated by 1F (line 235). Finally, they have both contributed to the clause 'then we can go out'.

230 1E: so(0.8)the sun,
 231 1F: ((laughs))(0.7)yes,
 232 (0.4)and when the:: ehm(0.5)sun is shining,
 233 (0.5) [**then we ca**]
 234 1E: [**then we to go**]yeah **we can [go out;]**
 235 1F: [**then we can go]out,**
 236 (0.5)at the summer e' we can go in the sea with friends,
 237 1E: [yes;]
 238 1F: [and then]we don't

Extract 60: 1EF4

While co-constructing turns and topics, 1E and 1F frequently confirm the other's contributions. In Extract 61 for example, 1E explains when she usually listens to music. In line 657, 1E first reformulates the sub-clause 'when the summer' to 'when the weather is good'. When she then hesitates at the beginning of the main clause, 1F completes her utterance (line 659) and 1E confirms (line 660) and wants to continue but hesitates and is again completed by 1F (line 662). In line 663, 1E confirms this completion. This time 1F does not start the main clause, but 1E adds another sub-clause (line 665) and then the main clause. 1F confirms in line 666. From lines 667 to 675, in a very similar way, as soon as 1E hesitates (line 669), 1F continues, but because 1E resumes her utterance, their talk then overlaps. 1E's confirmation in line 671 overlaps with 1F's continuation, before in line 675, 1E ultimately finishes the sentence she began in line 667.

656 1E: (0.7)a' ehm(0.2)I'd it's::when the:(0.4)summer,
 657 (0.3)when th::e weather is goo:d and all is then I:(1.0) [ehm]
 658
 659 1F: [don't
 listen] music,
 660 1E: no in th(0.4)
 661 1F: °°
 662 but in the winte:r [or when you]are alone,
 663 1E: [yes.]
 664 1F: (0.2)
 665 1E: or r r reading I listen a lot of music,
 666 1F: [yes.]
 667 1E: [but when]I go to swim;
 668 (0.5)and then I'm
 669 (0.7)[out from the][water]
 670 1F: [o::r] [when you]make sport,
 671 1E: [yes;]
 672 1F: [jogging,]
 673 or
 674 [so,]
 675 1E: [then]I listen to music.

Extract 61: 1EF5

Apart from mere confirmatory backchannels, 1E and 1F also use various more elaborate forms of contingent responses, such as paraphrasing previous speakers' talk in one's own words, or developing previous speakers' ideas further, to indicate listener comprehension and engagement (Lam, 2018). Extract 62 illustrates how 1F's asking for

more details (line 24), backchannelling and evaluative comment (lines 20, 26, 28, 32) permits 1E to take rather long turns and thus use more elaborate language than she might otherwise do. 1E and 1F do not only use expressions of acknowledgment but they use various alignment moves and engage with the other's contributions in rather elaborate ways already (Ohta, 2001a).

018 1E: °okay my idea is that ehm we can go to the: °°ffehm [Museum]of
Modern Art.
019 1F: [to the,]
020 (0.4) **aha,**
021 1E: (0.3)it's a::: very cool museum;
022 there are a lot of art work from painter,
023 (0.4) [ehm]
024 1F: **[from which]painter?**
025 1E: (0.6)ehm(1.6)ehm ehm [I forgot]eh ehm(1.7)Claude Monet(1.4)all so;
026 1F: **[((laughs))]**
027 1E: °°ff[ehm]yes and there are ou photographs,
028 1F: **[yes;]**
029 1E: (0.4)[and you la] to like you like to be photos and so then[I think]
030 1F: [photographs,]
031 [oh yes;]
032 **I liked [<<pp>like it,>]**

Extract 62: 1EF8

In general, 1F tends to hesitate more and speak more slowly than 1E. Additionally, from interaction 8, 1E becomes slightly more dominant and less supportive than before. At times, it is therefore difficult for 1F to take or hold the floor. This might be one of the reasons why 1F makes extensive use of lengthenings. Unless she uses filled pauses or lengthenings to gain time, 1E might take the floor in the pauses. In some instances, 1E's completions could be perceived rather as interruptions. In the stimulated recall interview to 1EF8, 1F states that with her partner one has to 'fight one's way through' to be able to say something. In Extract 63 below, she even asks her partner to shut up so she can say something.

261 1E: think that the better idea becau:::se [you was]every day every day was there.
262 1F: [I don't]
263 1E: (0.5)[and you have]played played played and jitz you wa wants go to the: (0.4) Statue of Lib[erty because] it's very cool,
264 1F: [((laughs))]
265 [yes;]
266 [okay,]
267 1E: [and we] doesn't was there,
268 (0.7)when you go in New York what do you think where you go first;
269 (0.4)Statue of Liberty xxx xxx and you like to make photo,
270 1F: **clap your mouth please;**
271 **I want to speak too.**
272 (1.2)when(0.6)the weather(0.7)is perfect;
273 beautiful;
274 (0.4)the sun is shining;

Extract 63: 1EF8

In this same interaction, we also find an instance of a potentially face-threatening other-correction (Extract 64). In line 111, 1E teases her partner that she has a problem with the use of 'why' and 'because', very much like another learner in that same class. However, she only exposes 1F's weakness after 1F had already self-corrected (line 10), which mitigates this rather blunt other-correction. The other-correction results in laughter by both learners.

```

106 1F:  why not;
107 1E:  (0.5)because Australia i:::s°°f not so good;
108 1F:  (1.0)because;
109     eh why;
110     [((laughs))][why?]
111 1E:  [((laughs))][you ha|ve a problem with why and because?]
112 1F:  no,
113     [((laughs))]
114 1E:  [((laughs))]like 1J
115 1F:  (1.4)but I'm don't 1J
116 1E:  (0.7)
117 1F:  no ehm
118 1E:  (0.3)okay;

```

Extract 64: 1EF10

Interestingly, right before this interaction, 1E was given the feedback to use phrases for providing listener support more frequently, but in total she actually provides less listener support both before and after this feedback (Figure 16). Yet 1E does give the floor when needed and continues providing listener support by using single words. In Extract 65 below, taken from interaction 8, 1E uses single word listener support in lines 133, 135, 139, 141 and 144 so that 1F can produce rather extended turns. Within otherwise collaborative talk, 1E's dominance and teasing seem not to be problematic. For 1F, however, no such change is visible apart from the fact that she uses fewer assistance appeals from interaction 8 onwards, even though one assistance seeking strategy was in fact targeted with the feedback. In contrast to 1CD, for both 1E and 1F, providing implicit support and listener support are always the most frequently used strategies (cf. Figure 16). In pair 1CD, only the higher-level learner uses this same pattern (apart from the very last interaction). Using the same set of strategies most frequently might further reflect 1EF's equality.

```

128 1E:  and what is your idea?
129 1F:  (0.8)my are the better idea.
130     (0.5)because;
131     (0.7)e::h °°h I want to go to the Central Park,
132     (1.3)
133 1E:  oka [y, ]
134 1F:  [the ]biggest park of the world.
135 1E:  (0.5)okay,
136 1F:  I think.
137     (0.5)<<laughing>°°h> a::nd(1.3)ehm it covers s:ix pert per percent,

```

138 °°hfrom the area of Manhattan.
139 1E: (0.5) **oh.**
140 1F: that's a lot.
141 1E: **yes.**
142 1F: that's a ehm so big.
143 (1.4)in: the card.
144 1E: (0.5) **so big**[(laughs)]I think what are you saying?
145 1F: [(laughs)]
146 (0.3)((caughs))and(0.5)the crazy is;
147 (0.4)in this park,
148 you can make all.
149 (1.2)all.
150 you can play f: f football;
151 you can [play:][badminton][<<p>in this.>]

Extract 65: 1EF8

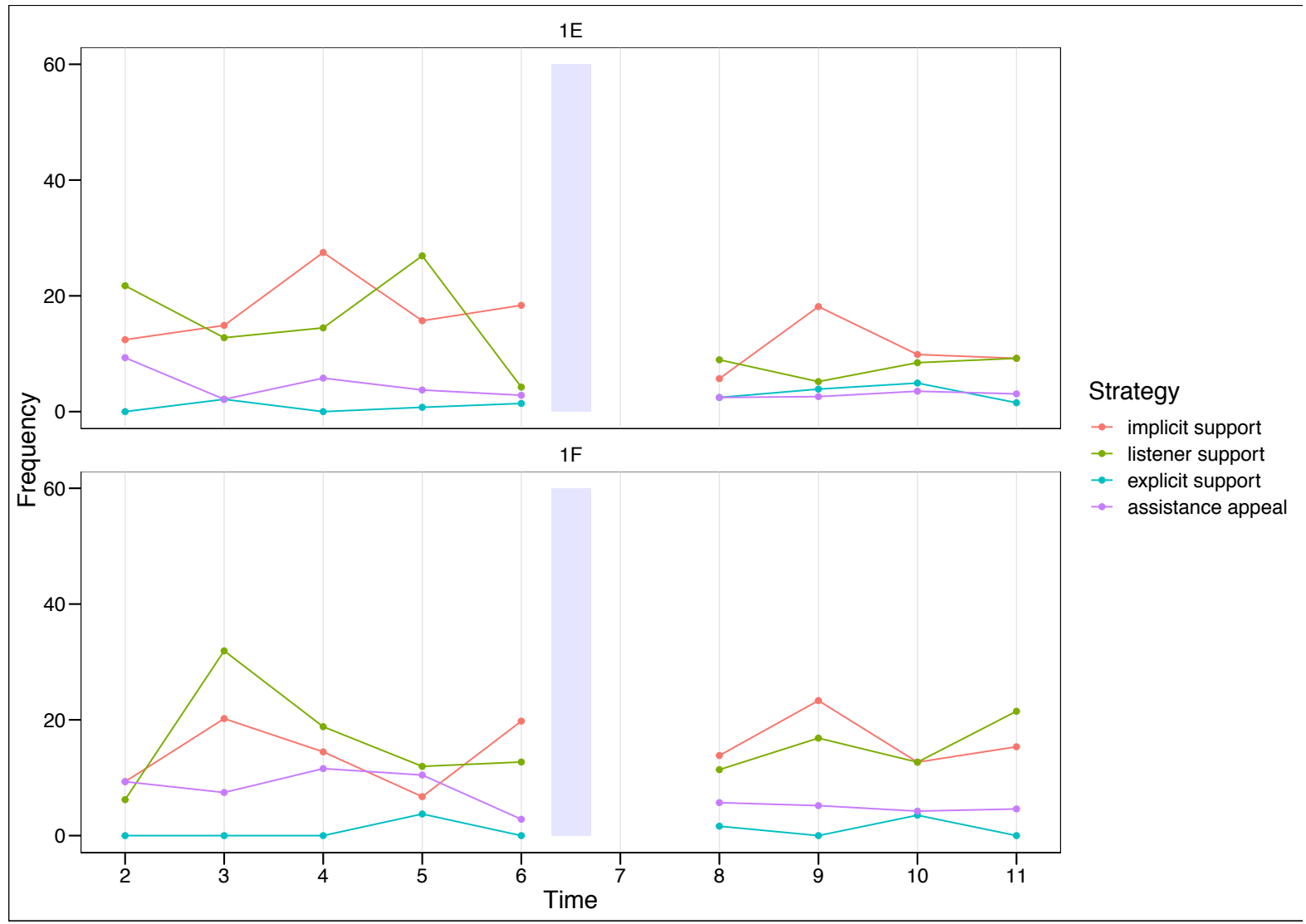


Figure 16: Use of strategies by 1E and 1F over time, measured per 'shared time on-task' (cf. 3.7.4), purple bar = feedback by the teacher

In sum, this pair can be described as ‘We’re friends in life and friends in the interaction’. 1E and 1F support each other with relatively high frequency in non-face-threatening ways. 1F uses more non-face-threatening support strategies and provides more listener support but uses fewer potentially face-threatening support strategies than the average learner in this data set but relatively fewer support strategies while exposing the trouble (Table 7). 1E uses more non-face-threatening support strategies than other learners but an average number of implicit support strategies. Despite some inequalities in fluency, their interactions display very high mutuality and equality, which results in a highly collaborative pattern of interaction (Storch, 2002a). Their interaction is ‘rich in reciprocal instruction and a sharing of ideas’, (ibid., p. 127).

	1E	1F
Implicit support: Supporting partner without exposing trouble	+	+
Providing listener support (including shadowing)		+
Shadowing only		+
Explicit support: Supporting partner while exposing trouble		-
Assistance appeal: Asking the partner for help		

Table 7: Frequency with which learners use strategies compared to other learners

4.1.9.3 1GH: 'Let's play and learn English at the same time'

1G and 1H usually start by greeting each other and introducing themselves with a new identity. In 1GH6 (Extract 66), 1G uses gestures to set the scene: He acts out as though they could see the mountains and snow, but from where they are sitting they can in fact only see the forest and no snow at all. The mountains are far away, hidden behind a hill.

009 1G: oh a nice day;
010 ((laughs))[(laughs)]oh **show the mountain:s**;
((stretches out his arm and points to the window))
011 1H: [(laughs)]
012 ((laughs)) oh
013 1G: **the mountains here show show**; ((stretches out his arm and points to the window))
014 1H: (0.4)
015 yes,
016 1G: nice;
017 (0.3)**the snow**;
018 (0.3)wonderful.
019 1H: yes,
020 that's v very w:onderful and beautiful;

Extract 66: 1GH6

Similarly, in 1GH10, 1G starts by claiming he's the world's greatest explorer. With this claim he sets the scene for using humour, inventing content and using exaggerations. This is the playful side to their interactions, peppered with laughter and crazy ideas. At the same time, the two learners display a willingness to use and learn English even when discussing task management as in Extract 67 below. They have actually finished the task and now want to write down what they have agreed on. Other pairs would have switched to the school language for this – as this is perceived as off-task (Hancock, 1997). The transition from the task proper to writing down their answers is indicated by a gesture (line 235). In line 238, 1H asks his partner in German what they should write, upon which he is reminded by 1G to use English for this, which he then does.

231 1H: (0.9)e::' a' okay;
232 (0.5)we can write;
233 1G: (0.9)e::' okay;
234 1H: eu
235 tschu, ((puts hand in front of camera and takes it away again))
236 1G: [(1.2)][((laughs))][(3.1)]
237 1H: [(laughs)][(1.4)][(3.1)]was weimer bim Mäntig genau schribe;
238 ((what exactly should we write for Monday))
239 1H: ((laughs))
240 1G: **please**,
241 (0.6)ehm **speak in English**.
242 1H: okay.

Extract 67: 1GH2

1G's level of English seems to be slightly higher than 1H's. Still, 1G does wait long enough for his partner to contribute and if possible he scaffolds his partner's talk. With the 'mh mhm' in line 294 of Extract 68, he signals that he is following. Additionally, he turns his head, looks at his partner, and waits for him to give more clues (line 295). His partner then uses gestures and mime to express the intended meaning rather than switching to German (line 279), upon which 1G provides some language, not for what 1H mimed but for its consequence, that cycling in the mountains is probably a stupid idea (line 298). 1H only half-heartedly accepts this offer (line 299) and initiates another topic (line 301).

292 1H: (1.0)but is a:: little is a little(1.3)okay;
 293 a little bit: e:hm(1.0)
 294 1G: mh mhm,
 295 ((turns his head and looks at his partner))
 296 1G: ((laughs))
 297 1H: ((imitates sweating))((laughs))
 298 1G: little bit stupid;
 299 1H: y::e::s::,
 300 (0.5)
 301 1H: I think we cycling: to e::h(1.6)eh to the golf place,

Extract 68: 1GH2

Only a few lines later (Extract 69), we find a similar case but with reversed roles. 1G wants to ask for a rubber but can't recall the word, imitates it, upon which 1H provides a word 1G is not entirely happy with, signalling this with a prolonged 'y:es'. Here again, they are using the target language to manage the task.

310 1G: [(0.4)]ehm (0.7)do you have ehm e:h((gestures))
 311 1H: a gomme;
 312 1G: (0.6)y:es:,

Extract 69: 1GH2

The playful approach to the task coupled with the willingness to use English permits these two learners to experiment with the language and attain

'a hybrid interactional form that incorporates some actions typical of ordinary conversation, whereas other actions treat the event as an exercise in foreign language practice' (Kasper, 2004, p.558).

Extract 70 illustrates this. 1G and 1H discuss what they would like to have in their ideal classroom. In the stimulated recall interview, they apologetically mention that they did not have these ideas on their preparation sheets but that they 'simply started suggesting silly ideas' (1GH7SR). In line 410, 1G introduces the first imaginary item, 1H continues from this by adding another fast food chain and then immediately associating a computer

game (Subway Surfer), upon which 1G associates further with another computer game (line 418). Rather than a further game, he suggests having the associated building in the classroom (line 421). From this, 1H continues with more religious buildings. 1G provides listener support by using a complete phrase in line 432 and other-repetition in line 435.

408 1G: [and,]
 409 [o:h I have]the best idea.
 410 (0.4)we make a **Burger King** in the[classroom.]
 411 1H: [(laughs)](laughs)
 412 1G: and a **Mc Donald's**
 413 1H: <<laughing>okay>;
 414 and a **Subway,**
 415 (0.5)**surfer** eh ne a **Subway,**
 416 1H: ((laughs))
 417 (0.5)e:m ts
 418 1G: and a **temple-**
 419 1H: ((laughs))
 420 1G: eh(0.9)**a temple** [not temple runner]
 421 1H: [(laughs)](laughs)okay we make a temple in the
 <<laughing>classroom>.
 422
 423 1G: ((laughs))
 424 1H: and a **moscher.**
 425 1G: (2.9)okay,
 426 1H: and a **church,**
 427 <<laughing>and> e:hm(0.8)and a **bedroom,**
 428 (1.1)to: have fun,
 429 and ((laughs))and[(laughs)](laughs)[e:h](1.0)
 430 1G: [(laughs)]
 431 [yes;]
 432 that sounds nice.
 433 1H: ts(0.3)ah bu:t for e::h ts reading,
 434 (0.5)corner we don't have a s[<<p>a space>.]
 435 1G: [no we don't]have (any) space for a
 reading corner.
 436 1H: ((laughs))

Extract 70: 1GH7

In the recall to this passage, they describe the associative manner of how this sequence evolved (Extract 71).

1G (about line 415): da het är äbe gseit Subway Surfer, das isch es Sipili, när bini cho mit Temple run, das isch o es Spili. u när hani haut Temple gno.

((there he said Subway Surfer, that's a game, then I came up with Temple Run, that's also a game. and then I just took temple.))

Extract 71: 1GH7SR

They also use running gags such as ironically saying 'my mother said' to justify their view. Additionally, in almost every interaction they manage to talk about turtles and mention the fact that 1G loves turtles. This again, provides them with the space to experiment with the language but also use various interaction strategies. 1G for

example, uses various phrases for providing listener support in a rather exaggerated manner as in Extract 70, line 432 above. They also use fake clarification requests and confirmation checks to tease the other. In 1GH10, for example they make use of five such fake clarification requests. 1G takes on the role of the ignorant, asks his partner for clarification and thus creates opportunities for expanding 1H's linguistic boundaries. The following extract (72) illustrates the running gag 'my mother said' and the fake clarification request by 1G. In line 067, 1G asks 'what is Canada', the answer to which he perfectly knows but which takes 1H by surprise. As 1H did not expect 1G to ask such a question, he at first does not know how to answer (1GH10SR) and fills this with the running gag 'my mother said'. When 1H finally provides an answer (line 077), 1G himself is over-challenged (line 079) and does not know what he should say (1GH10SR). In what follows, 1G reformulates his question (line 092) and 1H finally answers with their running gag incorporated in a main clause and a sub-clause (line 097).

063 1H: I have an other ide idea eh we we go: in Canada,
064 1G: no::[:]
065 1H: [with a]ship,
066 (0.4)in Canada eh [m it's a]
067 1G: [eh wh wha]t is Canada;
068 1H: (2.4)((laughs))
069 the that's eh that's why (0.4)e::h(1.0)e::h
070 that's a (0.5)<<laughing>a a a a>that's a land;
071 1H: or<<whispering> (oder wie [seit me ds])>
072 1G: [eh I don't]know;
073 (0.5)I never hear of Canada;
074 1H: (2.0)my mother
075 ha[s say]
076 1G: [where where]is
077 1H: Canada,
078 (0.5)is(0.7)a::(1.6)a people;
079 1G: (3.0)oh
080 (1.8)<<pp>ne>
081 1H: (0.6)
082 aha
083 1G: <<pp>no no no [I]think not;>
084 1H: [oh]
085 (0.6)okay;
086 1G: what is Canada;
087 1H: ((laughs))(((laughs)))
088 1G: [please]tell me;
089 (0.6)I don't know;
090 1H: (0.4)aha;
091 [I I don't]
092 1G: [is Canada]near China o:r nea:r
093 (0.4)eh(2.3)near
094 1H: eh a Canada [I]
095 1G: [(Eu)]Eur[ope,]
096 1H: [I]don't know what eh Canada is;
097 but my mother has said Canada is cool;
098 1G: oh
099 1H: (1.0)((laughs))

Extract 72: 1GH10

While challenging each other with such fake clarification or confirmation checks, they seem to be aware of the language the partner is using, and when they use compensation strategies, this is often accompanied by the willingness to actually fill the gap with proper English. In Extract 73, line 303, for example, 1G uses an alternative word ('table') for blackboard but flags the unorthodox use with hesitation markers (self-repetition and lengthening). 'Table' is closer to both German – his mother tongue, and French – his first foreign language. 1H seems to understand as he suggests a procedure for deciding who has to clean the blackboard. In the recall interview, 1G says that he wanted to talk about the blackboard but could only remember that the word contained 'black' (1GH7SR). This is the word he uses in line 313, but later, he uses 'table' again (line 315, 317) upon which 1H provides him with the word 'blackboard' (line 319). In the interview he states that he wanted to use the provided word later and then by mistake used the other word. 'I don't know right now but I did get that he used 'blackboard'' (1GH7SR). 1G finally integrates the provided word into an utterance (line 323) and once again concludes with a rather exaggerated evaluative comment 'okay that's very good, that sounds nice yes'. Despite mutual understanding, 1G seems to listen carefully for possible improvements of his own language.

301 1G: yes;
 302 that's nice;
 303 and the: (0.6)the **table**:
 304 (0.4)table eh clear the **table**,
 305 (0.8)what's about this?
 306 1H: (0.7)e:::hm:::(0.8)ts
 307 1G: I have a idea;
 308 (0.2)we making a list,
 309 (0.3)and every da:y,
 310 (0.2)i eh another person: ehm clear the table.
 311 1H: (1.6)y:es,
 312 that's good;
 313 1G: the the the **black**
 314 (0.5)
 315 1H: the **table** the:
 316 okay;
 317 (0.5)every day one person clear the **table**;
 318 1G: (0.8)yes another.
 319 1H: **black[board.]**
 320 1G: [we we]
 321 have a list,
 322 (0.3)
 323 1G: from the **black[board** yes.]
 324 1H: [<<p>yeah.>]
 325 °ts okay that's very good,
 326 1G: (0.4)that sounds nice yes,
 327 1H: okay the rules,

Extract 73: 1GH7

Overall, 1GH's use of interaction strategies does not change much (Figure 17). 1G decreases the use of assistance appeals while 1H increases its use even before he

is told to do so in the feedback. This might explain why 1H continues using a similarly high proportion of assistance appeals right after the intervention but then lowers the frequency again. Together, 1G and 1H use a similar number of assistance appeals in their interaction, they only change the person initiating them. Similarly, 1G actually uses more of the targeted strategy before he is given feedback. The feedback he was provided concerned the use of chunks for listener support. The collaborative development of ideas in interaction 7 (discussion about the classroom), probably permits 1G to use more listener support and implicit support, before he was told to do so. In the interaction following the feedback providing listener support and implicit support are still used more frequently by 1G than the other two sets of strategies (Figure 17), but then for some reason the number decreases again.

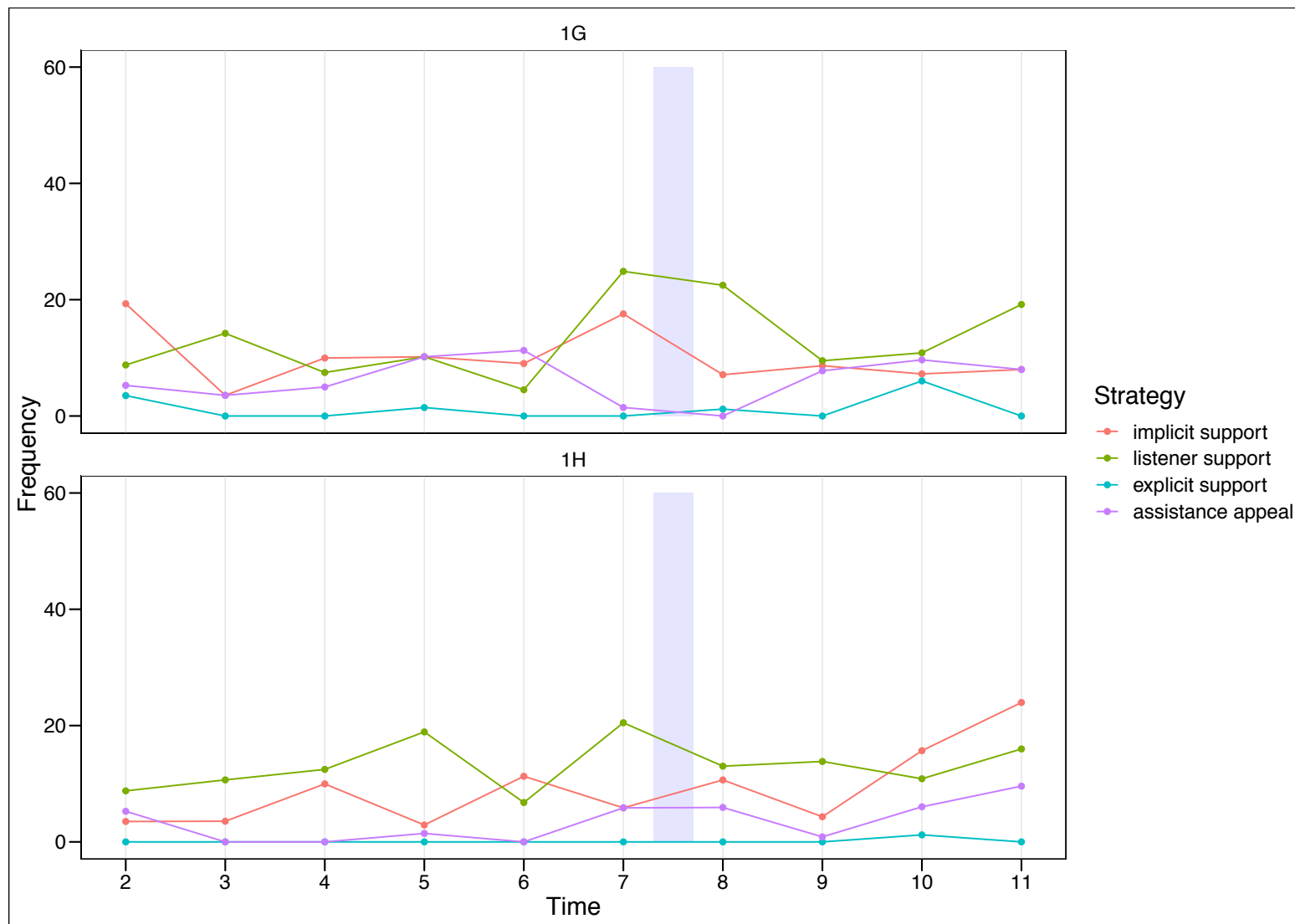


Figure 17: Use of strategies by 1G and 1H over time, measured per 'shared time on-task' (cf. 3.7.4), purple bar = feedback by the teacher

However, despite these minor changes in strategy use, the pattern of interaction does not change. They use more face-threatening support strategies mainly to tease the partner and thus force him to his linguistic limits. They show a very successful use of motivational task processing (Dörnyei and Wen-Ta, 2009), which leads to high engagement and possibly also high learning outcome. They occasionally display a rather high level of language awareness while talking. The two learners use a collaborative pattern of pair interaction, with at times 1G probably having slightly more control over the task than 1H. When frequencies of strategy use are compared to other learners' frequencies, we see that 1G uses more shadowing, and both use fewer potentially face-threatening support strategies than the average learner in this data set (cf. Table 8). While these two learners are having fun and are playing with the language, they are still in learning mode: 'Let's play and learn English at the same time'.

	1G	1H
Implicit support: Supporting partner without exposing trouble		
Providing listener support (including shadowing)		
Shadowing only	+	
Explicit support: Supporting partner while exposing trouble	-	-
Assistance appeal: Asking the partner for help		

Table 8: Frequency with which learners use strategies compared to other learners

4.1.9.4 1J: 'We're on stage and you're the fall-guy!'

These two learners also play a role when they interact, however their approach is far less light-hearted than the previous pair's. 1J rather tries to imitate a rehearsed role play – an irresolvable task in this case, as learners did not have any time to prepare their performance together. 1I and 1J usually start their interactions with 'hello X' and when during the interaction, trouble occurs, they signal that they now change to off-record mode (Hancock, 1997) by using German, gestures and mime, lower volume or telling the camera that they will start from scratch. The following two statements from the recall interviews show the performance mode 1J is orienting to (Extracts 74 and 75). He states that he tries to support his partner without the camera recording it:

1J: Probiere dass me Tips cha gä ohni dass d Kamera das ghört. mir heis nid gschafft aber i has wenigschtens probiert.

((try to give hints so that the camera does not hear it. we didn't manage but at least I tried.))

Extract 74: 1I7SR

Commenting on an assistance appeal, then, he states:

1J: när simer usem Gschpräch usegange im Grund gno.
((then we left the conversation in fact.))

Extract 75: 1I9SR

1J seems to perceive dealing with resource deficits as not belonging to the conversation. It is a side tour which is to be avoided, and at best not be recorded by the camera. He is also very aware of the researcher and the teacher. At one point, when he sees the teacher approaching, he puts his index finger to his mouth thus signalling his partner should remain silent (1I7).

1I and 1J, however, differ in the way they interpret the task. In the recall interview, they explain how they normally prepare for the interaction (1I4SR). 1J states that he prepares thoroughly and mentally goes through the interaction. He closes the description of his thorough preparation with the comment that once he has prepared, he does not care what his partner does. This thorough preparation results in a rather fixed idea of how the interaction should evolve. When his partner explains that he himself simply thinks through the most important points and during the interaction he just improvises, 1J comments that one 'can see this'. 1J probably asserts that the lack of proper preparation results in a lower quality of 1I's utterances. He does not view the interaction as a joint enterprise, where 'both participants are understanding each other's messages and framing their subsequent messages in the light of that understanding', (Wells, 1981, p.25). Instead, 1J is unwilling to frame his next message to fit his partner's

understanding. In fact, such a perception of the interaction is only possible if his partner is willing to improvise and adapt to 1J's understanding. Still, 1J's interpretation of such flexible, 'unprepared' behaviour by his partner is rather negative. 1J keeps exposing his partner's weaknesses – he does not only call him names during the interactions but even in the recall interview when talking to the researcher. During 1I7SR, 1J ironically calls his partner a genius and slowly claps to underline the irony, and 1I even confirms this (Extract 76). 1J does not stop it there but even adds: 'ja, komplett (yes, completely)'. He perceives his partner's proficiency as far below his own.

1I: i bi wider mau am versage.
(I'm failing once again.)

1J: ja komplett.
(yes completely).

Extract 76: 1I7SR

Because of the negative perception, 1I may in fact not be able to demonstrate his abilities. If a low-level learner such as 1I has to always adapt to the partner's interpretation of task evolvment, this may demand high linguistic flexibility and constantly stretch 1I to the limit of his linguistic resources. We might see an example of self-fulfilling prophecy here.

'Some learners tend not to expect or allow the less proficient partners to demonstrate their strengths because of their preconceived idea about their partner's lower proficiency' (Watanabe and Swain, 2008, p.126).

That can also be seen in the way this pair normally starts the task. Despite 1I's perceived lower proficiency, 1J makes 1I start most of the time. For 1J this means the burden of the interaction is on his partner. He does this despite the fact that only he himself knows how the interaction should evolve. In one of the recall interviews he states:

1J: wenn es Gschpräch beginnt, de isch dä wo afat immer dä wo aus vorgit. (...) und eignetlech wenn öpper afat, gibe när ig d Antwort u d Gägewehr u när muess är wider entwäder wider d Antwort u Gägewehr gäh, när muess er wider nöi afa u so im Grund gno. i finge das komisch, wem e afat u när säg ig Gägewehr u när fani grad mit eme neue Thema a, dass är im Grund gno gad gar nüme seit. dass nid abwächsligswys isch, sondern immer so zwöireihig.

((when a conversation starts, the one who starts is the one who predetermines everything. (...) and in reality, when somebody starts, then I give the answer and the defence, and then he must again give the answer and the defence/resistance, then he has to start over again, basically. I find it strange when you start and then I say the defence and then I start with a new topic straight away, so that actually he does not say anything anymore. so that it is not alternately but always in two rows.))

Extract 77: 1I7SR

What he probably means by this is that in his view, speaker A should ask a question, then speaker B answers and then speaker A asks the next question. In his view, it is not speaker B's task to initiate a next topic. In short, the speaker who starts has to initiate the topics. 1J probably assigns the person who starts the interaction the role of the teacher, as in an individual test format, and thus delegates the management of the interaction to his partner (Brooks, 2009). The irony of this is that 1J believes his colleague's language proficiency is lower but still he makes him manage the interaction.

1J even uses the word 'defence' to describe the turn-taking. To him, the interaction seems to be like a duel, and not shaped by mutual support. 1I notes in one of the recall interviews that 1J never came to his rescue (Extract 78).

1I: i schwöre, du hesch mi immer la zable.
 ((I swear you never came to my rescue.))

Extract 78: 1I7SR

Extract 79 from this same interaction might illustrate what he means by this. Instead of supporting his partner in line 248, 1I simply asks 'what', and then asks it again while laughing. From what has gone before, we can assume that 1J knows exactly what 1I wants to say but withholds support in order to expose 1I's resource deficit. This is in stark contrast to the collaborative interaction observed with pair 1EF and far from the friendly teasing found with pair 1GH. 1J seems to lack an understanding of the shared responsibility for the interaction, perceives his partner as inferior and thus makes it very difficult for 1I to actually show his abilities.

247 1I: eh no for for (1.1)f for(1.5)for (1.1)look in the internet,
 248 (0.6)we can(1.1)we can(4.1) [we can]
 249 1J: [what?]
 250 (0.2)
 251 <<laughing>>what can we?>
 252 ((laughs))
 253 1I: we don't for (0.4) we don't forbidden the mobile phone for(1.5)the
 school;
 254 1J: (0.4)no;
 255 (0.8)we forbidden the mobile [phone on the school;]
 256 1I: [no no no no]the mobile phone are very
 good for,
 257 1J: no no

Extract 79: 1I7

There are many other similar instances when 1J teases 1I for not knowing a word or misunderstanding an utterance. 1J even uses a strategy which is normally used in a face-saving way to sabotage his partner. In Extract 80 below, 1J repeatedly completes his partner's utterance (lines, 139, 141, 143, 145) even when there is no clear sign of hesitation and thus inhibits 1I from finishing his sentence. All the more, 1J adds pressure

by reminding his partner not to speak German (lines 137, 149) even though 1I had only used very short German fillers (lines 135, 147).

```

131 1J: my
132 1I: no;
133     [no]
134 1J: [my ]state is (0.4)nicer;
135 1I: (0.5)[my my](0.3)aso ((well))(1.0)[the the ]
136 1J: [than your tower;]
137     [don't speak ]German;
138 1I: sorr<<laughing>y>°°ch the (1.3)the Empire State Building [is]
139 1J: [is ]not
     cool;
140 1I: (0.4)is:
141 1J: not cool;
142 1I: (0.3)is
143 1J: not cool;
144 1I: (1.0)is ver[y nice;]
145 1J: [not cool;]
146     ((laughs))(1.8)
147 1I: ja;
148     (0.4)e'
149 1J: don't speak German;
150 1I: (0.7)I have not speak German;
151 1J: (0.6)[((laughs))](0.5)yes;

```

Extract 80: 1IJ8

The two learners used this pattern of interaction until the end of the school year. In the very last interaction, when they interview each other about an exam they had supposedly taken, 1J still behaves as though they were on stage and that trouble had to be avoided rather than resolved, and he ridicules his partner. 1I hardly contributes to the interaction but rather reacts to his partner's attacks. In lines 45, 46 of Extract 81, 1I is struggling to find the word 'test' and uses 'task' instead. Rather than providing support and completing 1I's sentence, 1J waits for 1I to utter the correct word. He then exposes 1I's misuse of 'task' by repeating this word (line 050). Others would probably have corrected their partner and thus provided the correct word, instead of waiting for the partner to self-correct. One explanation for this might be that 1J considers 1I as an interlocutor with low power because 'others with low power are accommodated less frequently than others with high social power', (Giles, 2008, p.163). In such cases, 'faulty expectations about the other's competence and characteristics' (Giles, 2008, p.164) can lead to over- or under-accommodation and thus create misunderstandings. In this extract, after the trouble had finally been resolved by 1I's self-correction (line 053), 1J decides they should start the interaction again. Even in the very last interaction, he wants to have a recording of a smooth performance.

```

045     <<laughing> and how was the English,>
046     (0.8)the English ehm (0.6)task,
047 1J: (1.2)
048     (1.0)
049 1I: plea[se,]

```

050 1J: [ta]sk;
 051 1I: (0.3)yes;
 052 1J: (0.9)
 053 1I: test,
 054 (0.3)the English test,
 055 1J: (0.6)
 056 1I: ?hello;
 057 okay;
 058 1J: ea:::sy
 059 1I: neu start; ((new start))
 060 hej hallo du darfsch mi nid eifach so astarre; ((hey, hello, you can't
 just stare at me like this.))
 061 1J: ja Junge für di isch ke Task gsi sondern a Scheiss Tescht gange.
 ((yes, boy for you was not a task but was a shit test))
 062 1I: isch doch egau; ((doesn't matter))
 063 u::: okay;
 064 1J: okay;
 065 1I: hello 1J
 066 1J: hello 1I;
 067 1I: (0.6)okay;
 068 1J: (0.4)how was the party;
 069 1I: the party was good
 070 1J: (0.3)
 071 1I: and the English test,
 072 1J: (0.2)was easy for me;
 073 1I: eh(0.4)yes,
 074 (1.0)yes;
 075 (0.9)((laughs))(1.0)okay;
 076 (0.9)ehm(0.9)and(1.7)okay eh and how long was the test?

Extract 81: 1I/1J

However, at times 1I and 1J also use more contingent talk. In Extract 82, they bargain what they want to give the other in exchange for the mountain bike. This time, 1I insists (lines 268, 273, 294) and 1J plays along. There is laughter about the imaginative contributions (lines 272, 284, 285-287). Previously, 1J had mentioned the fact that his boat was sunk. Now he praises it as a submarine and offers a pump as a free add-on. Now 1J does frame his next turn to match 1I's utterances and adapts his ideas to 1I's contributions. In line 275, for example, instead of only refusing 1I's wish, 1J makes another offer. This time, it is 1I who interrupts him and continues the sentence he started in line 273. 1J does react to this by asking for the bike for longer than suggested by 1I (line 280). After some more playful exchanges, 1J asks if 1I agrees with this last suggestion (line 291), which provides the space for 1I to insist again on his demands (line 292, 294). 1I is not ridiculed but his contributions are attended to. Such exchanges are rare though between 1I and 1J.

268 1I: ((laughs))I will the zoo.
 269 (1.0)with all animals.
 270 1J: (1.5)I need the animals.
 271 1I: (1.0)no no no.
 272 1J: ((laughs))
 273 1I: I will the zoo with the animals.
 274 (0.3)[for]one week.
 275 1J: [no]
 276 (0.4)[I]I I gi[ve you the I gi]
 277 1I: [and you,]
 278 [and you can ha]ve my mountain bike for five days.

279 (0.4) [<<laughing>hm<>]
 280 1J: [for seven]days.
 281 1I: (1.5)o(0.4)kay;
 282 (0.4) and I will your boat forever.
 283 1J: (2.0)okay I give a pump on this boat.
 284 1I: your boat is <<laughing>under the water.>
 285 1J: ((laughs))it's a u [boat.] ((submarine))
 286 1I: [((laughs))][<<laughing>yes.>]
 287 1J: [((laughs))][((laughs))okay;
 288 (0.4)I give you my zoo for one week,
 289 and you give me the mountain bike for one week.
 290 1I: yes.
 291 1J: is that good?
 292 1I: and a boat forever.
 293 1J: (1.5)fo:r(1.2)one day for xxx.
 294 1I: no no no.
 295 (0.9)for ever:

Extract 82: 1IJ6

There is no clear change visible in the development of the use of strategies, apart from 1J using more implicit support and assistance appeals right after the feedback (Figure 18). His feedback targeted confirmation checks, one form of implicit support, and he was asked to use more repetition requests, a form of assistance appeals. This did not have any lasting positive effect on the interaction though as we have seen before. The feedback also targeted listener support but this seems not to have had an immediate effect. 1J only increases the use of listener support from interaction 7. At the same time, he also uses explicit support more often. 1I's use of interaction strategies does not change. If anything, we might consider the slight increase in assistance appeal after the feedback, though this was not targeted in the feedback itself.

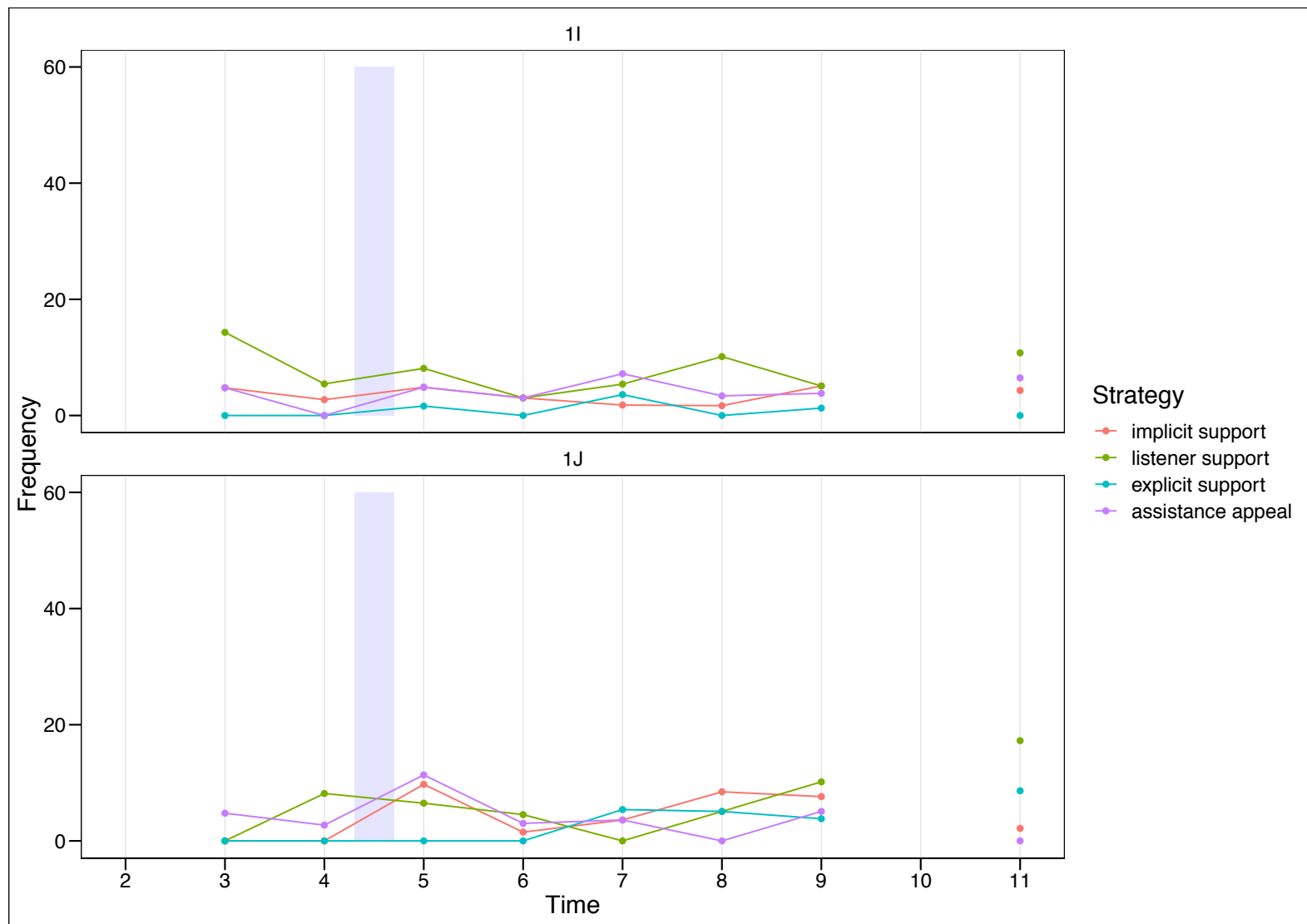


Figure 18: Use of strategies by 1I and 1J over time, measured per 'shared time on-task' (cf. 3.7.4), purple bar = feedback by the teacher

When frequencies of strategy use are compared, we see that both 1I and 1J use fewer support strategies than the average learner in this study (cf. Table 9). The nature of these extracts, as opposed to those showing how previous pairs completed the tasks, clearly shows that attitude towards the interlocutor does indeed impact on the interaction, the strategies used, and most probably also on learning opportunities in the interaction (cf. findings by Philp et al. (2010)) of the effect of attitude to the interlocutor, error correction and task on the frequency of LREs). 1I and 1J neither produce a sufficient amount of negotiated interaction nor do they collaboratively assist the struggling peer to be able to produce acquisition-rich output and pay attention to target language forms (Foster and Ohta, 2005). In sum, throughout all the interactions, 1J is in charge of the performance-like interaction even though he has his partner start. They use a dominant/passive pattern displaying low equality and low mutuality (Storch, 2002a). While 1I is performing according to 1J's rules as best as he can, he is being ridiculed and sabotaged by 1J. In short: 'We're on stage and you're the fall guy'.

	1I	1J
Implicit support: Supporting partner without exposing trouble	-	-
Providing listener support (including shadowing)	-	-
Shadowing only		
Explicit support: Supporting partner while exposing trouble	-	
Assistance appeal: Asking the partner for help		

Table 9: Frequency with which learners use strategies compared to other learners

4.1.9.5 2AB: 'This is a serious business. Let's try our best, but *my way!*'

In contrast to 1G and 1H, learners 2A and 2B generally make real-world related contributions rather than that they invent content to complete the task while also trying hard to use English only. 2B frequently faces resource problems while his partner supports him as best as he can. This can be seen in Extract 83 below. 2B wants to say that eating and drinking in the classroom should be allowed because drinking is good for the brain. When 2B hesitates in line 196, 2A completes the sentence. This completion is ignored by 2B, however. He continues his previous sentence and uses the word he is looking for in German thus uttering an assistance appeal. 2A, however, only confirms this and wants to continue (line 200) but makes no attempt at translating the word 2B is looking for. Reasons for this might be that 2A's level of German is not very high yet as he has only recently arrived in Switzerland as a refugee or the various forms of pronunciation 2B used and the overlap probably made the utterance unintelligible for 2A. He might therefore have feigned understanding.

195 2B: that is good;
196 (0.4)ehm(0.6)[the:]
197 2A: [to:] eh eating [and drinking in the classroom yes.]
198 2B: [the the küö the](0.7)the Ghirn;
199 Ge dem Gehirn. ((brain))
200 2A: yes(0.3)[and eh]
201 2B: [I wa]s get getes auf Englisch; ((what goes in English))
202 2A: (0.8)[Gehirn;]
203 2B: [what does] Gehirn;
204 2A: (1.1)brain.
205 2B: (0.2)brain genau.
206 ehm(0.4)that is good to the g[eh]
207 2A: [for the] brain yeah
208 2B: to the brain ehm eating and dr(0.4)drink.
209 2A: (0.7)yes.

Extract 83: 2AB7

Feigning understanding is a strategy 2A sometimes uses to continue the interaction despite recurrent non-understandings. In the recall to another interaction (Extract 84), 2A states that he did indeed feign understanding to move the conversation forward.

2A: ja also ich hab nichts verstanden aber eine Stadt hat viele Dinge und habe gedacht ja ja.

((well, I did not understand anything but I thought a city has many things and thought yes, yes.))

Extract 84: 2AB9SR

Still, in line 201 of Extract 83 above, 2B insists on a translation. He does not use standard German for this. It sounds more like a mixture between Swiss, High German

and English and he makes various attempts at uttering the same word. 2A asks for confirmation upon which 2B attempts an assistance appeal in English. 2A then translates the word (line 204), 2B repeats this and confirms (line 205). In line 206 then, 2B resumes the sentence he wanted to utter in the beginning, but he uses the German word again, upon which 2A completes and confirms. Despite 2A having completed the utterance, in line 208, 2B finishes his sentence and integrates the provided word 'brain'.

2B's apparent resource deficits often cause trouble in 2AB's interactions. 2B sometimes lacks very basic words. In one of the interviews for example, he says:

2B: ich habe überlegt, was die Eins ist und dann habe ich Französisch, nein das ist es nicht, aber ich habe Sprachdurcheinander gehabt.

((I was thinking about what 'one' is and then I have French, no it's not this but I had a language mix-up.))

Extract 85: 2AB7SR

Comprehension also seems to be problematic for 2B. Despite the fact that the question in Extract 86 consisting of 'have' and the German false friend 'handy' should be very easy to understand for a German speaker (line 210), 2B only understood the question when listening to it in the recall (2AB7SR).

209 2A: (0.7)yes.
210 (0.8)and did you have a:: (0.4)handy
(German false friend for mobile phone),
211 2B: (0.4)not
212 2A: (0.4)no;

Extract 86: 2AB7

2B often faced what he called a 'mess' in the recall interview. Concerning the above sequence, he recalls:

2B: jetzt grad hani so richtig gehört, vorhär hani das gar nid gehört. är het gfragt, ja hast du ein Handy. und da hab ich nein geantwortet. und eh eigentlich musste ich ja antworten, weil ich hab ja eins. und da habe ich ein Durcheinander jetzt bekommen. wusste nicht, wo sind wir jetzt im Thema.

((now I heard it correctly, before I hadn't heard it. he asked whether I had a mobile phone. And then I said no. and in fact I had to say 'yes' because I do have a mobile phone. and then I got into a mess. I didn't know where we were now in the topic.))

Extract 87: 2AB7SR

He often seems to be concerned with planning and producing his own output to such an extent that he is not able to pay attention to what his partner says. In the recall, he says he was confused and did not know where they were in the 'topic'. He was unable to

follow his partner's topic initiation. He probably oriented less to what his partner said, as he realises in the interview (Extract 88).

2B: ich hab ihn nicht ausreden lassen, also ich hab ihm nicht richtig zugehört.
(I did not have him finish his sentence, well I did not listen to him properly.)

Extract 88: 2AB9SR

Being overwhelmed with planning his own output might be one of the reasons why 2B insists on saying things the way he initially planned them. Once he starts uttering a phrase, he insists on translating his thoughts word by word. In such cases, 2A provides him with the translations, but 2B regularly does not succeed at integrating the provided word into 'his' sentence. His very low level, and probably also poor memory, coupled with the willingness or even stubborn determination to utter sentences 'his way' leads to many misunderstandings and long passages when 2A and 2B are concerned with trouble-solving. In Extract 89 below, for example, the two work through multiple negotiation moves (in **bold**) before 2B finally utters the sentence he wanted to produce: 'I sitting on the chair chilling'.

In line 5, 2A starts the interaction by identifying the topic 'school'. 2B first responds with French 'oui' and self-corrects to English 'yes'. Then, 2A asks the first question (lines 012-014) which seems to overburden 2B – this is marked by a long pause maybe followed by an incorrect other-repetition of the last word by 2A (line 015). 2A interprets this as an attempt to say 'chilling' and asks for confirmation. It is not entirely clear if 2B did indeed want to say 'chilling' even though this is what he confirms (line 018) and finally uses (line 038). After another long pause and a hesitation marker by 2B (lines 018, 019), 2A uses another confirmation check with self-correction ('we' to 'I'). Overlapping with this, 2B has a first attempt at formulating his intended sentence (line 021) but by doing this he uses the word 'school' which sounds similar to German 'Stuhl' instead of 'chair'. 2A uses another confirmation check with implicit correction, upon which 2B self-corrects and then asks for assistance (024) in German. This time, he uses a Swiss word which again sounds similar to 'school'. After a hesitation marker and a very long pause, he asks for a translation of the word 'Stuhl' in English, which shows that he most probably assumed 'school' meant 'Stuhl' but was not sure about this. 2A probably misunderstood the question, or else 2B's translation of the assistance appeal simply took too long. In any case, after pausing for a while, 2A provides a completely wrong translation (line 026). His 'I read' might also just be an attempt at moving the interaction forward by providing an answer to his initial question ('what do you do when you sit on a chair?'). 2B interprets the 'I read' as a misunderstanding and repeats the wanted word in German (line 027), and a translation of this assistance appeal to English which overlaps

with 2A's answer (lines 028-029). 2A repeats his translation (line 030), which is repeated by 2B and then 2A again. In line 034, 2B finally starts his sentence again, hesitates, is completed by 2A (line 036), repeats his partner's contribution first using the wrong preposition but then self-correcting. 2A uses a confirmation check (line 039) which is confirmed by 2B and 2A. At last, the trouble seems resolved and they can start the next topic.

```

005 2A:                                     [(1.3)      ]
006      so.
007      (1.2)in the school;
008      (0.4)he?
009 2B: (2.0)oui (0.6)äh,
010      (0.4)yes.
011      (0.3)ehm((laughs)) (1.3)e::h
012 2A: when waso what,
013      did you: (0.3)making when you sitting,
014      on a chair.
015 2B: (1.2)ehm chi,
016 2A: (0.5)he?
017      chilling.
018 2B: eh yes,
019      (1.1)ehm
020 2A: we I[chilling]
021 2B: [I love ]chilling ehm sitting to the to the school.
022 2A: (0.5)[in the school.]
023 2B: [ä:h ]in the school;
024      (0.7)uf dr Schoos(oder) wie heisst ds.
          ((on the lap (or) what is this called))
025      f°° ehm::(1.2)what does ehm(0.4)Stuhl mean in English.
026 2A: (0.9)I read.
027 2B: (1.4)Stuhl.
028 2A: (0.4)[ah][ko eh chair]
029 2B: [what ][does Stuhl ((chair))]<<pp>mean>
030 2A: chair.
031 2B: (0.5)
032      <<pp>chair>(0.5)
033 2A: chair.=
034 2B: =I(0.8)I sitting,
035      (0.4)
036 2A: on the chair,
037 2B: to on the on the chair,
038      (0.5)chilling
039 2A: and chilling.
040 2B: (0.6)yes,
041 2A: (0.3)yes;

```

Extract 89: 2AB10

Sometimes, as in the above example, one gets the impression 2A serves as a dictionary for 2B. He almost exclusively completes learner 2B's sentences or responds to assistance appeals. When 2A does initiate another topic or makes his own substantial contribution, the conversation breaks down due to 2B's lack of understanding. 2B seems not to have the flexibility to incorporate 2A's contributions, and sometimes even thinks he is in the right because his partner had not understood the German task instructions correctly (2AB4SR). Under these circumstances, 2A's patience is sometimes stretched to the limits. In 2AB8 (Extract 90), for example, he exhales audibly in a rather annoyed

way (line 080) and then repeats what he had said earlier in the interaction but which 2B had obviously not understood. What worsens the situation is the fact that after this, 2B asks for a repetition again (line 082) – which in itself triggers some more trouble (lines 083-090). 2A's repetition then is again worked on with various negotiation moves (lines 094-105). In fact, in lines 100-106, 2A probably adapts his statement to what 2B can understand. By answering to 2B's confirmation checks in lines 097, 100, 103, 105, he changes his initial statement that the Empire State Building is high and you have a great view to the fact that the Empire State Building is taller than the Statue of Liberty – a sentence they had practised various times in the course materials.

078 2B: why,
 079 (1.8)is your sight in:tresting;
 080 2A: (2.2)h°° because it is (0.4)ts because it is e:h(0.9)too high and
 081 I can see the greet view(0.4)and e' people li living in this
 scyscrapers and yes,
 082 2B: (0.4) (1.4)eh ehm **noch einmal ehm wiederhole** <<laughing>he>
((repeat again))
 083 2A: was dort was,
 084 (0.4)nä° okay.
 085 2B: (1.0)**wiederhol** **((repeat))**
 086 2A: ja.
 087 (0.7)
 088 2B: ?äh=
 089 2A: =äh
 090 2B: (0.4)**i hadi jetzt gfragt ob du ds: da wo ds vori gseit hesch wiederhole**
chasch. ((I asked you now if you can repeat what you had said.))
 091 2A: (0.5)ja e' I I interesting the skyscraper,
 092 (0.7)because,
 093 ((laughs))
 094 2B: <<p>because guet,> ((good))
 095 2A: (0.4)because it is too high,
 096 (0.9)and I can see the [greet]
 097 2B: [the tall;]
 098 taller
 099 2A: yes;
 100 2B: the [skyscraper is](0.3)is taller
 101 2A: [too high and tall]
 102 ja tal[ler]
 103 2B: [to the]ehm
 104 2A: and the Em[pire]
 105 2B: [Statue]of the Liberty.
 106 2A: yes.
 107 2B: aha ehm(1.5)<<p>good e:h>(3.6)m:::h(0.4)ts <<p>schwirig.> ((difficult))

Extract 90: 2AB8

In that same interaction, 2A corrects 'or' for 'hours' five times and the pronunciation of 'skyscrapers' is corrected by means of shadowing or other-correction four times without 2B incorporating this. 2B sometimes pronounces words in such a way that it is not clear whether he is using Swiss, High German or English. 'I tank' (for I think), for example, results in 2A suggesting that one of the disadvantages of living in a village is the non-existence of filling stations. The word 'tank' reminded him of the false friend 'Tankstelle' (German for filling station). 2A seems to be aware of this weakness and often corrects 2B's pronunciation but 2B hardly ever incorporates these corrections into

his talk. Such sequences might indicate that 2B has some language acquisition disorder. His teacher, however, was not aware of any such disability.

Even though there are passages when 2A seems rather bored and feigns understanding, it is in fact astonishing with how much patience the two boys keep speaking English and stay on-task. In the second but last interaction, 2A still supports his partner very patiently. They talk about where and how they want to go on an expedition. Throughout the interaction, their personal engagement is visible (Extract 91). Both draw on their personal experience of living abroad and travelling around the world to meticulously plan where they want to go on their expedition, and how to avoid war zones. 2A was born in Syria and fled to Switzerland. 2B was born in Switzerland but spent many years in Tajikistan and has since travelled there again. 2B wants to tell his partner that he knows a person who could give him a car at a low price. Throughout this passage, 2A looks at his partner while 2B looks at his paper and only turns to his partner when he needs linguistic support from him. 2A uses confirmation checks with reformulations (lines 250, 258, 260, 269) to support his partner and find out what he wants to say, whereas 2B uses German words as assistance appeals (lines 253, 255, 262, 265). Ultimately his assistance appeals include almost every word of the planned utterance. Over several turns, he finally produces a partially German sentence (line 270), which contains lots of his life experience, nevertheless.

245 2B: [ehm]
246 no wart eh I I can to eh for Tajikistan of Switzerland;
247 2A: <<p>yes;>
248 [so]
249 2B: [the]car;
250 2A: (0.3)[car;]
251 2B: [I]I I ca nh kenne;
252 2A: (1.3)
253 2B: kennen
254 2A: (0.3)I ca ehm(1.3)I can;
255 2B: I can(0.5)euh(0.8)ehm(0.9)irgendjemanden eh I (0.8)ehm(1.4)er,
256 2A: (1.2)ehm(0.7)he
257 2B: (0.6)he he eh give me euh (0.3)a car;
258 2A: (0.3)ah yes [you can one,]
259 2B: [<<p>xxx xxx xxx]ja;>
260 2A: (0.1)they give you a car,
261 (0.4)to
262 2B: to e[hm eh][money ehm (then)](0.6)ganz wenig;
263 2A: [to ehm][(mimes driving)]
264 ((nods))(0.5)
265 2B: Geld;
266 ja ehm,
267 (0.4)
268 2A: and ehm w
269 you wan[t you want to eh]
270 2B: [aso ca ca]r I I(2.5)I nimme ((take)) the car,

Extract 91: 2AB10

Looking down at his paper is very typical for 2B. He mostly looks at his task sheet unless he asks his partner for a word. It is also him who writes down answers or uses drawings to explain his ideas. Writing things down might help him focus and recall words more easily. In contrast, 2A usually looks at 2B or at 2B's paper and supports 2B's talk by providing help, correcting or repeating what his partner said. 2B is aware that 2A supports him more than he supports his partner.

2B: also mangisch chunnts mir vor dass ar mir meh hilft als ich ihm.
(well sometimes I feel like he helps me more than I help him.)

Extract 92: 2AB7SR

Visual inspection of the development of strategy use confirms the above finding that the basic way of interacting by 2A and 2B does not change (Figure 19). Throughout all the interactions 2A often supports his partner implicitly and 2B seeks assistance very often. There are some changes, but the frequencies oscillate, rather than indicate that there is some trend or development visible. The only interesting change might be in interaction 6, when 2B uses fewer assistance appeals and 2A offers less implicit support. In this interaction, they had to reach consensus as to what they can borrow from the other and what they would get in exchange. In the task instructions it also says that learners should insist on their view. 2B insists to such a degree that he simply refuses any offer 2A makes, which results in an interaction which is very different from the extracts discussed before. 2A suggests something while 2B refuses this with a blunt 'no'. In the other interactions, 2A engages with 2B's contributions in that he provides various forms of support. Such a pattern cannot develop in interaction 6.

As feedback for both learners, the teacher targeted paraphrase and assistance appeals in English rather than German. In view of the above analysis, this is probably not equally appropriate for both learners. It can be argued that for 2A, using more paraphrase might be suitable in so far as it would permit him to use more supportive self-repair by drawing on paraphrases rather than German translations. Though it is questionable whether 2B would have been able to actually understand these. For 2B, however, using paraphrase was certainly beyond what he could do. Using more assistance appeals in English rather than German seems appropriate for 2B, and he does in fact use more assistance appeals after the feedback. 2A, however, would probably ask for assistance from 2B in vain, and indeed, he does not increase the frequency with which he asks for help from his interlocutor. He uses more listener support instead but so does 2B.

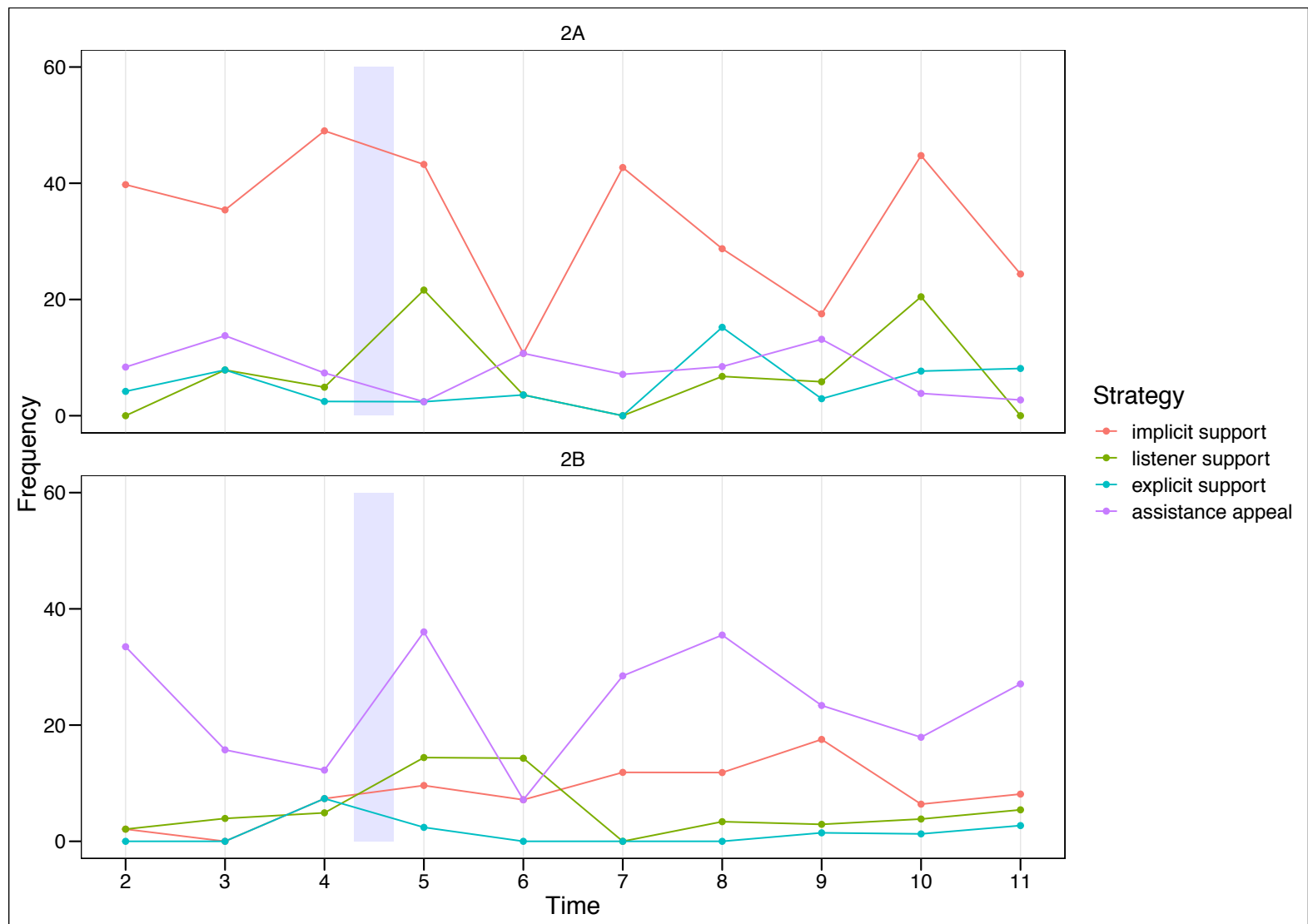


Figure 19: Use of strategies by 2A and 2B over time, measured per 'shared time on-task' (cf. 3.7.4), purple bar = feedback by the teacher

In sum, 2B's low level of language ability results in a high but unequally distributed proportion of assistance seeking and support. 2B uses assistance appeals more often than other learners in this data set. Unsurprisingly, 2A then provides both implicit and explicit support more often than most learners in this study (Table 10). The two learners use an 'expert/novice' pattern of interaction (Storch, 2002a) but with the novice actually having more control over the task because he, 2B, lacks the skills to take directions from 2A. Their way of interacting could be summarised as 'This is a serious business, let's try our best, but *my way*'.

	2A	2B
Implicit support: Supporting partner without exposing trouble	+	
Providing listener support (including shadowing)		
Shadowing only		
Explicit support: Supporting partner while exposing trouble	+	
Assistance appeal: Asking the partner for help		+

Table 10: Frequency with which learners use strategies compared to other learners

4.1.9.6 2CD: 'Let's have fun despite our resource deficits! Just be creative!'

Similar to 1EF, 2CD enjoy talking to each other. They are good friends and often talk 'ping-pong' in their free time, as they call it in an interview (Extract 93).

2C: (...) mir verstöh üs halt o guet süsch so. mir mache ds halt sehr viü.
((... we get on very well also otherwise. we do this a lot.))

R: was machet dr sehr viü.
((what do you do a lot?))

2C: aso so PingPong rede.
((well like ping-pong talking))

2D: oder Schissdräck zäme schnure.
((or talking non-sense together.))

R: aber uf Dütsch de.
((but in German then))

2C: ja, meischtens.
((yes, most of the times.))

Extract 93: 2CD8SR

2C and 2D often compensate their resource deficits with gestures and mime and use language in a creative and playful way. When teacher 1 saw them for the first time, she remarked they were like comedians. In Extract 94 for example, they ask for clarification with gestures and mime (line 045), they nod and laugh a lot and use word play ('all inclusive' in line 035). Because of their drawing on paralinguistic resources very frequently, their turns are usually rather short.

014 2C: (0.5)what ehm: wa (0.5)what watch ehm TV or film.
015 2D: (1.0)eh yes;
016 I watch::(1.1)too much:: films and games.
017 2C: (0.4)
018 and what?
019 2D: ((**looks at partner**
020 **teasingly**))
021 2C: and what?
022 2D: (1.0)ehm
023 (1.8)e:h games:, ((looks at partner's paper))
024 2D: (1.0)
025 yes games.
026 ((**shrugs**))
027 2C: ((**looks at partner**))
028 2D: ((**looks at partner**))
029 2C: (0.9)fantasy or:
030 ((**moves hand in circles**))
031 2D: all;
032 ((**shrugs**))
033 2C: ((**shakes head**))
034 <<pp>okay;>
035 2D: **all inclusive**;
036 ((**laughs**))
037 [((**laughs**))]
038 2C: [<<p>okay;>]
039 ((**nods**))
040 2C: (0.7)
041 eh ehm

042 (2.0)
 043 who: make that.
 044 2D: (2.7)
 045 ((**looks at partner grinning**))
 046 2C: who [watch]
 047 2D: [<<pp>what?>]
 048 (0.8)
 049 2C: of a(0.5)laptop of TV,
 050 2D: oh yes ehm on the ipod or on the laptop;
 051 (1.0)or on the ipad.
 052 2C: (0.4)
 053 okay; ((**nods and looks at his partner**))
 054 2C: (1.1)ehm
 055 (0.8)yes;

Extract 94: 2CD5

2C and 2D adhere to the jolly mood of their interactions peppered with mime and gestures and word play throughout all the interactions. In Extract 95, taken from interaction 8, they dispute over which sights they want to visit in New York. 2D cannot recall the year in which the Statue of Liberty was built and replaces the year with 'beep' (line 168). His partner reacts to this with a gesture meaning 'How silly, what are you doing?', 2D laughs. Later (line 175), 2C justifies why he thinks they should visit the Empire State Building. Learner 2D repeats the verb uttered by 2C and thus probably reminds his partner that the Empire State Building was the tallest building but no longer is (line 176), and it is therefore not worth visiting. Later, he mentions that he could go to Dubai if he really wanted to go on the highest building (line 188). 2C repeats 'was' upon which they take turns saying 'was' until they play on another expression they overuse on purpose: 'really', again accompanied by laughter.

165 2C: eh [:]
 166 2D: [I find]Statue of Liberty is bi:g,
 167 2C: (0.6)[yeah the Empire State Building was]
 168 2D: [and ehm he has]build it for mh from (1.3)**beep**.
 169 2C: (2.6)((**touches his forehead**))
 170 2D: ((laughs))
 171 2C: the Sta the Empire [State Building,]
 172 2D: [I don't know.]
 173 [eh]
 174 2C: [no no] no no no. the Empire State **was** the eh biggest
 175 (0.5)skyscraper of the world.
 176 2D: **was**
 177 2C: (0.4)**was**;
 178 2D: (0.4)**was**.
 179 2C: **was**;
 180 2D: **was**.
 181 2C: (1.5)**really**;
 182 2D: (0.4)((**laughs**))**really**,
 183 2C: (0.4)okay;
 184 2D: yet it is [in]Dubai.
 185 2C: [we]
 186 (1.0)pf[°°°](0.7)pf[°°]
 187 2D: [((laughs))]
 188 [you can go to]Dubai when you want to go to the
 biggest skyscraper.

Extract 95: 2CD8

Such word play can be observed throughout. Later in the same interaction, 2D wants to convince 2C to visit the Statue of Liberty, but this time he tries tricking his partner into an answer. In the recall interview he says:

2D: es isch ja Statue of Liberty und när hani Liberty of Statue gmacht, dass er sich verschnuret. oder dass er villedt ja seit oder i weiss doch nid. Taktik. (...) i has probiert, aber är het nume 'what' gseit.

((it is Statue of Liberty and then I 'made' Liberty of Statue' so that he misspeaks himself or that maybe he says 'yes' or I don't know. tactics. (...) I tried but he only said 'what'.))

Extract 96: 2CD8SR

By rearranging the names of sights in lines 215 and 218 (Extract 97), 2D hopes he can confuse his partner and thus trick him into the wanted answer.

213 2D: ehm [what is]with,
214 2C: [eh no no]
215 2D: ((laughs))(((laughs)))°h what is with the **Liberty of Statue?**
216 2C: [Empire State Building]
217 (1.6)<<pp>**what?**>
218 2D: (1.3)**Statue of Liberty o:r the Liberty of: State Building?**
219 2C: (1.1)Empire State Building;
220 2D: (1.7)Liberty,
221 (0.9)Statue of Liberty;

Extract 97: 2CD8

Such language play is complemented by over-use of coined language. For example, they first coin the expression 'klatsch on the boden' (clap/hit on the floor) when they do not know how to say 'die' in English. From then on, they use this at least once in every interaction, always accompanied by lots of laughter. In the recall interview, they call this expression an 'insider' (2CD10SR). By applying a lexical compensatory strategy, they create their own ingroup language (Cruse et al., 2008, p.884).

Despite this rather light-hearted way of talking, the two boys use various means to only use German as the last resort. In Extract 98 below, 2D is looking for the word 'bookshelf'. They take several turns in which 2D uses gestures and paraphrase until his partner can provide him with the word. Due to his persistence, they create multiple learning opportunities. First in that 2D's linguistic repertoire is stretched by the need to paraphrase. Second, by uttering the word he lacked and which was provided by 2C and then using it in an own sentence (line 162).

147 2D: (0.3)and we can make so ehm(1.0)this one here ehm
148 2C: eh a beamer;
149 2D: (0.6)no((laughs))
150 2C: **the beamer;**
151 2D: <<laughing>no;>
152 (0.6)**that behind it;**

153 2C: (0.5)
154 2D: the [the]
155 2C: [a]:h a a a ahm[a]
156 2D: [Regal] ((laughs))
157 2C: a bookshelf;
158 2D: a **bookshelf**[yes yes](0.6)[we can make]
159 2C: [a bookshelf]
160 [bookshelf yes;]
161 ehm(0.5)öh e:::h
162 2D: we can make here a **bookshelf**,
163 2C: (0.4)eh yes [ehm]

Extract 98: 2CD7

There is also no clear change visible in the development of the use of strategies when the plots are inspected (Figure 20). Apart from 2D using more implicit support in the very first and very last interactions, they keep using the same set of interaction strategies with similar frequency throughout the school year (apart from higher frequency of listener support by 2D in the beginning and at the end). Even after the feedback, the two boys use strategies in a very similar way as before.

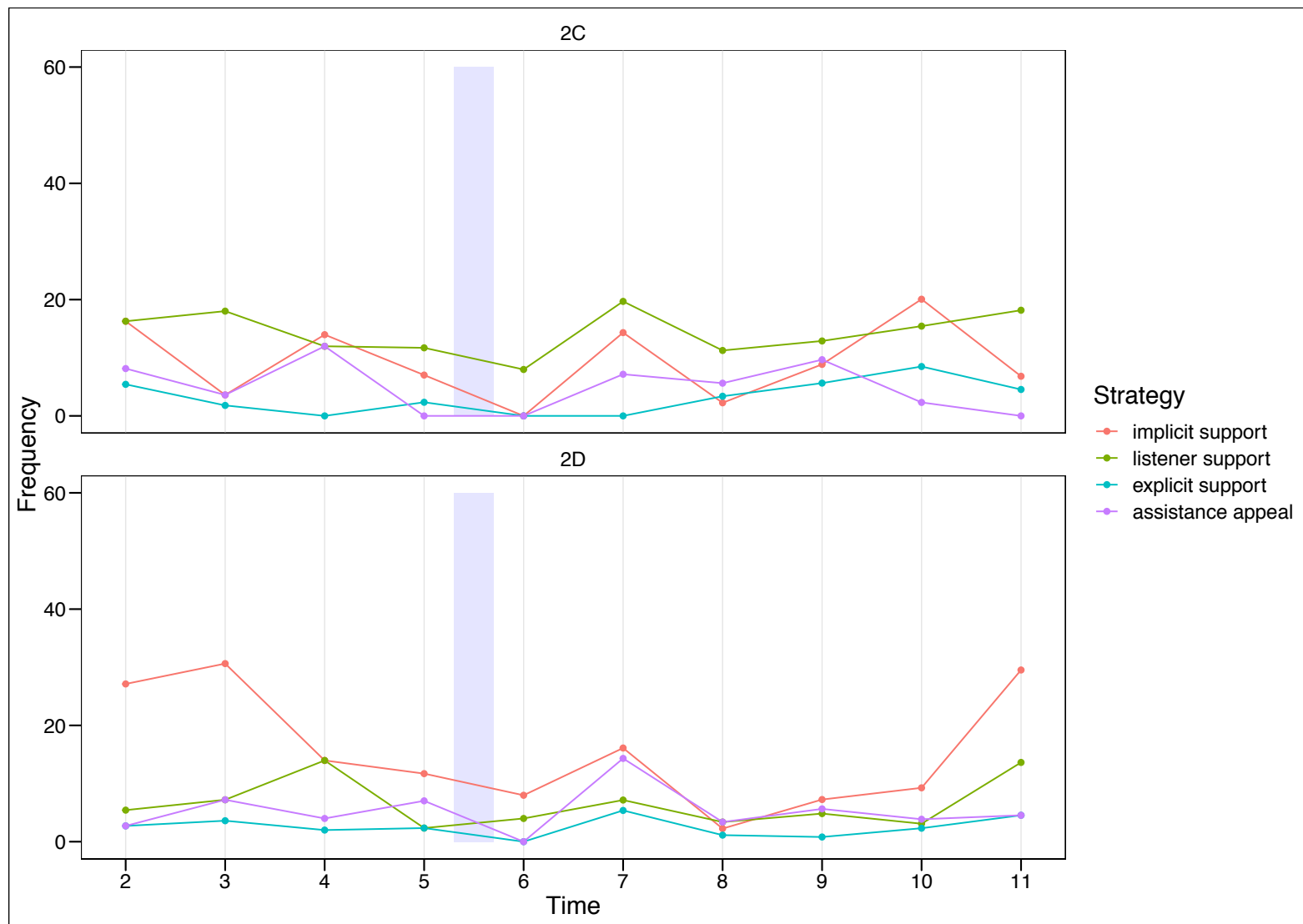


Figure 20: Use of strategies by 2C and 2D over time, measured per 'shared time on-task' (cf. 3.7.4), purple bar = feedback by the teacher

In the same way as pair 1EF, the high mutuality and equality of this dyad is reflected in the more than average use of support strategies (Table 11). However, only 2C also uses listener support more often than the average learner. 2D, whose language proficiency seems to be slightly higher than his partner's (cf. section 4.2.1), only uses shadowing more often for providing listener support. In contrast to 1EF, the two learners also use many potentially face-threatening support strategies. The light-hearted tone of their interactions, however, their frequent use of gestures, mime and laughter might have attenuated the potentially face-threatening provision of explicit support. Overall the interactions display high mutuality and equality (Storch, 2002a). 2CD's motto is: 'Let's have fun despite our resource deficits. Just be creative!'

	2C	2D
Implicit support: Supporting partner without exposing trouble		
Providing listener support (including shadowing)	+	-
Shadowing only	+	+
Explicit support: Supporting partner while exposing trouble	+	+
Assistance appeal: Asking the partner for help		

Table 11: Frequency with which learners use strategies compared to other learners

4.1.9.7 2EF: 'We hate this! Let's get it done quickly.'

Before starting interaction 3, 2F practises reading aloud from his notes. 2E then asks him if he noted down complete sentences during preparation time, which according to the task instructions was not permitted. 2F confirms that he did indeed write complete sentences and adds that he does not care whether he is allowed to so or not. In the beginning of interaction 6, then, 2F argues that he cannot speak first because he has not prepared 'that way'; he had prepared the wrong role. These two situations are very typical for 2F. His contributions are meant more for display than for actually having a conversation, and he feels very unsure about his language competency. 2F states that he hates pronunciation and thinks he is really bad at it. He adds that when he hates something it becomes more and more difficult. He further argues that he does not enjoy speaking English and cannot learn anything from this (2EF11SR). His anxiety might result in an unwillingness to speak (MacIntyre et al., 1998). 2E, then, argues that because his father is English he 'has this every day at home anyway' and therefore need not learn anything from doing speaking tasks. He probably perceives peer-peer interaction as only useful for interpersonal or intercultural purposes, but not for language acquisition per se (Kuo, 2011, p.5). In the interactions – apart from his contributions being more accurate and with a good accent – his being bilingual can hardly be noticed. For discussing task management, he switches to German.

2F's negative self-image and planned utterances, and both learners' unwillingness to speak resulted in rather short interactions where turns did not really build on each other. In Extract 99 below, for example, the two boys take turns in telling each other what they want to do in Scotland. In line 050, 2E asks whether 2F would like to go shopping or play with the computer on Wednesday morning. 2F chooses shopping and 2E immediately agrees (line 052). Later, 2E suggests going to the football museum on Wednesday afternoon and 2F agrees without further arguing (line 057) even though he had earlier suggested going swimming. The interaction ends very fast and rather abruptly. 2E and 2F probably both lack 'well-functioning appraisals' (Dörnyei and Wenta, 2009, p.131) of the quality of their task execution and thus are not able to sensitively adapt the turn-taking to their partner's needs. Instead, 2E does not support his partner, while 2F cannot benefit from interacting with 2E. Rather, they both decide to get done with the task as soon as possible and thus avoid speaking English.

```
048      (0.3)ehm(0.8)what we want to do on: Wednesday morning;
049 2F:   (1.3)
050 2E:   shopping or computer.
051 2F:   (0.9)shopping,
052 2E:   okay;
053      [(6.6)][and then]
054 2F:   [(6.6)][in the afterno]on,
055 2E:   (0.8)[ts]ts the football museum,
056 2F:   [swim,]
```

057 (1.3)okay.
 058 2E: okay,
 059 2F: [(9.2)]
 060 2E: [(9.2)]on:=
 061 2F: =Thursday,
 062
 063 2E: (2.2)
 064 2F: walking;
 065 2E: watersports,
 066 2F: (1.1)
 067 2E: surfing and-
 068 2F: (0.8)yes.
 069 2E: okay,
 070 2F: [(8.6)]
 071 2E: [(8.6)]and then on Tuesday afternoon,
 072 2F: °h eh:m h°(1.6)golf;
 073 2E: okay,
 074 that's cool.
 075 2F: [(3.1)][(0.7)]
 076 2E: [(3.1)][(0.7)]mir si fertig.
 077 [(2.2)][mir si fertig.]

Extract 99: 2EF2

2E's failure to see any point in doing speaking tasks and 2F's anxiety probably hinder the two learners from using the tasks to their full potential. As Sato and Ballinger (2016, p.19) claim:

'the inherently social nature of peer interaction works as a kind of filter through which all of the other factors must pass'.

Neither learner is able to activate supportive emotions, beliefs, and attitudes nor generate and maintain motivation (Oxford, 2011, p.119f). They seem to lack the necessary affective strategies to keep the conversation going. 2E was probably not challenged enough by the task, i.e. he would have needed to make the task more difficult for himself or 'eliminate boredom by adding humour' (ibid., p. 75) as other pairs in this data did, and thus he would possibly gain some positive affect (ibid., p. 75). 2F, however, would need the exact opposite: a sense of competence and success in learning a language. Taking up Oxford's orchestra metaphor (ibid., p. 18), this pair was like an orchestra with one musician missing or being seriously ill (deficiencies in affective strategies), or the conductor wrongly addressing that musician (deficiencies in meta-affective strategies). In contrast to the other pairs of learners discussed so far, 2EF seem unable to activate effective action control processes (Dörnyei and Wen-Ta, 2009) and thus co-construct task motivation (Dörnyei, 2002).

This pattern of interaction lasted throughout the school year. In the recall interview to interaction 9, 2E mentions that while 2F was speaking, he only 'half' listened to him. He did understand what 2F said but he then simply waited until it was his turn again (2EF9SR). His primary concern was still to finish as soon as possible as the following extract shows (100).

2E: i ha so schnäll wie mügliche wölle fertig mache, wöus mi irgendwo het agschisse.

((I wanted to finish as fast as possible because I was somehow pissed off.))

Extract 100: 2EF9SR

In the final recall interview, both learners still state that their aim is to finish the task as fast as possible and no desire to learn anything (2EF11SR). At various times, they tell the researcher directly or indirectly that they hate speaking English. Before they start completing one of the tasks they talk about throwing the camera on the floor and later painting the lens so that the researcher will not be able to see anything. In addition, they begin almost every interaction with a long discussion in German about who should start.

Despite this negative attitude towards speaking English, some change occurred when the teacher told the two learners that they should no longer be the first pair to finish. This was not part of the normal feedback provided and did not target strategies per se. The teacher was simply upset by the learners' behaviour during interaction 5. Still, this intervention probably had some effect on the coming interactions. In interaction 6, 2F wanted to borrow 2E's mountain bike and offered his MP3 player in return. 2E however, was instructed to ask for 2F's tennis racket. In the recall interview (Extract 101), 2F talks about his contribution in Extract 102, line 101. He at first does not understand his partner, but does not want to ask for clarification. So he simply makes another suggestion.

2F: I ha äbe nid ganz verstande, was är gseit het. u ha nid wöue nachefrage, när hani eifach öppis anders gseit, äbe dass ig da mit däm Mätch und är mit em Mätch.

((I did not quite understand what he was saying and did not want to ask. then I simply said something different, that I with this match here, and he with the match.))

Extract 101: 2EF6SR

This unplanned new suggestion, which can again be considered an expression of the unwillingness to speak, caused 2E to take on the role of a person who does not like dogs (lines 114-115). In line 116, 2F proposes still another deal which triggers an assistance appeal (line 123). Only under these circumstances did the two learners use an interaction strategy whose use was otherwise prevented by the orientation towards a rehearsed role play and the dedication to finish the task as quickly as possible.

097 2E: (1.9)mhm:::(1.6)you can have it the tennis racket
098 and the mp3 player at the same time,
099 (1.0)and then you give me the racket back and you have the
100 (0.8)eh mp3 player another day.
101 2F: (3.9)hm(4.0)no.

102 (0.6)we make so.
103 (0.6)you give me the bike no the tennis racket
and the mp three player,
104 (1.0)and(0.9)give me eh(1.0)<<p>no>(0.4)and I give you the:(
0.3)the the the the bike,
105 (1.3)an:d(1.1)an:d,
106 (2.1)<<p>was chönnt i dir näh;> ((what could I take away from you))
107 (0.9)
108 2E: steit hie nüt me was [o no] ((doesn't it say here what else))
109 2F: [ehe](2.2)eh(0.5)an:d(1.1)you can go:,
110 (0.9)eh:m(0.5)walk with my,
111 (0.4)dog.
112 2E: (1.2)?no.
113 2F: ((laughs))<<laughing>macht ke Sinn;> ((doesn't make sense))
114 2E: I hate dogs.
115 aso ?nid das ds fautsch verstahsch
i meines eifach nume i dere[Roue]
((so that you don't misunderstand, I mean it only in this role))
116 2F: [ah ea]sy;
117 (0.9)you can:(0.9)you ca:::n?
118 (2.3)no we make so.
119 (1.6)I have two bikes.
120 (0.5)one not good and one good.
121 you can have the good,
122 (0.4)and I not the good,
123 (0.3)good and we going(1.3)<<p>was heisst zäme?>
((what does 'zäme' ((together)) mean?))
124 2E: (0.4)<<p>together.>
125 2F: <<p>together;>
126 2E: ((nods))
127 2F: together biking and then you play with me,
128 (0.6)tennis.
129 2E: (1.1)yeah;
130 I have two rockets.
131 2F: (0.4)yeah;
132 that's good.
133 2E: (1.7)okay;

Extract 102: 2EF6

As can be seen from Figure 21, 2E and 2F did indeed talk for longer after recording 5. 2E, especially, increased the time spent talking in English whereas 2F lowered it again later, and so did 2E in interaction 10. With the challenge not to finish the interaction first, the teacher might have tapped into these learners' 'strategy of Generating and Maintaining Motivation' (Oxford, 2011, p.75). On the one hand he imposed some social pressure (ibid.), made the task more difficult – though here it was not 'self-handicapping' (ibid.) but other-imposed handicapping – they had to find ways to keep talking for longer. 2E in particular accepted this challenge. The two learners then set themselves a performance goal (ibid., p. 76), which resulted in a longer interaction and thus probably in the creation of more learning opportunities. When compared to other learners however, their interactions were still rather short.

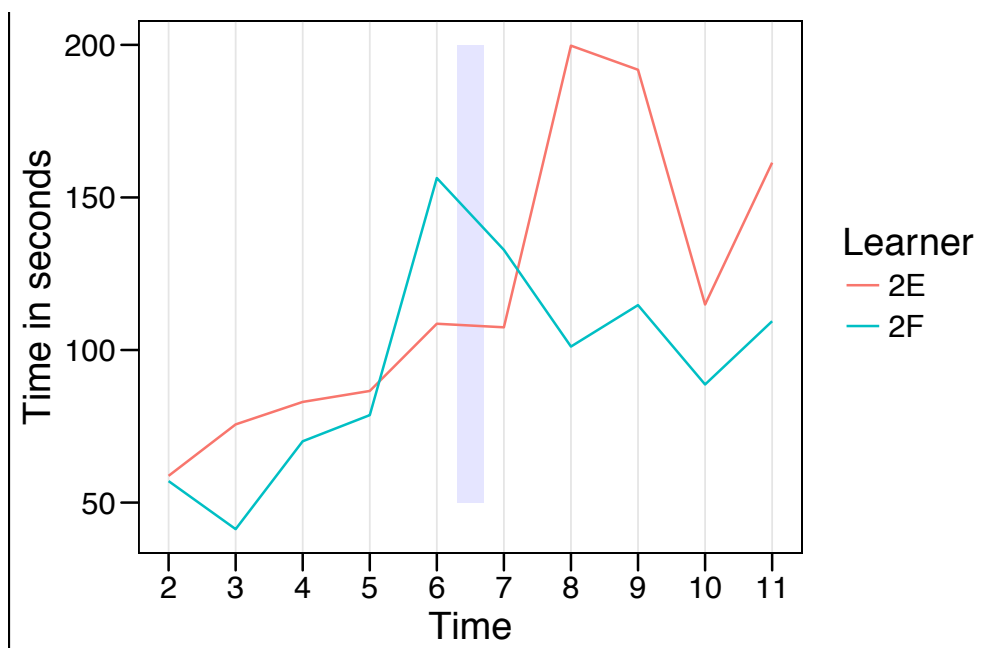


Figure 21: Time in English for learners 2A and 2B

So at the regular instruction after recording 6, the teacher told them to ask follow-up questions such as ‘why?’ to keep the conversation going. This is in fact what they then did in the following interaction. 2E and 2F do use negotiation for meaning slightly more often after the intervention. In interaction 11, for example, 2E uses some clarification requests. In Extract 103, he cannot understand 2F’s question and asks for clarification, which makes 2F reformulate his initial question.

```

050 2E:  what di why (0.4)
051      do you didn't come;
052 2F:  (2.6)are you alone goed,
053 2E:  (0.7)what?
054 2F:  (1.2)you are (0.5)going alone to the party,
055 2E:  aha yes I (0.7)yes I was:(2.1)I
        (0.4)I was going ehm alone with the bike;

```

Extract 103: 2EF11

However, such more engaging ways of interacting with meaning negotiation and follow-up questions are all still rather rare. In interaction 9, for example, when 2F presents what he has prepared, 2E keeps turning from one side to the other on his chair and offers no support to his partner, not even when 2F obviously lacks words. He also uses no listener support. And even when in the interview, they talk about interaction 6 above, the liveliest of all, they express their unwillingness to speak. When 2F stated that he did not understand his partner but did not want to ask for clarification, and then was asked why he did not want to do so, he first stated he did not know. 2E then intervenes saying that 2F was surely ‘pissed off’, which 2F confirms (Extract 104).

2E: es het di agschisse uf hundert.
((you were pissed off, sure.))

2F: ja, es het mi agschisse.
((yes, I was pissed off.))

Extract 104: 2EF6SR

Visual inspection of the strategy frequencies confirms the above findings (Figure 22). There is some increase in the use of strategies after the intervention: 2F increases the use of listener support and 2E provides more implicit support. From their linguistic background, however, we might expect 2E to be using many more support strategies, as 2A or 1D do, and 2F to be asking for support more frequently. However, because of their unwillingness to speak, there is generally little engagement with each other's contributions, and their dislike of speaking results in equally low contributions to the task from both learners. In general, the two use interaction strategies very rarely (Table 12). This results in an interaction with high equality and low mutuality. The two learners' attitude can probably best be described as 'We hate this! Let's get it done quickly.'

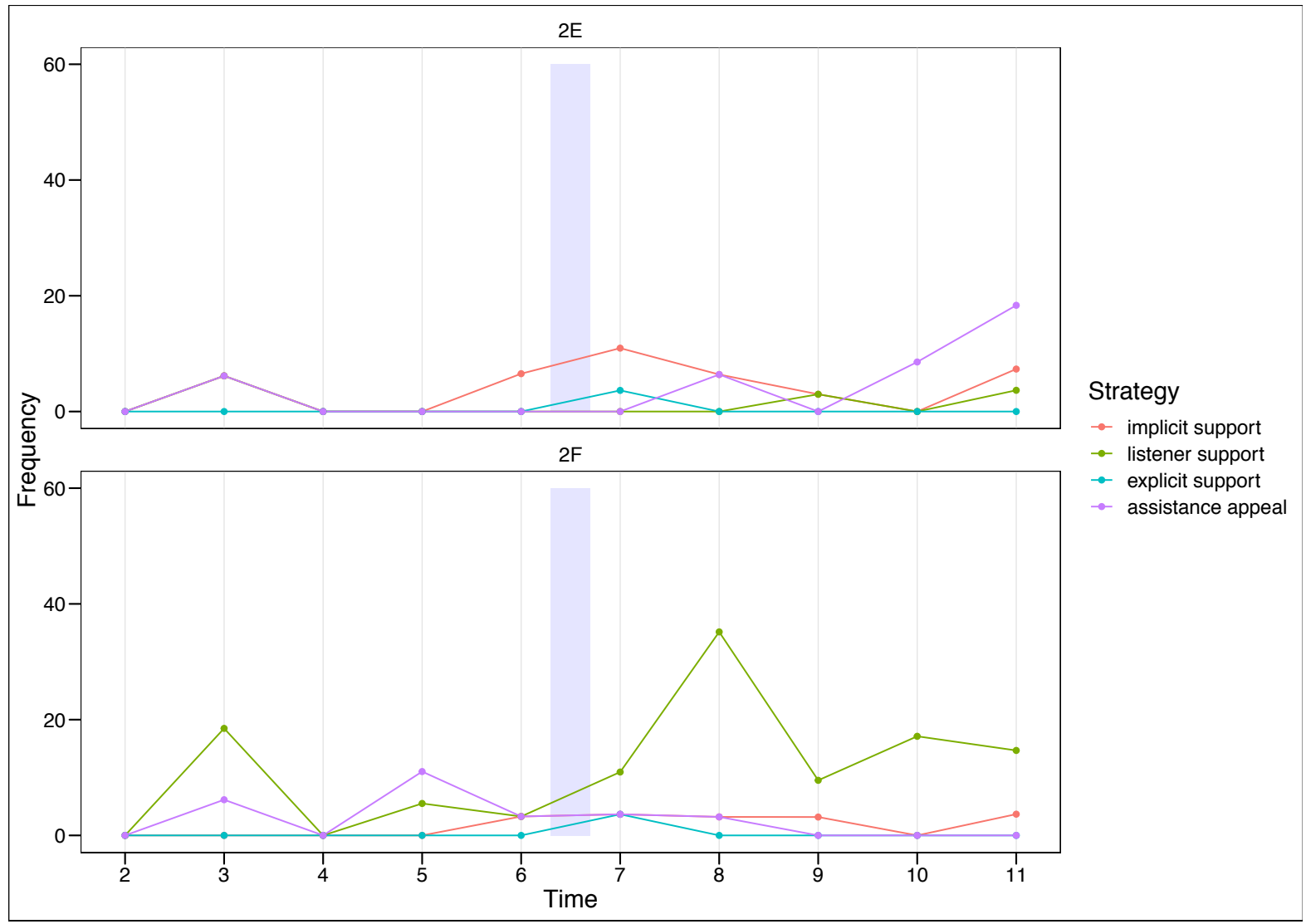


Figure 22: Use of strategies by 2E and 2F over time, measured per 'shared time on-task' (cf. 3.7.4), purple bar = feedback by the teacher

	2E	2F
Implicit support: Supporting partner without exposing trouble	-	-
Providing listener support (including shadowing)	-	
Shadowing only		
Explicit support: Supporting partner while exposing trouble	-	-
Assistance appeal: Asking the partner for help	-	-

Table 12: Frequency with which learners use strategies compared to other learners

4.1.9.8 2IJ: 'Between obeying and evading the chore'

Extract 105 illustrates the final pair's way of interacting and facing resource problems. 2J is asked why he does not like homework. He cannot answer, and instead after a long pause he shrugs and then answers in German (line 082). 2I reminds him – probably meant ironically – that this is not funny. 2J continues in German with rising intonation, thus indicating that this was probably meant as an assistance appeal. In line 086, 2I tries to translate 2J's contribution into English. 2J repeats this (line 088) and 2I finishes the sentence in German, in a whisper. This time, 2J attempts to translate with a false friend (full – viel), 2I finally completes the sentence and 2J repeats it (lines 093-094). 2I makes some comment in a lower voice in German, upon which 2J initiates the next topic (line 079). 2I provides a rather long answer but when he hesitates in line 099, 2J interrupts him in German whereupon they have an extended exchange in German about sports.

081 2I: (0.8)why not?
082 2J: (1.3)((shrugs))(2.5)<<p>ke Ahnig.> ((no idea))
083 (0.6)mache aus a eim <<laughing>Tag> ((laughs))
084 2I: (0.9)that's no funny.
085 2J: (1.3)ehm::(1.1)no ehm(2.3)mir überchöme fasch kener Ufgabe,
((we get almost no homework))
086 2I: (0.8)we beca:me (0.3) not so;
087 (0.4)
088 2J: we became[not:] (0.7)
089 2I: [<<pp>so viel>]
((that many/much))
090 <<pp>so viel>
091 2J: not,
092 ehm full:: eh(1.7)
093 2I: <<pp>homeworks>
094 2J: <<p>homework,>
095 (1.4)ehm(0.7)
096 2I: <<whispering>xxx xxx xxx>
097 2J: (1.6)wha what's: you::r(1.4)favourite homework.
098 2I: (1.3)eh the ICT and the GTZ. ((technical drawing))
099 (0.4)that's the funniest(0.4)funniest (0.3)homeworks::(1.3)eh the ICT
can I at the PC make and the(1.0)GTZ is::
100 2J: ((laughs))mis isch Sport, ((mine is sports))
101 2I: (1.1)((closes mouth and looks down))
102 2J: (0.5)das machi nämlech o schüsch.((I do this anyway))
103 2I: Bodeturne <<laughing>he he he>((floor exercises))
104 2J: (0.8)<<pp>ne das machi nid.> ((no I don't do this))

Extract 105: 2IJ4

2J switches to German in this extract several times – as he does in many other interactions, too. In 2IJ3, for example, he tells his partner a 'real life' story about a cat in German. Tognini, Philp and Oliver (2010) found that in primary and secondary classrooms, learners often used L1 for spontaneous production, real communicative purposes and banter. They maintain that this demonstrates 'the rather artificial position of the L2 for these learners', (ibid., p. 28.17). 2J probably switches to the shared school language for affiliative purposes (Tognini et al., 2010). In interaction 7 for example, 2J

uses German in a lower voice to make a rather ironic comment about who should clean the blackboard: Teachers soil the blackboard so it is them who should clean it.

At times, 2J also shows some disruptive behaviour. He covers the camera lens with his finger, turns the camera or makes sexist comments whilst he and 2I are supposed to be completing the task. While watching himself talk during the recall interview, he comments on his movements and thinks they are like tics (2IJ5SR). He seems very self-conscious and does not feel comfortable talking English in front of the camera. At other times, however, 2J demonstrates willingness to use English despite his resource deficits. In contrast to 2F, he does ask his partner for assistance, however he often signals his assistance seeking as off-record by using a lower voice.

2I often has the leading role in the interactions. He switches back to English after 2J's code-switches and translates his own utterances into German when his partner cannot understand him. Throughout, 2I normally initiates new topics, uses more English and supports his partner more than 2J does. In the second but last interaction (Extract 106), 2I initiates the next topic by asking his partner what he would like to take on board for the expedition (043). In the recall interview 2J states that he did not understand his partner at all here (2IJ10SR). 2J then asks for clarification (line 045 and 047). In lines 049 – 051, 2I rephrases his initial question but it still seems unclear. 2J's answer in lines 052 – 053 does not fit. 2I hesitates in line 054 and when 2J uses a hesitation marker, he attempts another reformulation of his question. 2J asks for confirmation in German and 2I responds in German that his understanding is not right and corrects it. Only then, can 2J continue with answering 2I's question and say what he wants to take with him (line 059 and following).

```
043 2I:  what is have (0.3)for ehm(2.0)what you want
        (0.3)take with of on the: (0.3)ship,
044      (0.7)to go;
045 2J:  (0.4)[<<p>was,>]((what))
046 2I:      [Karib]ik;
047 2J:  (1.2)<<whispering>with a hä,>
048      (('hä' = informal German for 'what'??))
049 2I:  (1.3)what you want;
050      (0.8)ehm take on the ship,
051      (0.4)for (0.5)go to (0.4)to ehm (0.5)to the Karibik;
052 2J:  (0.3)yes;
053      I want(0.5)go to the Karibik with with a shiff ((ship))
054 2I:  (4.9)
055 2J:  ehm
056 2I:  what you you must take for th this:(1.3)this ehm
        (0.9)expedit(0.2)tion;
057 2J:  (4.0)<<whispering>hä d Heruse> d Heruseforderige oder was;
        ((the challenges or what?))
058 2I:  nei was wosch mitnäh;((no what you want to take with you))
059 2J:  aha ehm (2.1)ehm a kni a knife and(1.0)axt and food an drinks;
060 2I:  (2.7)ehm (4.1)I think,
061      it has a lot of xxx guys on board(0.4)for the (1.4)<<pp<ra
        Roueverteilig;> ((role allocation))
062 2J:  (1.3)okay;
```

Extract 106: 2IJ10

2J relies on the support provided by his partner. Just before the above extract, in line 040 of Extract 108, when 2J could not recall 'bathing' (039), he simply gives the turn to 2I and thus the onus of continuing the interaction. In the recall interview to this passage, he states:

2J: (hie hani nid gwüsst,) wie dass i ds angere no söu säge u när hani ihm eifach no ds Wort übergäh für nomau für irgendöppis zäge;

((here I did not know) how I should say the other thing and then I simply gave the turn to him to say something again.))

Extract 107: 2IJ10SR

035 2J: [(3.7)]I think ehm(0.7)Karibik is (0.7)nice ehm because,
036 (1.2)
037 2J: ehm <<whispering>ws heisst bade;> ((what is 'bade' ((swimming))))
038 2I: (0.7)((gestures))(0.3)<<p>swimming;>
039 2J: (0.5)ehm it's is nice to swimming and
040 (6.1)du; ((you))
041 2I: (2.4)ehm (1.7)I I think we go to the Karibik,

Extract 108: 2IJ10

When the development of the frequencies is considered, it can be seen that they both use slightly more assistance appeals towards the end of the school year (Figure 23); but otherwise, pair 2IJ does not change the frequency with which they use strategies, not even after feedback had been provided. When frequencies of strategy use are compared to other learners (Table 13), it becomes evident that apart from asking their partner for help, they use a relatively low number of interaction strategies. But still, as could be seen in the extracts above, at times they do engage with the other's contributions as best they can, but often switch to German for truly interacting. This might explain why the interactions are perceived as less troublesome than 1IJ's or 2EF's but the use of interaction strategies is equally low. The two learners oscillate between obeying, completing the task and addressing resource deficits on the one hand and evading the chore, on the other. This is especially true for 2J. He tends to be the one digressing from the task while 2I brings him back on track. Equality is rather low; it is mostly 2I who is in control of the task. These two learners alternate between an expert/novice and a dominant/passive pattern (Storch, 2002a) with the more able peer being in control.

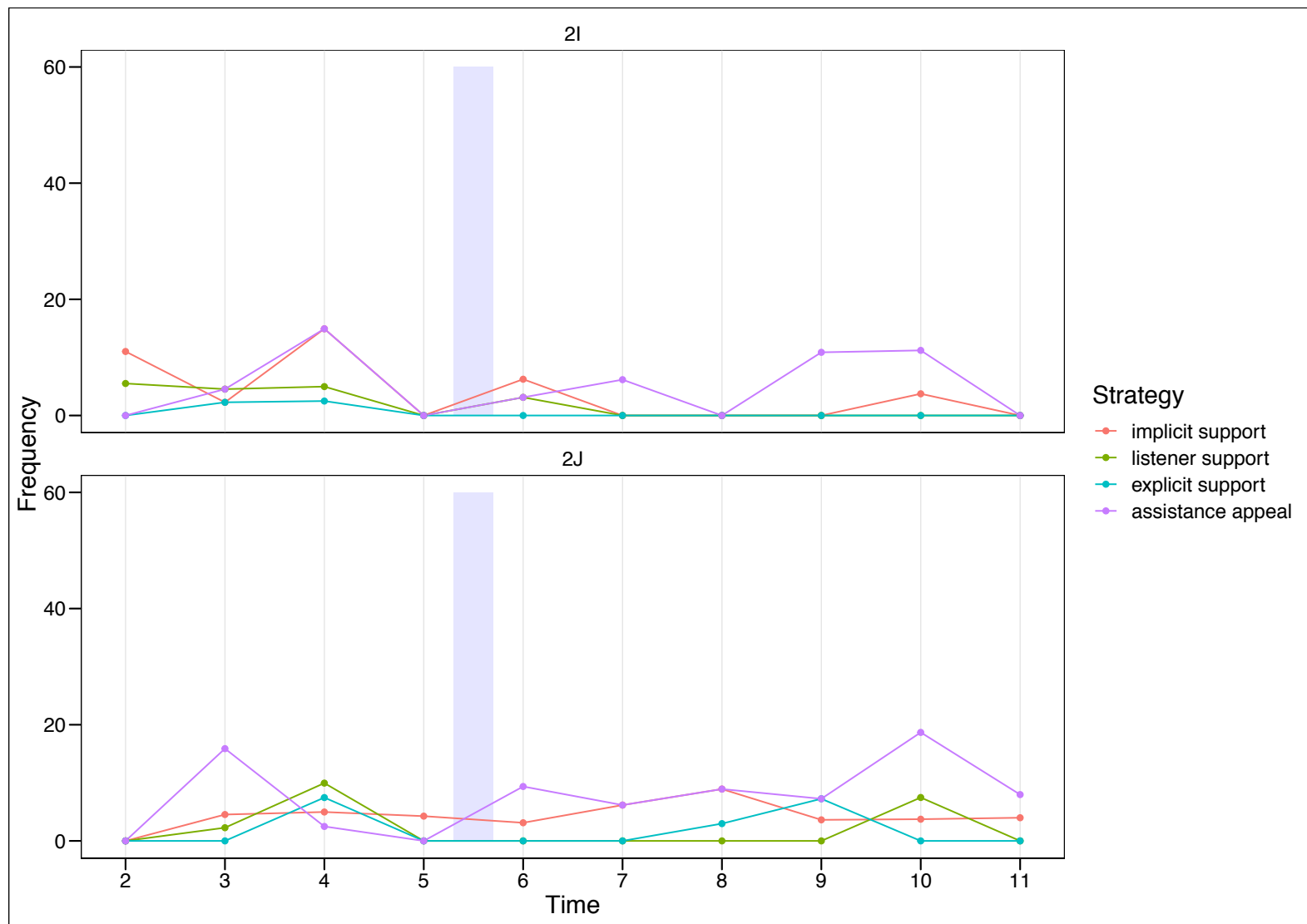


Figure 23: Use of strategies by 2I and 2J over time, measured per 'shared time on-task' (cf. 3.7.4), purple bar = feedback by the teacher

	2I	2J
Supporting partner without exposing trouble	-	-
Providing listener support (including shadowing)	-	-
Shadowing only		
Supporting partner while exposing trouble	-	-
Asking the partner for help		

Table 13: Frequency with which learners use strategies compared to other learners

4.1.10 Discussion

The previous sections have shown that there are individual differences in how frequently strategies are used. This is not surprising, given the fact that task-specific affective characteristics, such as task-motivation, situational interest and anxiety play an important role in task performance (e.g. Kormos and Préfontaine, 2016). Some learners perceive talking to a peer more like everyday conversation (e.g. pair 2CD), whereas for others classroom task-based interaction is a classroom exercise for display (e.g. learner 1J). Learners do orient to the institutional discourse of the classroom in individual ways (Markee, 2000; Seedhouse, 2004). Therefore variability in the types of strategies used by different learners is all too evident, as others have found before (e.g. Ehrman et al., 2003; Kouwenhoven et al., 2016; Littlemore, 2001; Tecedor, 2016).

Only a few learners did change the frequency with which they used specific strategies. Most patterns of strategy use were relatively stable. In Table 14, which is based on various plots of strategy use over time (Appendix 22), all the changes are indicated with arrows pointing upwards for an increase and downwards for a decrease. When there is no arrow, it means there is no major change over the 10 interactions. The individual learners with most changes in their use of interaction strategies are 1D and 2A. 1D uses more strategies in different categories, whereas 2A increases some and decreases others. The other learners hardly change their strategy use. This might be due to the fact that the use of these strategies is related to the patterns of interaction, which are also rather stable (Storch, 2002a). Pairs who use implicit support strategies more frequently and provide more listener support than others also display high mutuality and thus use more collaborative patterns of interaction (e.g. 1EF). Supporting the partner while at the same time exposing the trouble does not seem to affect mutuality negatively, however, when it is coupled with a high degree of listener support or shadowing and the two learners are on friendly terms (e.g. pair 2CD). In the classroom context, mutuality seems not to depend on language proficiency. Even with very limited resources, learners can produce highly mutual talk (e.g. pair 2CD). However, this contradicts findings that learners at lower levels displayed less mutuality in a test situation (Galaczi, 2014), than higher level learners. However, Galaczi compared adult B1-level learners with more advanced learners. Maybe at A1/A2-levels or at lower ages, learners might have shown more mutuality even in a test situation.

More probably, though, mutuality at such a low level depends on other factors, too. Earlier research has found an impact of familiarity with the partner on the interaction (e.g. O'Sullivan, 2002; Pietikäinen, 2016). In this data set, all learners are familiar with their interlocutor, but they are not all friends with him/her. Therefore, having specific expectations of what the partner potentially can or cannot do and what status the partner has in the class might impact the pattern of interaction more than mere familiarity.

Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) found that when learners completed a task in their first language, mutual friendship led to an increase in speech, whereas in the target language this factor did not impact on learners' performance. They argue that learners interacting in a foreign language – even when completing a carefully designed task – will be in learning mode. In their first language, however, the learning mode was no longer present. In this data set, however, not all pairs were in learning mode. Some could probably not suppress negative feelings and focus on learning to the same extent as the participants in Dörnyei and Kormos' study who were slightly more mature, and probably also more able, as they were preparing for further studies. The present study included learners of all abilities. While the learning mode was also visible in some pairs, friendship did have an impact on some of the interactions. This may also explain why many learners in this study did not profit from repeating a similar task with the same partner. Unlike the beginner learners in Pinter's study (2007), 1J, for example, was unable to evolve from using English for display while completing the task to completing the task as a 'joint game' (ibid.). Pinter describes the learners in her study as good friends, and enthusiastic about learning English. Enthusiasm for speaking English and being friends with the interlocutor are not a given with some of the learners here. But those who were friends (1EF and 2CD), did in fact show high mutuality and did complete the task as a 'joint game' (ibid.).

Learner	Self-help	Paraling. time-gaining	One-word fillers	Chunks as fillers	Self-repair ⁴	Alternative word	Implicit support	Confirmation check	Supportive self-repair	Impl. other-correction	Listener support	Explicit support	Explicit other-correction	Assistance appeal
1C				↗↘							→↗↘			
1D				↗			↗	↗	→↗		↗↘	↗	↗	
1E											↘			
1F	↘	↘												
1G				↗										
1H	↘	↘	↘											
1I			↘	↘↗										
1J											→↗	↗		
2A	↗	↗	↗↘				↘	↘	↗↘→	↗↘↗↘		→↗	→↗→	
2B	↗	↗				↗								
2C			↘↗	→↗										
2D				→↗		↘	↘↗	↘↗						
2E						↗				→↗				→↗
2F			↗↘			↘					→↗			
2I								↘→						
2J														

Table 14: Development of use of interaction strategies over time

⁴ Many changes within individual learners, therefore no general trend visible.

4.2 Relation between proficiency and strategy use

The following will first discuss learners' proficiency and look at developments and differences within and among learners. Next, findings regarding the relation between the use of specific strategies and proficiency are presented. Finally, the focus is on related issues such as time on-task and the use of modifications in the interaction.

4.2.1 Learners' proficiency

When boxplots of individual learners' complexity and fluency scores at the different points in time are inspected (Figures 24 – 29), the following can be observed: learners with rather high speech rate also have high phonation time ratio (Figures 24 – 25); learners with a rather high subordination score also score high for length of AS-unit (Figures 26 and 27). The two lexical complexity scores, MTLD and word level, however, are only partially related (Figures 28 and 29). From these plots, it becomes evident that many learners are not merely on a higher or a lower proficiency level. The situation is more complex. High fluency scores might be coupled with low lexical complexity scores or vice versa. Learner 2B, who was seen to struggle in the interactions, does score very low in all the measures, but not in phonation time ratio. His frequent use of filled pauses and false starts might have increased his phonation time ratio but not affected pruned speech rate. The only learner who speaks English with one of his parents (2E), scores highest for MTLD, subordination score and average length of AS-unit, but not for the other scores. He might have adapted the speed of his utterances and the difficulty of the words he used to his interlocutor. When teachers assessed the learners with an external profile rating (based on scales by Lenz and Studer, 2008), learner 1D was perceived as the strongest. She has indeed high fluency and lexical complexity scores when assessed with the given internal measures (Figures 24, 25, 28, 29). What became evident from listening to the interactions, is her frequent use of chunks of English. In the interview, she stated that she frequently watches English TV series and this is how she probably acquired the many chunks of informal English such as 'do you seriously think...', a chunk which was otherwise not used by these learners but might have increased her fluency and lexical complexity scores. Her syntactical complexity score, however, is on a similar level as 2I, 2J who were both perceived as being on a much lower level.

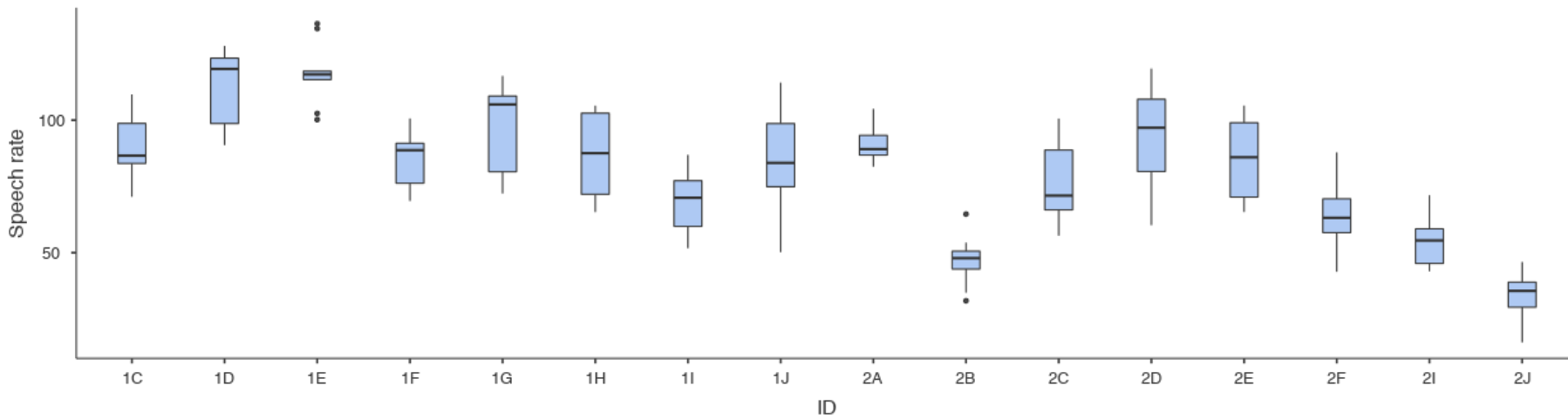


Figure 24: Pruned speech rate by learner

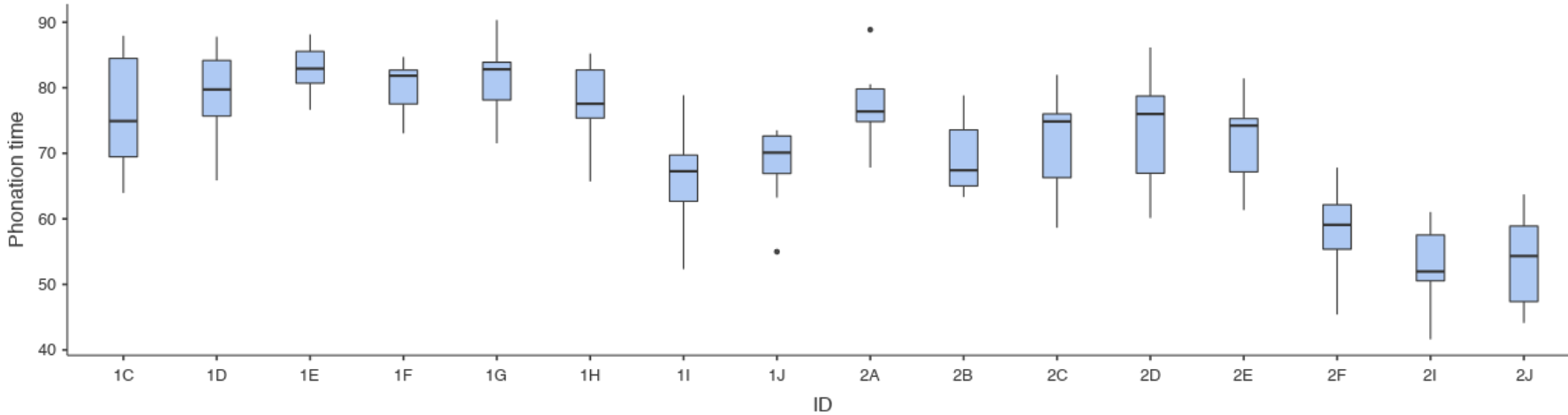


Figure 25: Phonation time ratio by learner

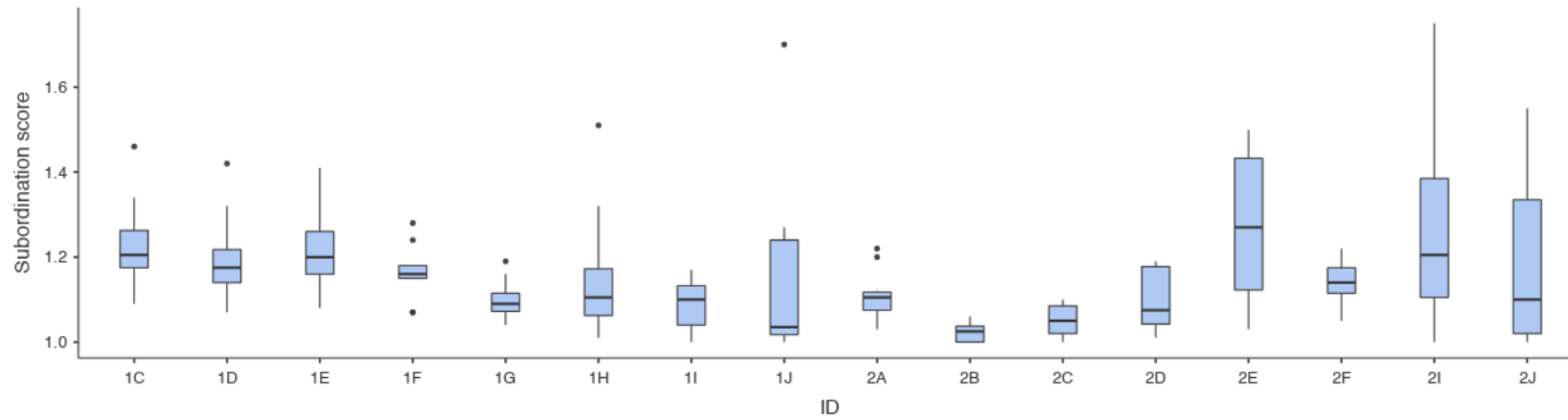


Figure 26: Subordination score per learner

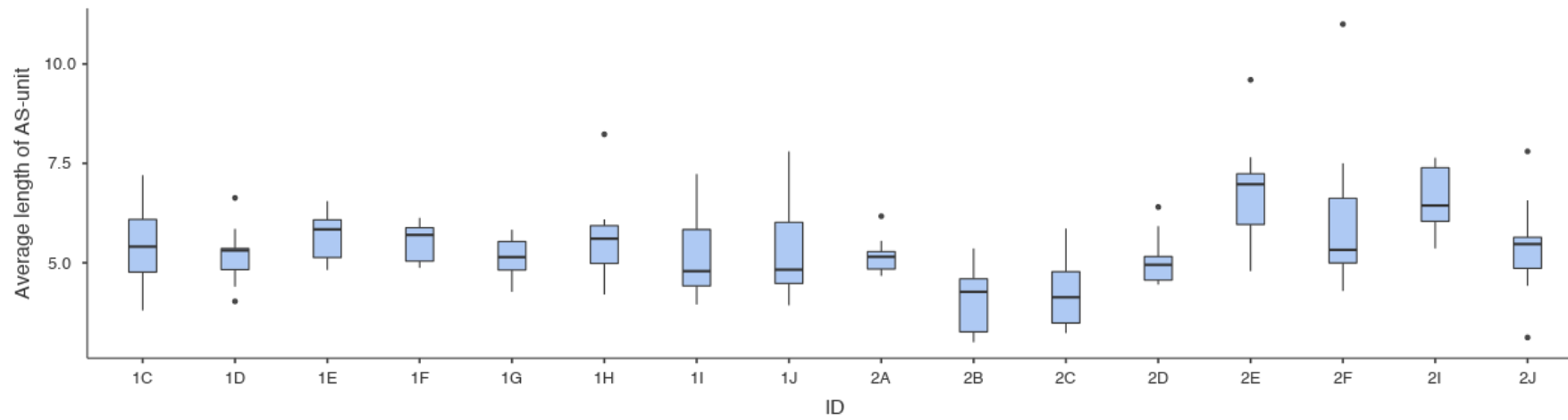


Figure 27: Average length of AS-unit by learner

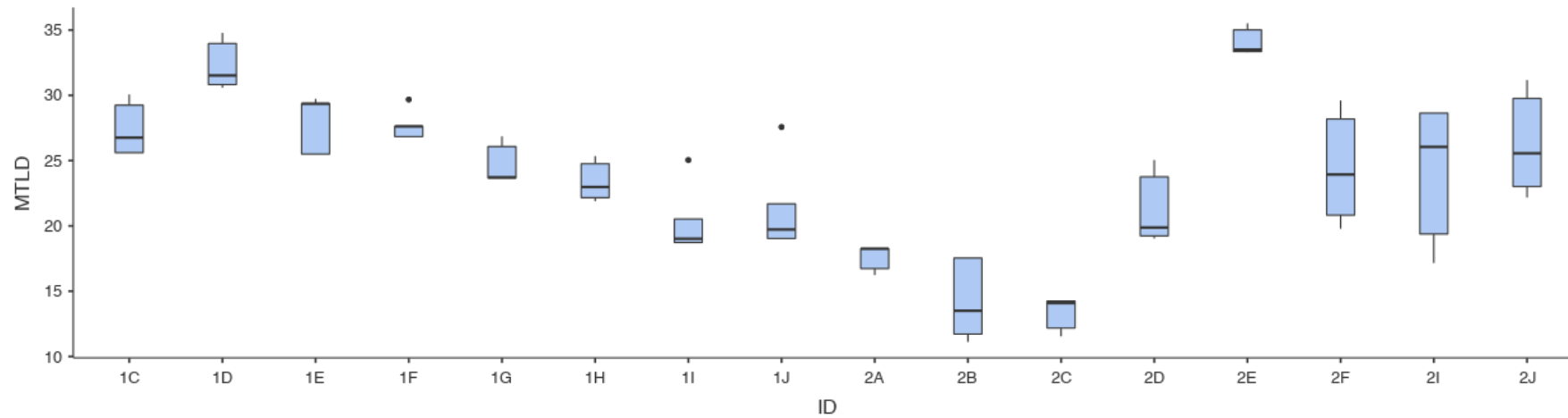


Figure 28: MTLD by learner

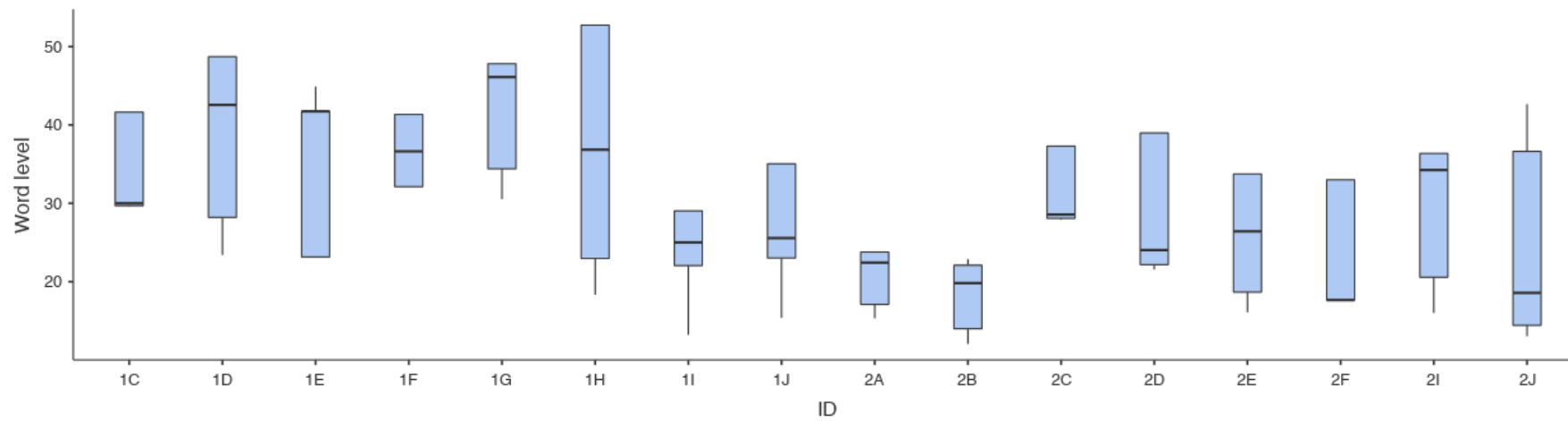


Figure 29: Word level by learner

Some of these differences may be explained by the interactional nature of the language produced. At times, learners would need more time to be able to finish a syntactically more complex sentence. In Extract 109 for example, 1I starts a subordinate clause in line 101, but he pauses for 1.4 seconds, probably in search of a word, upon which 1J asks the next question. Thus, 1I cannot finish his possibly more complex sentence with a subordinate clause.

098 1J: (3.4)ehm(2.0)like you sport?
 099 1I: yes.
 100 I like sport.
 101 (1.0)because when::(1.3)I(0.4)like sport because(1.4)
 102 1J: have you a hobby with sport;
 103 1I: (0.6)I(0.8)yes I I going to eh a Jugi;

Extract 109: 1IJ5

At other times, complexity is co-constructed as in Extract 110. 2C produces two seemingly unrelated phrases 'good clothes', 'to driving this ship'. 2C and 2D co-construct 'we need good mans to driving this ship' – an AS-unit with a subordinate clause. In fact, 'we need good mans' should also be attributed to 2C, as his 'to driving this ship' can only be understood in conjunction with the main clause produced by his partner. Additionally, when learners interact with a peer of lower linguistic ability, such as 2A interacting with 2B, the higher-level learner probably reduces the complexity of his/her talk. 2A's complexity measure might be lower than when he interacted with a higher-level learner. For these reasons, we should probably rather measure co-constructed than individual syntactical complexity.

123 2D: =we need
 124 2C: good clo[thes,]
 125 2D: [gooth] (0.4)good ehm:
 126 mans to
 127 e:h
 128 2C: **to**((mimes steering))
 129 **driving this ship,**
 130 2D: driving the ship,

Extract 110: 2CD10

What is more, learners may have higher fluency scores when they interact collaboratively with an interlocutor than they would when using less collaborative patterns of interaction. Speakers contribute to each other's fluency in that they co-construct their talk by completing each other's utterances when 'a hesitation phase is foreshadowed' (Götz, 2013, p.41). Some learners in this data, especially in pairs 1EF and 2CD, who collaborated to a very high degree, might therefore have rather high fluency scores but lower complexity scores. For 2C this is probably correct; for 2D, 1E

and 1F no such trend can be seen in Figures 24 to 29. Compared to the other learners' scores, they score equally high in all measures.

Learners' low fluency and at the same time rather high complexity score might further be explained by their preparation for the interaction. Rather than co-constructing the talk while interacting, these learners were probably recalling and presenting prepared sentences. This might explain why their scores for syntactical complexity was rather high. 2J for example, scores quite high for length of AS-unit and MTLD but very low for fluency and word level. Similarly to using pauses for focusing on form (Tavakoli et al., 2015), learners might use pauses during the interaction to recall phrases and sentences they had collected during preparation time. In this way, they used English at a complexity level which was beyond what they could do spontaneously. Therefore, it seems essential that both fluency and complexity are considered for assessing a learner's proficiency at this low a level.

4.2.2 Relation between proficiency and strategy use

To analyse the use of interaction strategies according to proficiency level, all proficiency scores were attributed a level 1, 2 or 3. Scores above the Q3 score (75%) were given the score 3, those above the Q1 score (25%) were given the score 2, and any score below this was given the score 1 (cf. Appendix 24.1). The scores which were thus obtained could then be used to calculate an overall proficiency score for every learner ranging between 6 and 18 (maximum 3 for each of the 6 measures taken) (Figure 30). By dividing this score by 6 and rounding up to the next whole number, every learner was attributed a proficiency score between 1 and 3 for every interaction (Appendix 24.2). These rough proficiency scores were used for visually inspecting the use of interaction strategies.

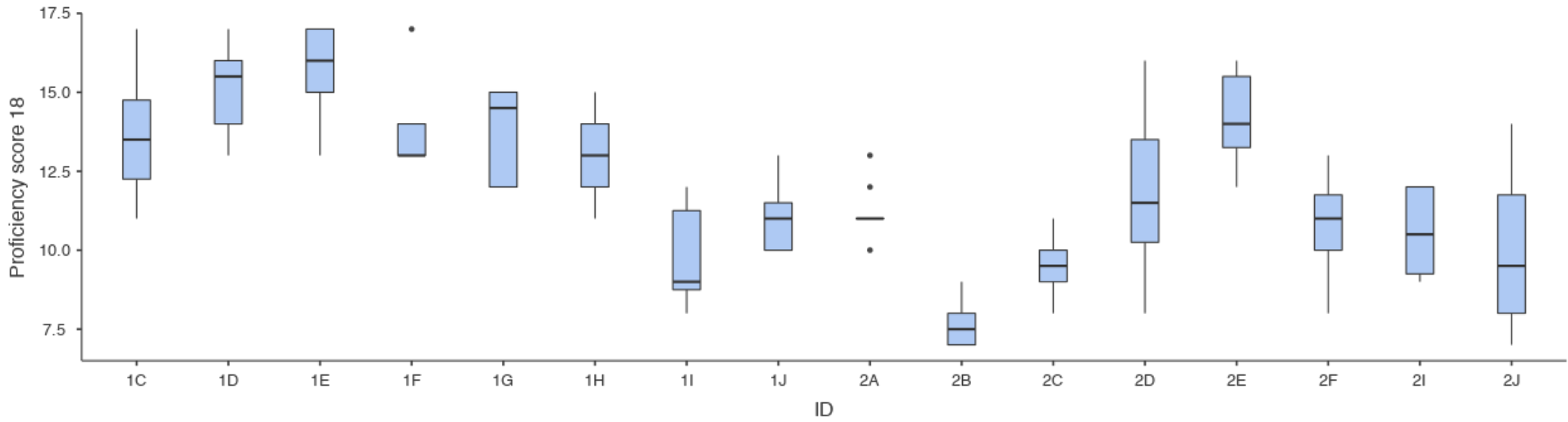


Figure 30: Boxplots of overall proficiency scores obtained in all the interactions

To investigate whether proficiency was related to the use of specific strategies, boxplots were plotted depicting the frequency of a specific interaction strategy in interactions with attributed proficiency scores 1, 2 or 3. An inspection of these boxplots revealed – non-surprisingly – that more proficient learners tend to use more elaborate forms of strategies (Figure 31). A proficiency-related difference can also be observed for school-language-based strategies (Figure 34), confirming earlier findings that learners at lower levels draw more on their L1 (e.g. Bialystok, 1983). However, less elaborate-target language-based or paralinguistic-means based strategies were used almost equally frequently by all learners (Figures 32 and 33). Support strategies and assistance seeking strategies were also considered separately, as the high frequency of self-help strategies might have covered differences within these. However, a similar picture emerged when only support and assistance seeking strategies were considered (Figures 35 – 38) with the only difference that there was a slight increase in the use of less elaborate support and assistance appeal strategies in interactions with higher proficiency scores. Otherwise, exactly the same pattern emerged.

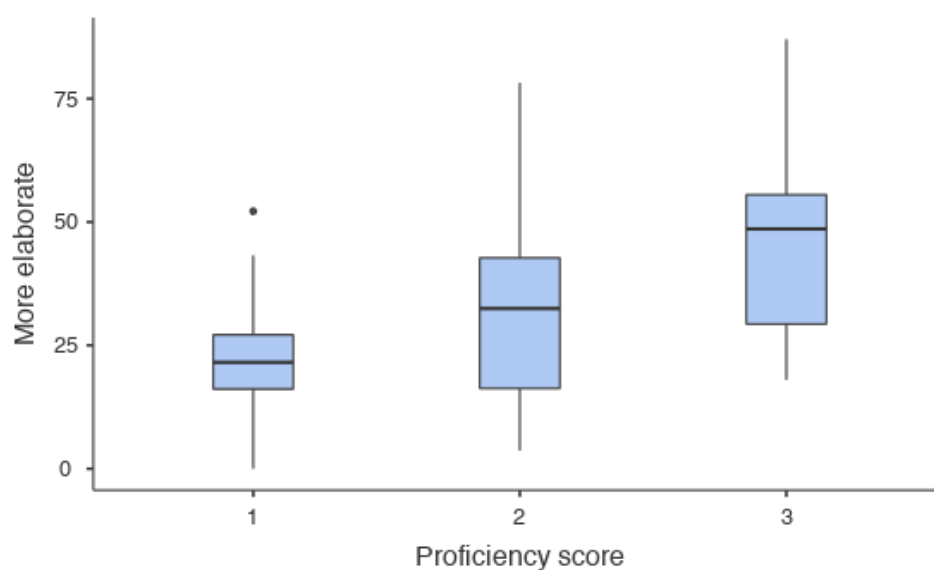


Figure 31: Use of more elaborate interaction strategies in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

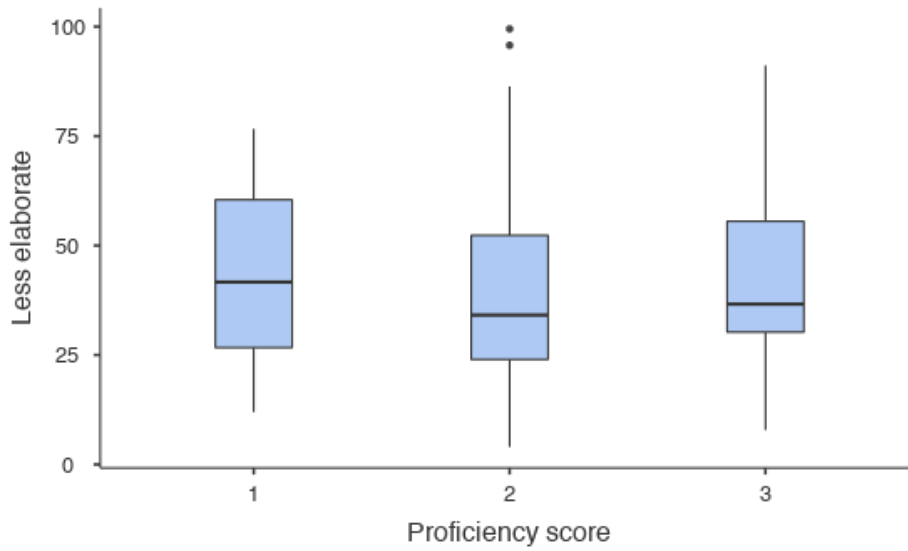


Figure 32: Use of less elaborate interaction strategies in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

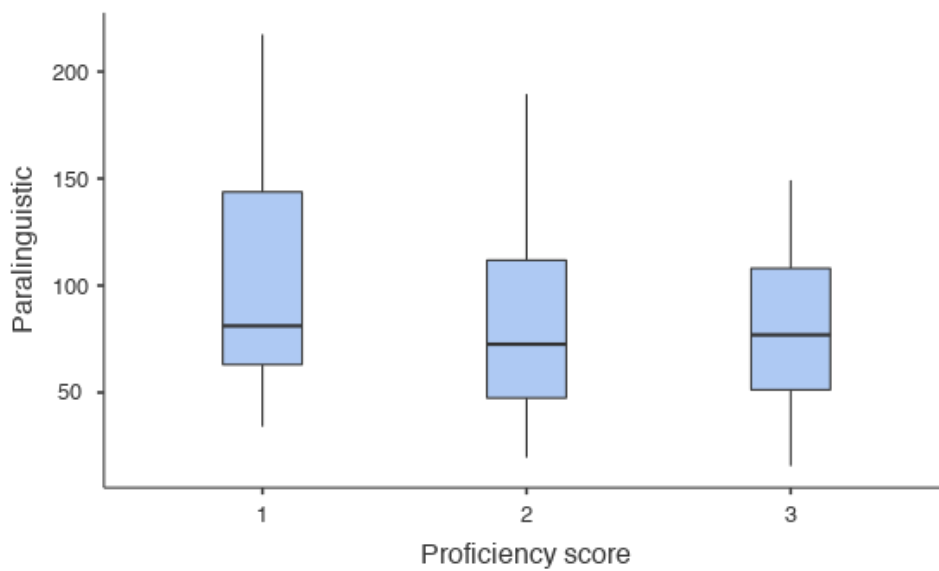


Figure 33: Use of interaction strategies drawing on paralinguistic means in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

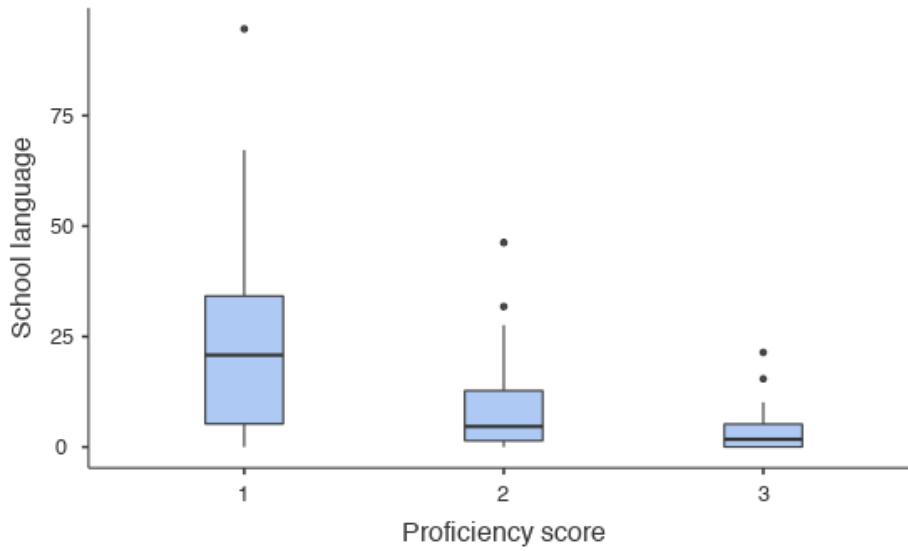


Figure 34: Use of school-language-based interaction strategies in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

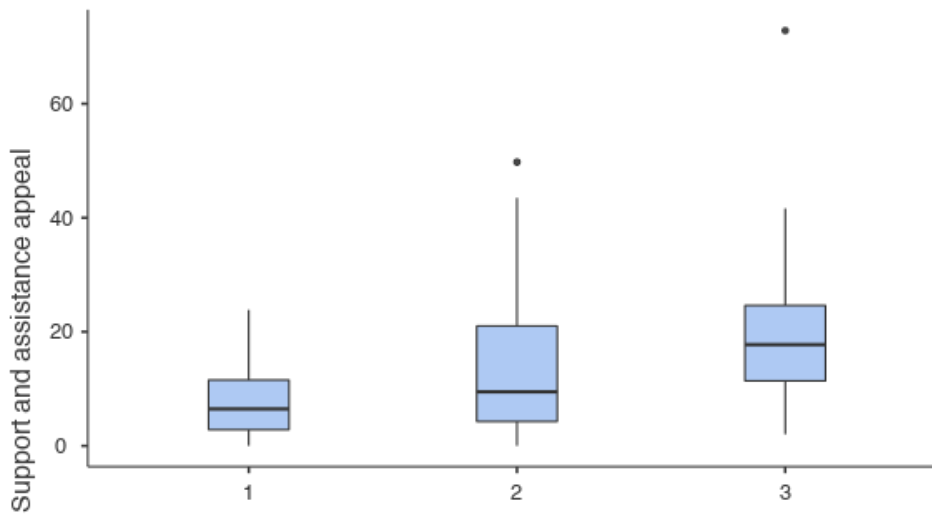


Figure 35: Use of more elaborate support and assistance appeal strategies in speech with proficiency score 1, 2, or 3

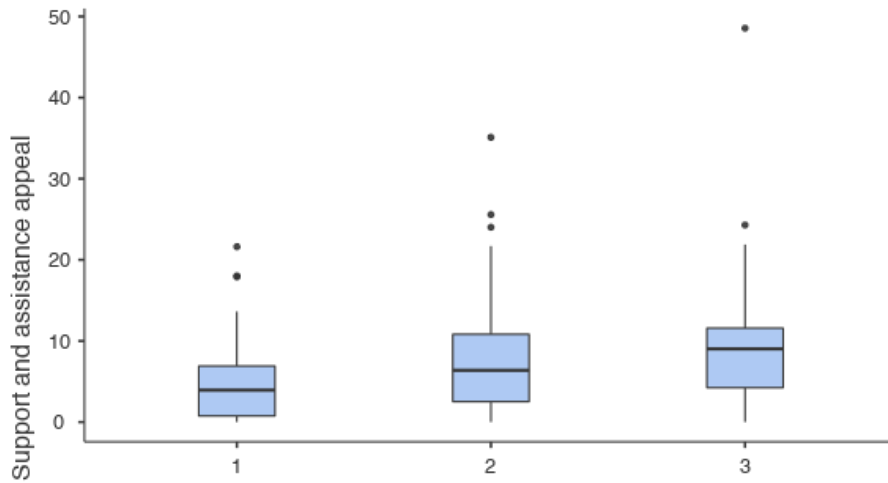


Figure 36: Use of less elaborate support and assistance appeal strategies in speech with proficiency score 1, 2, or 3

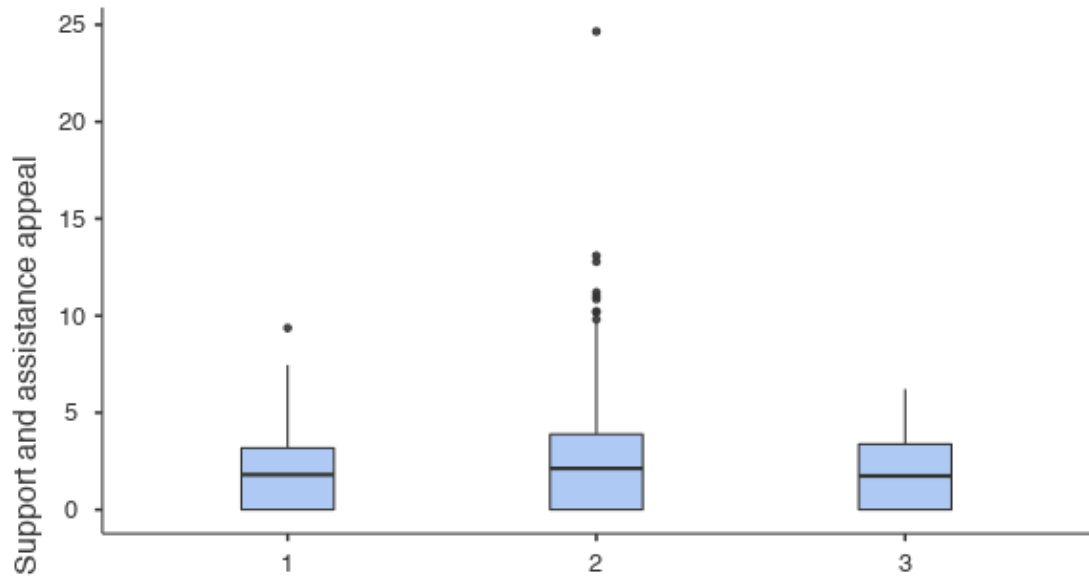


Figure 37: Use of paralinguistic means-based support and assistance appeal strategies in speech with proficiency score 1, 2, or 3

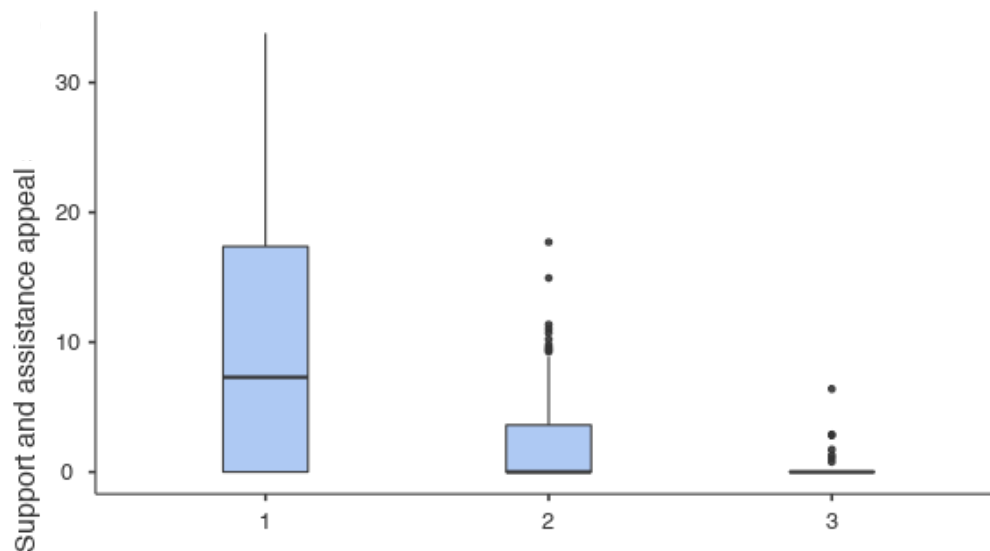


Figure 38: Use of school language-based support and assistance appeal strategies in speech with proficiency score 1, 2, or 3

In line with earlier findings (e.g. Dobao, 2002; Paribakht, 1985), paraphrase, which is a more elaborate lexical compensatory strategy, is almost exclusively used in interactions with a higher proficiency score (Figure 39). It seems that very low-level learners do indeed possess the strategies with which they can compensate for linguistic resource deficits, but unless they are on a slightly higher proficiency-level, they do so by drawing on very simple means such as using ‘okay’ for all sorts of functions. Interestingly though, in many interactions – especially those of class 1 – learners used hardly any school language or reminded the partner to use the target language. They even managed to use the target language for banter. Reasons for this might not only be found in learners’ proficiency but also in what the teacher usually encourages learners to do. Teacher 1 strongly believes that learners should be encouraged to use the target language only during lessons (personal communication).

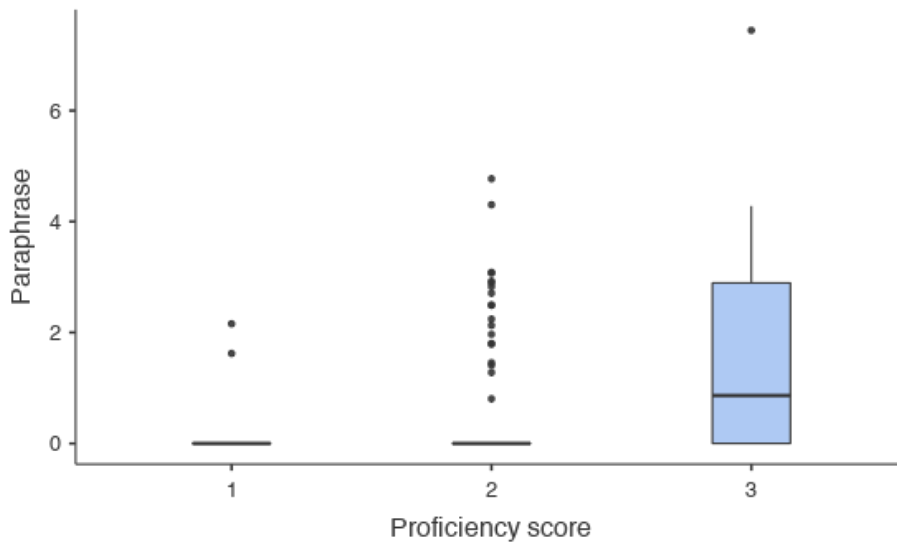


Figure 39: Use of paraphrase in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

Further, it can be seen – again rather unsurprisingly – that lower-level learners ask for help more often (Figure 40), and higher-level learners provide more help with or without exposing the trouble (Figures 41 and 42) and provide more listener support as well (Figure 43). We might expect lower level learners also to use more self-help strategies, e.g. by using more filled pauses. However, this is not the case (Figure 44). One reason for that might be that only filled pauses are counted as a self-help strategy and therefore the very low-level learners might have taken a simple pause, whereas at higher levels, learners might have paused less in total but used filled pauses instead.

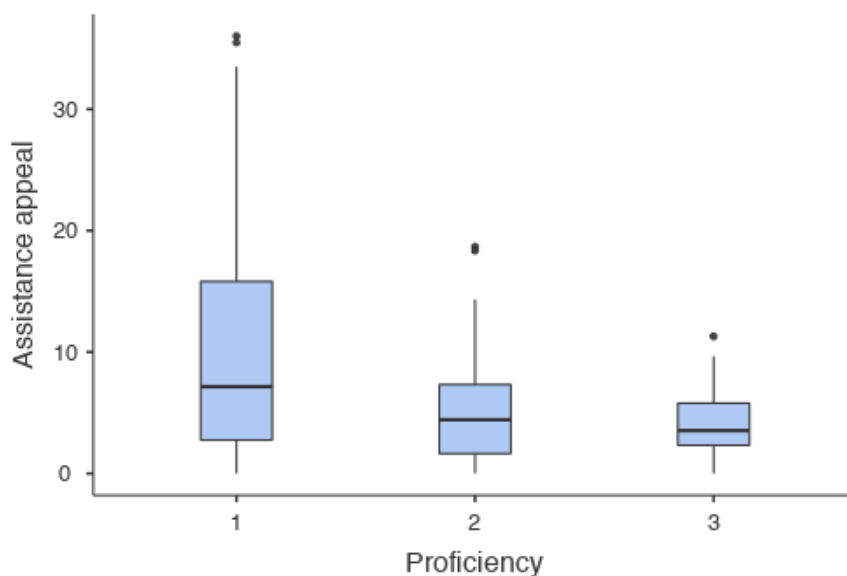


Figure 40: Frequency of assistance appeals in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

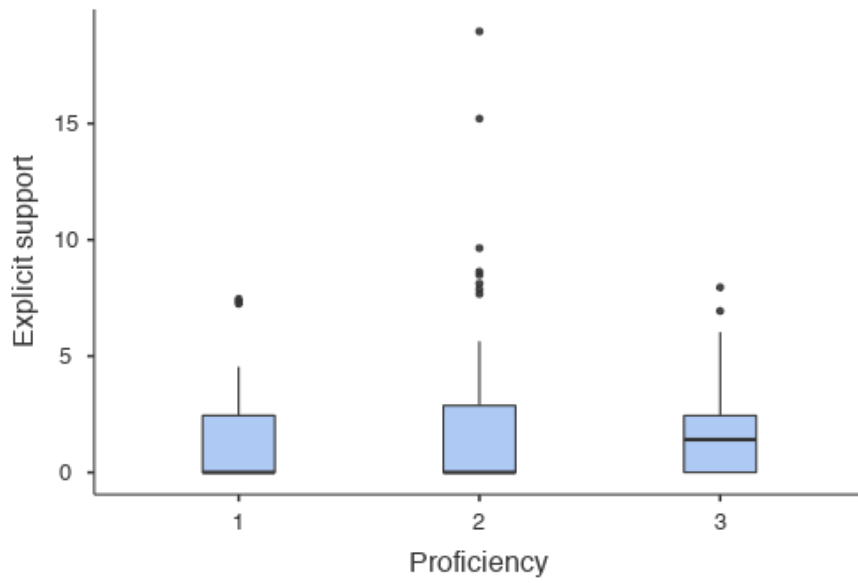


Figure 41: Frequency of supporting the partner while exposing the trouble in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

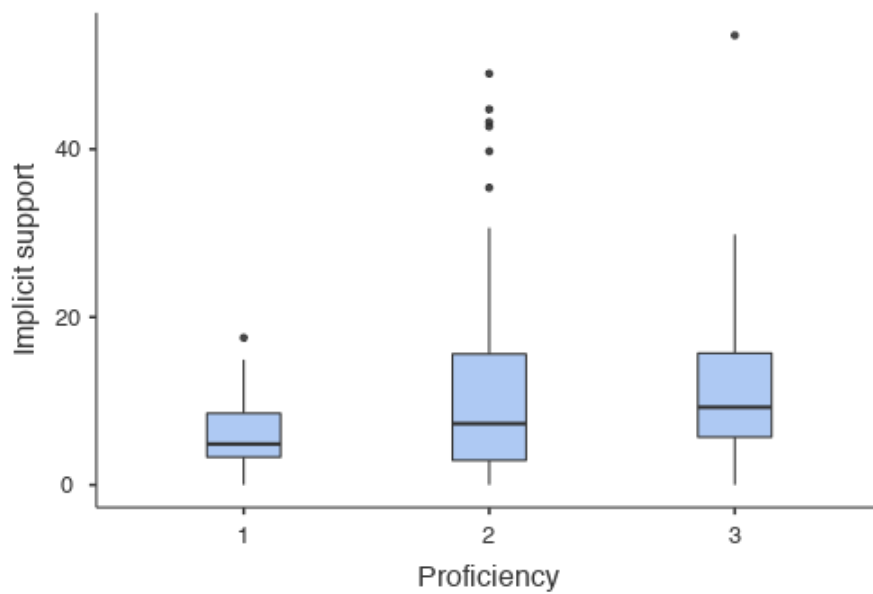


Figure 42: Frequency of supporting the partner without exposing the trouble in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

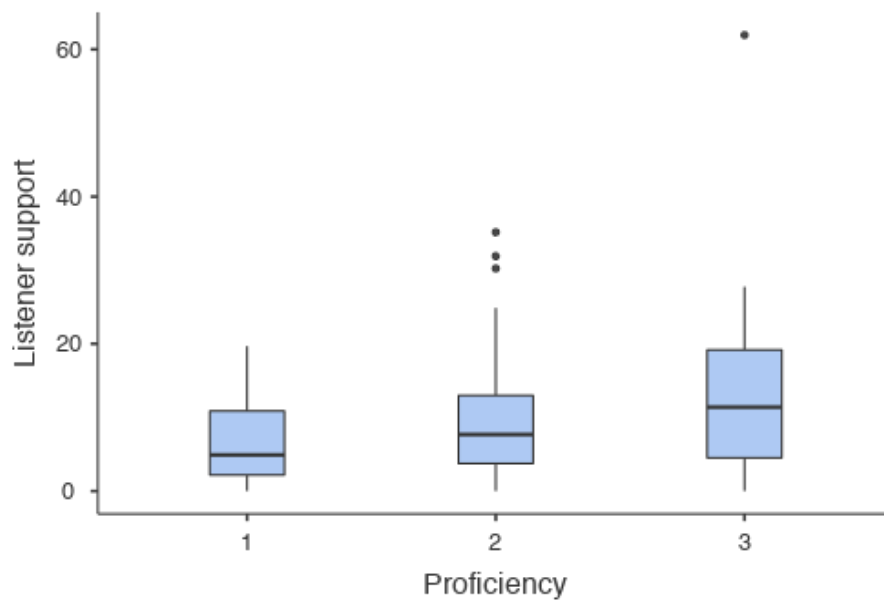


Figure 43: Frequency of providing listener support in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

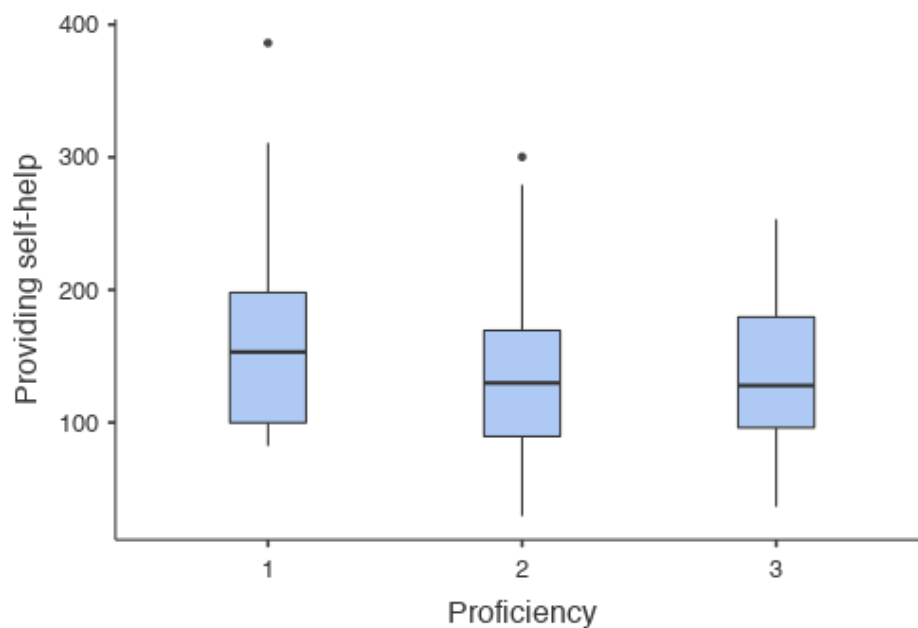


Figure 44: Frequency of providing self-help in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

The question can now be asked whether these differences do indeed show some development from the very low-level learner to the low-level learner. By referring to Vygotsky's model of control (Vygotsky, 2012), Khanji (1996) maintains that learners can produce self-regulated, other-regulated, or object-regulated speech when facing communicative problems. He claims that learners can be controlled by the interlanguage

as an object, by their interlocutor (other-regulation) or that they are self-regulated in that they produce

‘language forms in order to consciously control his own presence as a speaker in the communication act. That is, to establish his position, rather than to be a respondent to the interlanguage object or to the interlocutor’ (Khanji, 1996, p.151).

In this view, code switch, repetition as stalling device and message abandonment might each represent an object-regulation strategy, whereas assistance appeals can be seen as other-regulation strategies. Self-regulation strategies would be evident as semantic contiguity (e.g. approximation or L2-based word coinage) and literal transfer. Similarly, Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger (2015, p.249) claim that over time, repair practices shift ‘from other to self as regards both repair initiation and repair accomplishment’. Use of the shared school language can thus mean learners use object-regulation to control the task, whereas when they ask their partner for help they are other-regulated, and by using strategies such as paraphrase learners self-regulate their speech.

We might, therefore, observe some development from object- to other- to self-regulation here. The fact that very low-proficiency learners in this data seem to draw more on the shared school language might reflect their still being controlled by the interlanguage rather than their having control of the communication-task. It is only when learners collaborate, i.e. support each other collaboratively and thus use other-regulation, that they can in collaboration keep control of the communication-task and keep the conversation channel open without drawing on the school language extensively. In this way, we might argue that in the classroom context, through collaboration low-level learners are able to jointly control the task. It seems that for low-level learners to be successful communicators in the classroom, they need to make ample use of other-regulation by co-constructing their utterances, asking for help, supporting the partner and establishing intersubjectivity by using listener support. This would also mean that alignment activity or at least the parts of alignment which have been measured here do indeed evolve in that learners use more collaborative completions when they are on a more advanced level (Dings, 2014) and that these interactional resources might allow for greater task control and participation in the co-construction of interaction (ibid., p. 753).

This is even more important when differences in proficiency between learners in a dyad are considered. Differences in proficiency can impact negatively on the patterns of interaction (Kim and McDonough, 2008; Watanabe and Swain, 2007, 2008). And indeed, the difference in pairs 2AB and 2EF resulted in very different patterns of interaction and strategy use. The more collaborative pair with very unequal proficiency (2AB) used more assistance and support strategies than the average learner in this data, whereas the less collaborative unequal pair used very few (2EF) – even fewer than other pairs with equal

proficiency (cf. sections 4.1.9.5 and 4.1.9.7). On the one hand, dyad 2AB confirms earlier findings that pairing learners of differing abilities can lead to more negotiation for meaning (Iwashita, 2001). On the other, interactional patterns by used by dyad 2EF overruled the impact proficiency can have on the interaction (Watanabe and Swain, 2007). It seems that both individual differences and proficiency level do influence the use of interaction strategies. This may explain why earlier findings on the impact of proficiency on the use of communication strategies sometimes have been contradictory (Nakatani and Goh, 2007, pp.210, 215). Individual differences in interaction patterns may be more pertinent to the question of whether learners do address the trouble, whereas proficiency levels may impact more on how learners address it, i.e. whether they use assistance appeals or less elaborate/foreignized forms of specific strategies. Overall, however, collaboratively addressing the trouble may in fact demonstrate a higher level of task control than when learners do use pre-planned language of high complexity but do not engage with the partner while completing the task.

4.2.3 Proficiency, time on-task, time in English and modifications

Unsurprisingly, interactions with higher proficiency scores also lasted longer, and learners spent more time using English than in interactions with lower proficiency scores (cf. Figures 45 and 46). However, a similar number of turns and a similar number of modifications in the direction of standard English (both corrected for length of interaction) were used for addressing trouble whether learners' speech was on level 1, 2 or 3 (Figures 47 and 48). This indicates that learners who are on a higher level tend to spend more time on-task and will therefore most certainly also negotiate meaning more often and produce more modified output. Thus they most probably create more learning opportunities, as they can pay attention to features of the output (Mackey and Polio, 2009; Swain, 1995). In short, those who have, will be given more. At the same time though, the boxplots indicate a rather high variance among learners. Some higher-level learners probably modified their utterances more often than others, i.e. they profited more from the longer interactions than others.

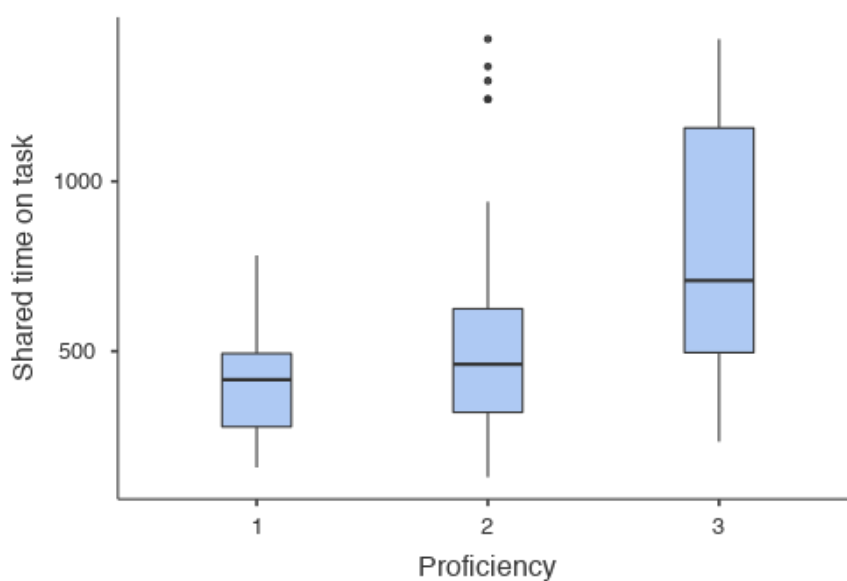


Figure 45: Shared time on-task in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

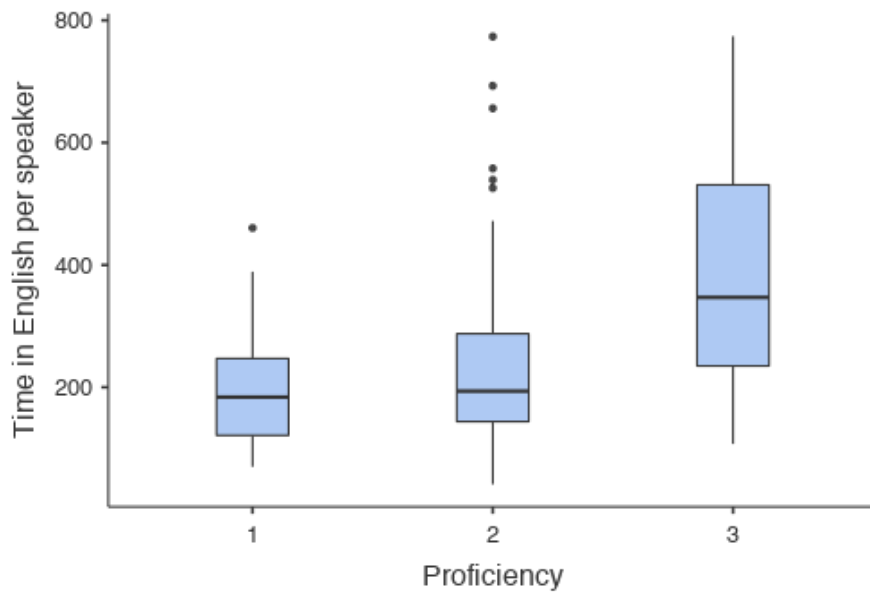


Figure 46: Time in English per speaker in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

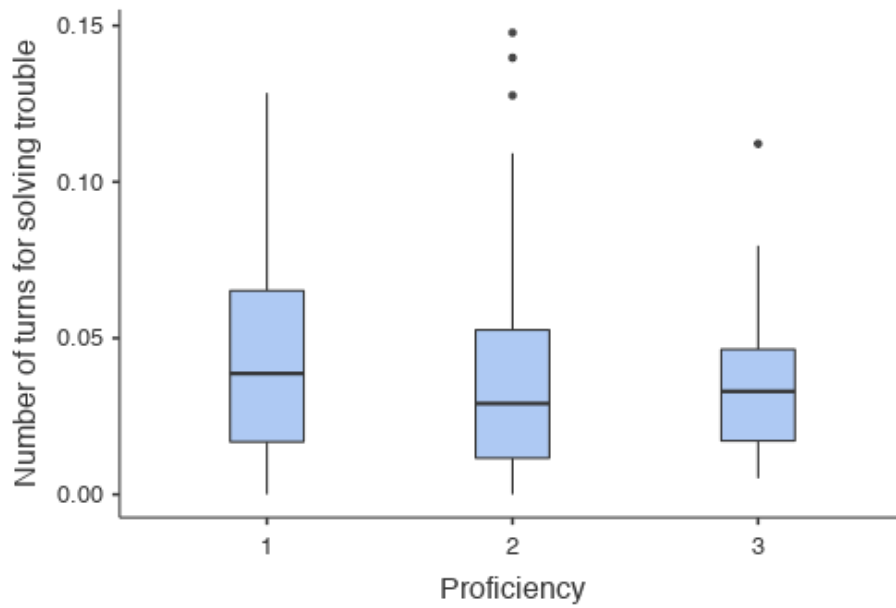


Figure 47: Number of turns used for resolving trouble in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

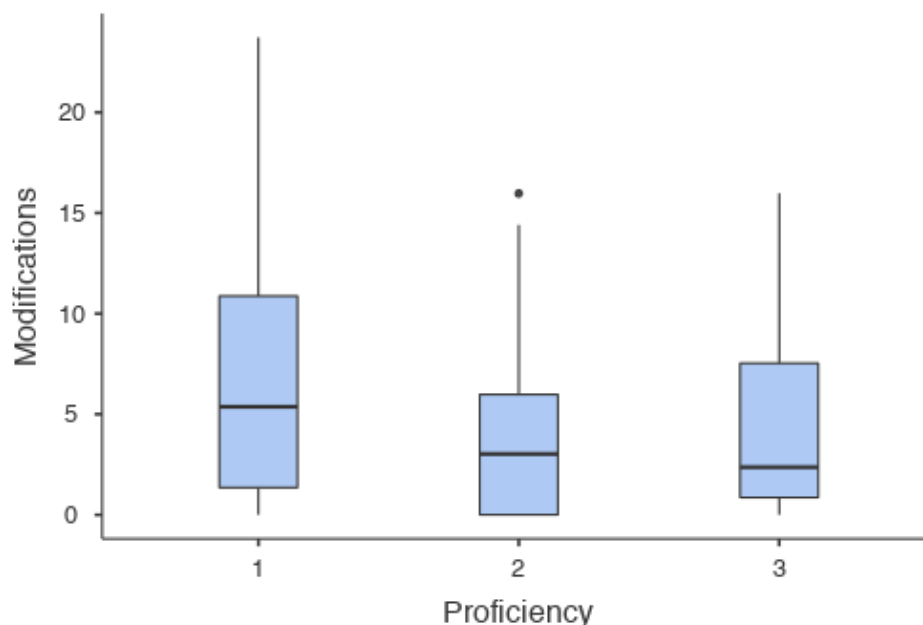


Figure 48: Number of modifications in the direction of more standard English while addressing trouble in speech with proficiency score 1, 2 or 3

When the use of modifications by the learners in this data set is analysed in more detail, it can be observed that in general, learners did produce response utterances modified toward comprehensibility. However, in the same way as earlier studies have found (e.g. Lam and Wong, 2000) for lack of linguistic resources, learners often rather used self-repetition than modification. When they did modify their response utterances, not all modifications were made in the direction of more standard English. Sometimes they used less standard, foreignized English or the school language. Figure 49 indicates the frequency with which individual learners modified their language in the direction of more elaborate or accurate English within a negotiation move. Included in the count are instances when learners integrated the more standard support they were given into their own utterance, or self-repaired as a result of a negotiation move, or used lexical compensatory strategies with changes in the direction of more standard English. Also included are instances when learners successfully completed their own or the other speaker's utterance and used other-repair within a negotiation move. The frequencies have been calculated per length of interaction to adjust for the different length learners spent on-task.

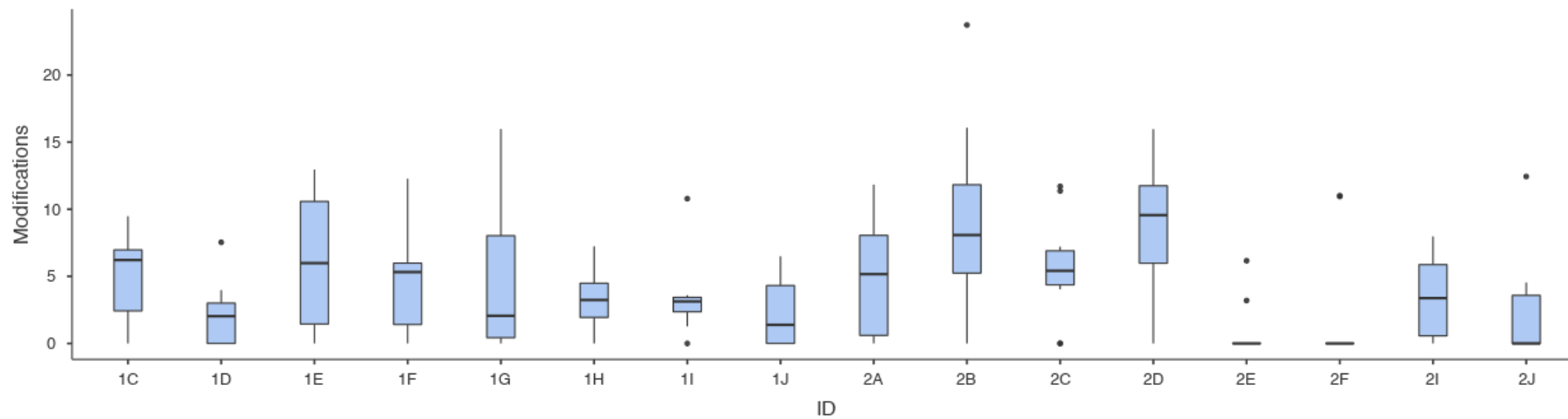


Figure 49: Modifications in the direction of more standard English in all interactions per learner (corrected for length of interaction)

Figure 49 above shows that there are individual differences in how often learners modify their utterances in the direction of more standard English. 2B and 2D modify their language most frequently, followed by 1C, 1E, 1F, 2A and 2C. The other learners only rarely modify their language and two learners hardly ever use modifications (2E, 2F). Some learners do increase the use of modifications throughout the school year (1E, 1F, 1G) as can be seen in Figure 50. This figure contains a scatterplot with a LOESS line (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing - a non-parametric smoother, which is estimated with respect to the whole curve rather than a particular estimate) fitted to the scatterplots to observe trends more easily. There might also be a task-induced preference for more modification. Visual inspection of a plot of frequencies for every task (Figure 51), however, shows that this is probably not the case. The changes tend to show a development from using fewer to more modifications.

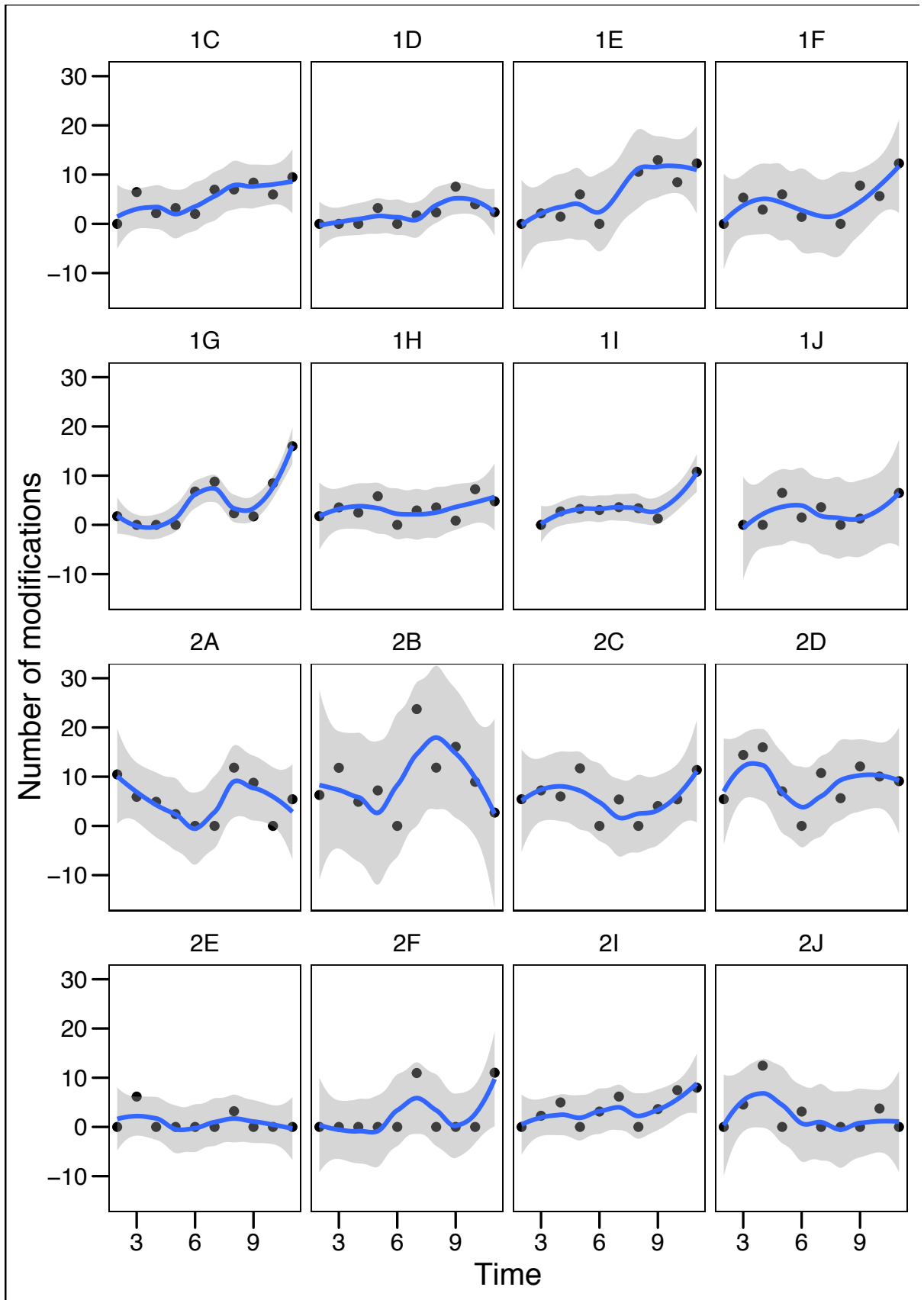


Figure 50: Development of use of modifications per learner, adjusted for length of interaction with a LOESS line added

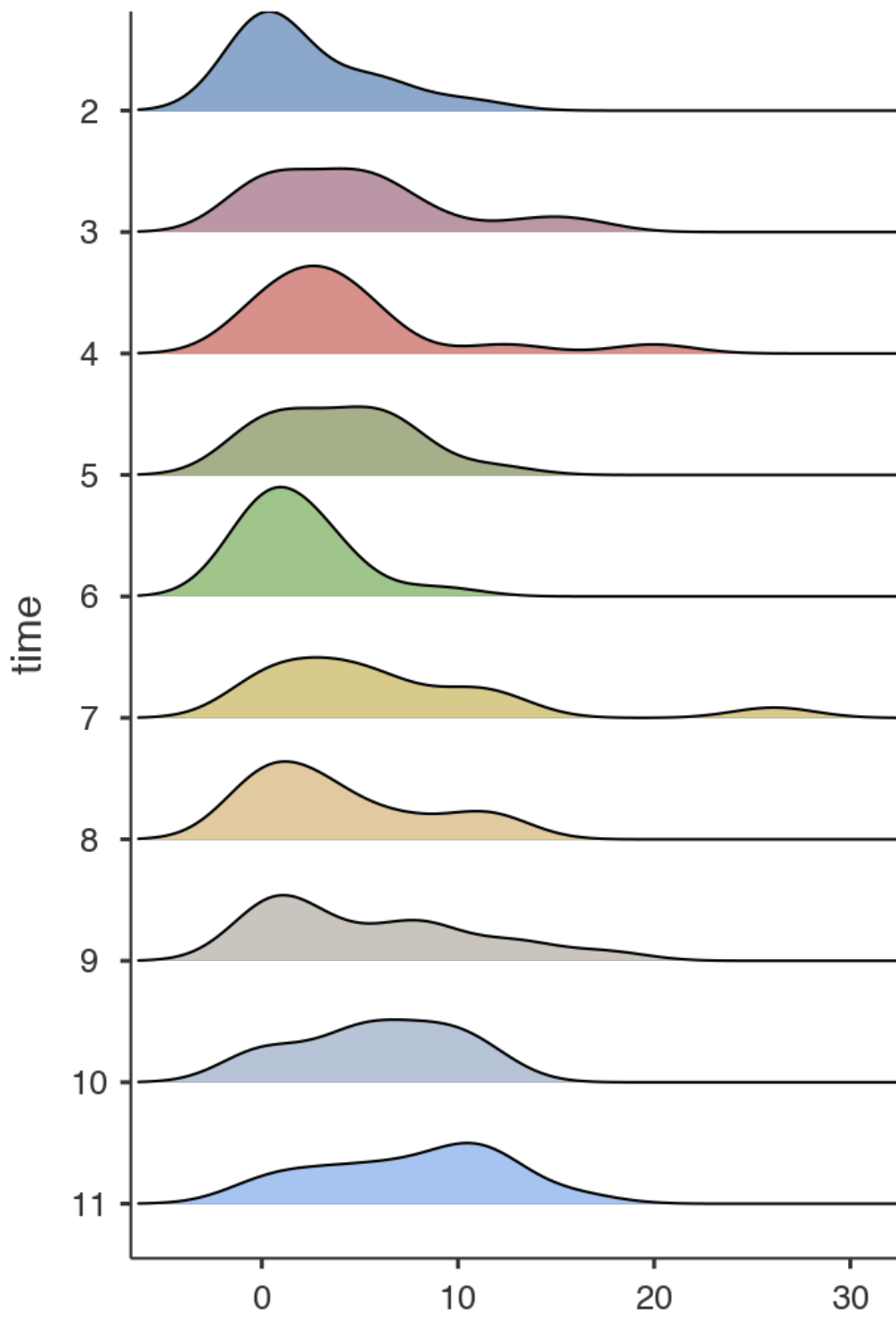


Figure 51: Density plot of how often learners modify language in interactions 2-11

Iwashita (2001) found that low-level learners modified fewer utterances than high-proficiency learners when they worked with same-proficiency partners. However, low-proficiency learners paired with higher-level partners modified their output more than high-proficiency learners working with low-level partners (*ibid.*). These findings are only partially confirmed. In the unequal pairs 1CD and 2AB, the less able learner did use more modifications than the higher level partner. However, the third unequal pair 2EF uses almost no modifications. Among the learners using most modifications is 2D, the slightly more proficient partner in a pair. In this data, differences can instead be explained by drawing on the interaction patterns learners use: pairs using highly collaborative patterns of interaction (1EF, 2CD, cf. section 4.1.9) modified their utterances more than pairs displaying very low collaboration (1IJ, 2EF, 2IJ). Pair 1CD does change the pattern of interaction, which might explain why the less able peer does use an average amount of modifications. Pair 1GH then, did collaborate, but what distinguishes these two from the other collaborative pairs, is the fact that they used many fake negotiations to tease the partner rather than to address communication problems. Additionally, this pair used fewer implicit support strategies and less listener support than the pairs using more modifications (cf. section 4.1.9).

In sum, the differences in the number of modifications seem to be more interaction-pattern-related. Pairs who used highly collaborative talk (1EF, 2CD) or in which the higher-level learner used many support strategies (2AB) and made ample use of implicit support and listener support, used more modifications than pairs who did not collaborate (2EF, 1IJ). If the number of modifications does indicate learning potential, it would confirm earlier findings summarised by Philp, Adams and Iwashita:

‘Dyads that engage in interactions collaboratively are more likely to learn through interaction than those that don’t, regardless of proficiency. However, proficiency may play a mediating role in determining which type of interactional pattern learners engage in’ (Philp et al., 2013, p.77).

A statistical correlation test does confirm the above observations (Table 15). There is a strong relationship between supporting the partner with or without exposing the trouble (implicit and explicit support) and the number of modifications in the direction of more elaborate English the interaction partner is using. The frequency of providing explicit support also correlates with the frequency of supporting the partner without exposing the trouble. Additionally, there is quite a strong correlation between the provision of listener support and the time learners spend on-task. This correlation is still stronger than the relationship between proficiency and on-task time. This might indicate that learners in the more collaborative dyads, i.e. those who support the other either implicitly or explicitly and provide listener support, may keep talking for longer, and perhaps more importantly, they allow their partner the time and room to modify their utterances. Thus they make the interaction more acquisition-rich.

The importance of pair dynamics for the classroom can probably not be overestimated. When learners collaborate, they pool their resources and jointly produce language (Thorne and Hellermann, 2015). Borrowing from social interdependence theory, Sato and Viveros (2016) claim that there is a positive causality among collaborative interaction, a collaborative mindset ('a positive peer relationship' (ibid. p. 107)) and foreign language development. It seems that learners in this data set, too, benefit most when working with a collaborative partner (Watanabe and Swain, 2007). Apart from contributing to fluency, output may have three main functions: it can help learners notice the gap between what they want to say and what they can say, it may provide learners with the space to try out new language, and last, what has been said by the other or the self can be reflected on (Swain, 2005). When learners engage in collaborative dialogue, 'their "saying" becomes "what they said", and thus provides an object for reflection', (Swain, 2000, p.113). Through this, new knowledge can be constructed (ibid.). By collaborating, learners produce language for their 'mutual benefit' (Atkinson, 2013, p.470).

'Interaction in this sense is like a cooperative (versus competitive) ping pong game, in which two or more partners coordinate or align their activities sensitively and ongoingly for their mutual benefit' (ibid.).

Thus, interaction strategies are used successfully and create the space for learning when they support the cooperative ping pong game between learners.

Correlation Matrix

		Implicit support	Listener support	Explicit support	Shared time on-task	Modifications by partner	Proficiency score
Implicit support	Spearman's rho	—	0.356	0.692 **	0.556 *	0.876 ***	0.377
	p-value	—	0.088	0.001	0.013	< .001	0.075
Listener support	Spearman's rho		—	0.132	0.692 **	0.312	0.365
	p-value		—	0.312	0.001	0.120	0.082
Explicit support	Spearman's rho			—	0.154	0.721 ***	-0.042
	p-value			—	0.285	< .001	0.561
Shared time on-task	Spearman's rho				—	0.476 *	0.454 *
	p-value				—	0.031	0.039
Modifications by partner	Spearman's rho					—	-0.001
	p-value					—	0.502
Proficiency score	Spearman's rho						—
	p-value						—

Note. H_a is positive correlation

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, one-tailed

Table 15: Correlation matrix of learner means taken from all their interactions

4.3 Impact of teacher feedback

The following is a section on the impact of the instruction on an individual learner's use of strategies. To illustrate the effect the feedback had on a single strategy, plots on the development of the frequency of the targeted interaction strategies were explored (cf. Appendix 22). Findings thereof are presented in the following section.

4.3.1 Feedback provided

Teachers provided different feedback to individual learners, telling them which interaction strategies they used well and should continue using, and which strategies they should use more in the future (Appendix 19). Sometimes teachers also provided some more general instruction. For example, they commented on learners' turn-taking by suggesting they should have more of a conversation than an interview, or to allow the partner more waiting time or to offer the turn to the partner more often. They did this to correct some perceived imbalance in the interaction. Some learners were also asked to use the preparation time more thoroughly and start or end the interaction in English. Teacher 2 believed this would help learners to spend more time using English (Appendix 13.2). This teacher also pointed out some specific language-typical pitfalls for German speakers (e.g. why/because).

4.3.2 Impact of the feedback on strategy use

Of all the learners who received feedback on the use of a specific strategy, 13 increased the frequency of that strategy immediately after the instruction, 10 lowered it and for 14 there was no change observable (Table 16). For the strategies which were targeted more often, a percentage of learners showing change in the direction of more frequent use was calculated.

Targeted strategy	increase	lower	no change	Percentage of learners showing positive change
chunks as fillers	3	2	2	
one-word fillers	1	2	0	40%
paraphrase	2	1	3	28%
gestures and mime to substitute an unknown word	0	1	0	
natural conversation/support	1	0	1	
completions	1	0	0	
confirmation check	0	0	1	
listener support chunks	4	1	3	
listener support English one-word	0	1	1	
listener support shadowing	2	0	0	50%
assistance appeal	1	1	1	
clarification request	0	2	1	
repetition request	0	0	3	11%
assistance appeal in English	1	0	1	
Total	16	11	17	

Table 16: Immediate effect of instruction on use of specific strategies (based on plots in Appendix 22)

Of the learners who increased the frequency after receiving feedback, 6 stayed on that level or increased it even further, and 7 lowered it towards the end of the school year (Table 17).

Targeted strategy	increase	learners	increase stayed or further increase
		1F	yes
		1G	yes
chunks as fillers	3	1J	no
one-word fillers	1	1J	no
		1D	no
paraphrase	2	2B	yes
natural conversation/support	1	1D	yes
completions	1	1J	yes
		1D	yes
		1H	no
		1I	no
listener support: chunks	4	1J	no
		1D	yes
listener support: shadowing	2	2D	yes
assistance appeal	1	2B	yes
assistance appeal in English	1	2B	no
			yes: 8
Total	16		no: 7

Table 17: Long-term effect of instruction on use of specific strategies by learners who had increased the use immediately after the feedback (based on plots in Appendix 22)

The most noticeable effect can be seen with listener support. Half the learners did increase the use of listener support, and for half of these the change lasted until the end of the school year. This confirms findings by Nakatani (2005) that after instruction, learners significantly increased the use of what he called maintenance strategies (listener support and shadowing). Besides, earlier studies investigating the impact of some instruction on the engagement with the interaction partner – of which using listener support is a part – showed similarly positive effects (Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Coulson, 2005; Kim and McDonough, 2011; Leedham, 2005; Nakatani, 2005). Linguistically, listener support can be provided by drawing on very simple means, such as 'okay', which is also used in the school language, or even paralinguistic means. In the classroom, however, learners will perhaps only use listener support when they perceive the interaction as a conversation and not merely a language learning exercise or a performance. Thus, a reminder to use listener support might set the context right for them. Still, when a plot of the frequency with which individual learners provide listener support by using chunks, single words or shadowing is inspected, we can see that some learners replace one with the other (Figure 52). 1H uses slightly more chunks for listener support and more shadowing but lowers the amount of single words for providing listener support (Figure 52). The same is true for 1I and 1J. However, from the analysis in section 4.1.9.4, we know that 1I did slightly increase the overall use of listener support. 1D then did increase the overall use of listener support.

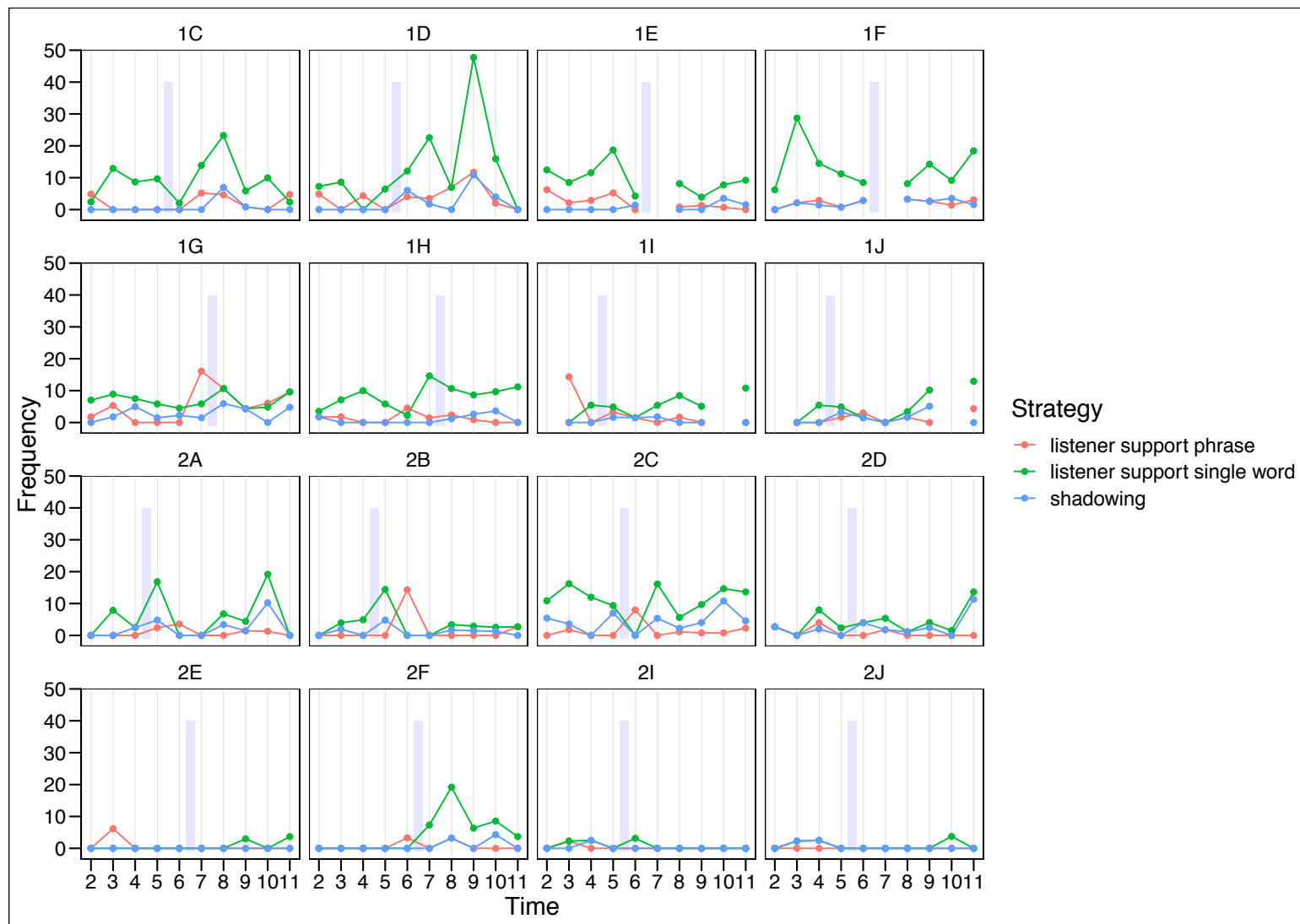


Figure 52: Using phrases, single words or shadowing for providing listener support, purple bar = time of feedback

An almost equal effect of the instruction can be observed for the use of fillers. Dörnyei (1995) had found that after training, 72% of the learners demonstrated positive change in the use of fillers. Nakatani (2005) had also found an increase in the use of filled pauses. In this data, simply reminding learners of the fact that they should use chunks or single words as fillers, and providing them with a list of possible words and chunks for this, resulted in more frequent use with 40% of the learners. This effect was permanent for half of these learners. Considering the fact that the learners in this study were at a lower proficiency level than the learners in Dörnyei's or Nakatani's study, and that they did not go through extended practice sessions, this effect can be considered as rather high. With only very little training, i.e. brief feedback by the teacher, these learners were able to increase both their use of English chunks as fillers. When learners are acquiring a second or further foreign language, it might no longer be necessary to undergo elaborated strategy training, but individualised wake-up calls (Cohen, 2011, p.140) and lists of words or phrases might suffice. As the plot of frequencies with which learners use one-word fillers, or chunks as fillers shows (Figure 53), learners with whom the feedback did have an effect, did in fact use more fillers for gaining time rather than simply replacing one-word fillers with chunks. This means they did not just change to using more elaborate language for a given strategy, but used the strategy as such more often.

Learners who lessened their use of the strategies after an initial increase were probably not able to transfer them to the new situation, i.e. they showed an application deficit (Guldimann, 2010, p.110). They would have needed more practice of the specific phrases before they could use them under the time-pressure of future spontaneous spoken interactions. As Harris (2001) notes, the teaching and learning of communication strategies might be much harder than teaching others such as reading or writing strategies, because 'spontaneous speech is difficult to bring under conscious control' (ibid. p. 129). Or else learners would have needed another wake-up call. Some learners had lost their feedback sheet or did not use 'My Resources' to be reminded of useful phrases while talking to their partner in further interactions. When asked in the third recall interview, many learners mentioned they could not remember the teacher's feedback.

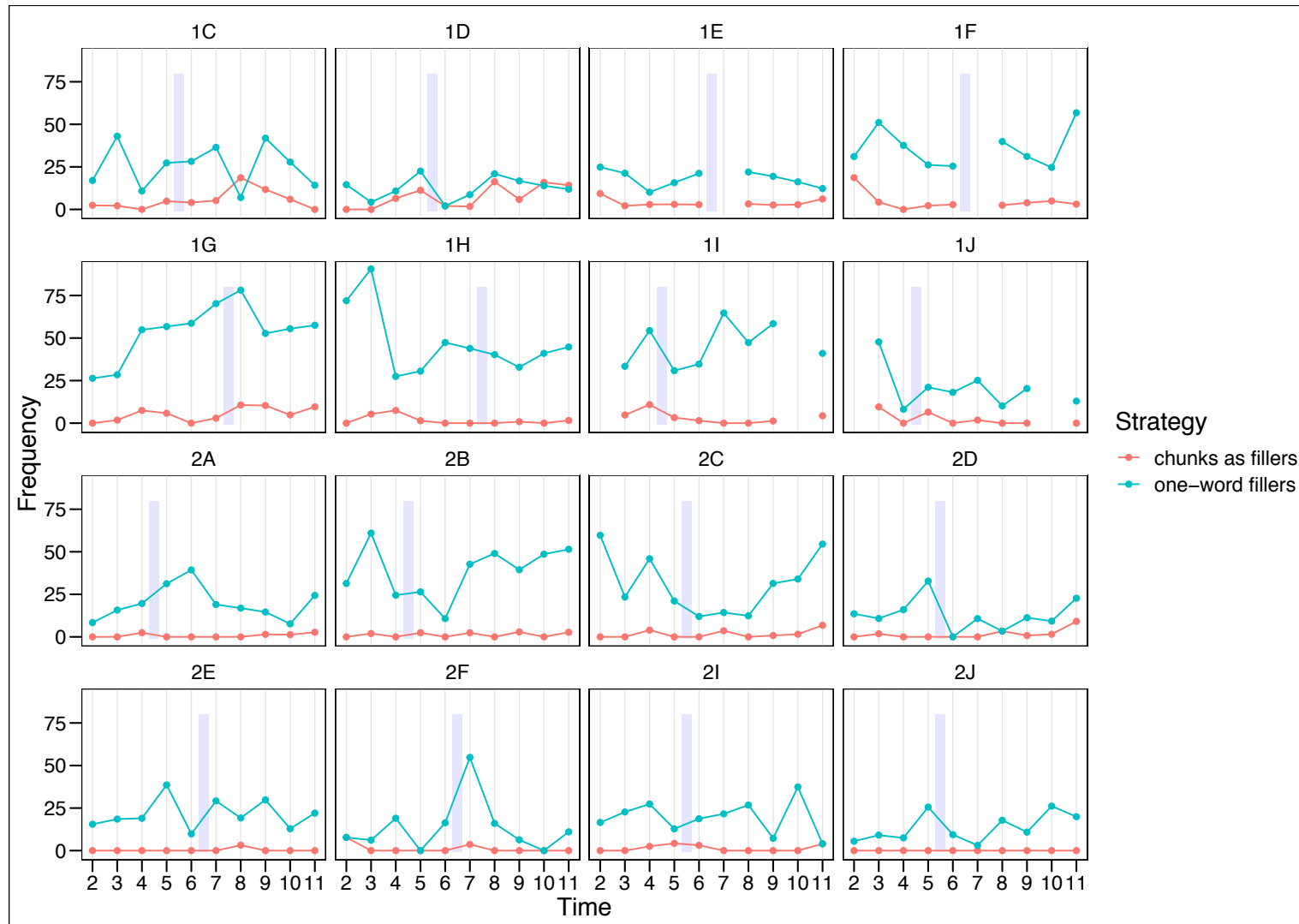


Figure 53: Using one-word fillers or chunks as fillers, purple bar = time of feedback

In contrast, the frequency of asking the partner for help (assistance appeal, clarification request, repetition request), which had earlier been found to be impacted by instruction (Rost and Ross, 1991; Naughton, 2006), did not change after the feedback. Only 1 out of 9 learners did indeed ask for help more frequently after the intervention (Table 16). Learners might have needed more extended instruction than mere feedback, and probably some practice too. However, there might also be other reasons, such as saving face. As we have seen before, trouble-solving is probably more fruitful when it is done in a collaborative way rather than by using potentially more face-threatening assistance appeals. Another reason might be that teachers provided learners with rather long sample phrases and sentences for asking the partner for help.

Teacher 2, for example, suggested to 2B to use more assistance appeals in English. 2B did indeed use more assistance appeals in English, but also in the school language and in foreignized language after this feedback (Figure 54). In the next interaction, the number of his assistance appeals in English dropped, and after a final rise it vanished altogether, and his total number of assistance appeals in German rose even higher than in the beginning. It seems that the intervention only had a very short-term effect. Extract 112 illustrates why this might have been the case. In line 059, 2B tries to use the more elaborate form of asking for help he was provided with by the teacher. However, he only does this after he has used his previous, less elaborate way of asking for help (merely uttering the German word) (line 055). The more elaborate form (line 059) overlaps with 2A's confirmation request (line 056) and a first attempt at providing help or a further clarification request (line 058). In line 060, 2A explains that he does not know the word, and 2B replaces the unknown word with gestures. In lines 062 – 064 then, 2A uses a confirmation check, which 2B probably cannot understand, or else he thinks his partner was providing him with some assistance. In line 069, 2B repeats his assistance appeal in German and then – as before – rephrases it in English. 2A expresses his ignorance. It is obviously beyond 2B's capabilities to ask for assistance with an English phrase. The reformulation of the first simple assistance appeal by using a single word in German resulted in overlaps and created more trouble than the two learners were in already. Lam argues that it is desirable to help

'less proficient L2 speakers to rely on strategies that are of low linguistic demand in order to help them produce accurate spoken language that can permit them to operate at least at a basic level' (Lam, 2010a, p.27).

Help-seeking with a complete English sentence, rather than a single word in the school language only, was linguistically too demanding for 2B.

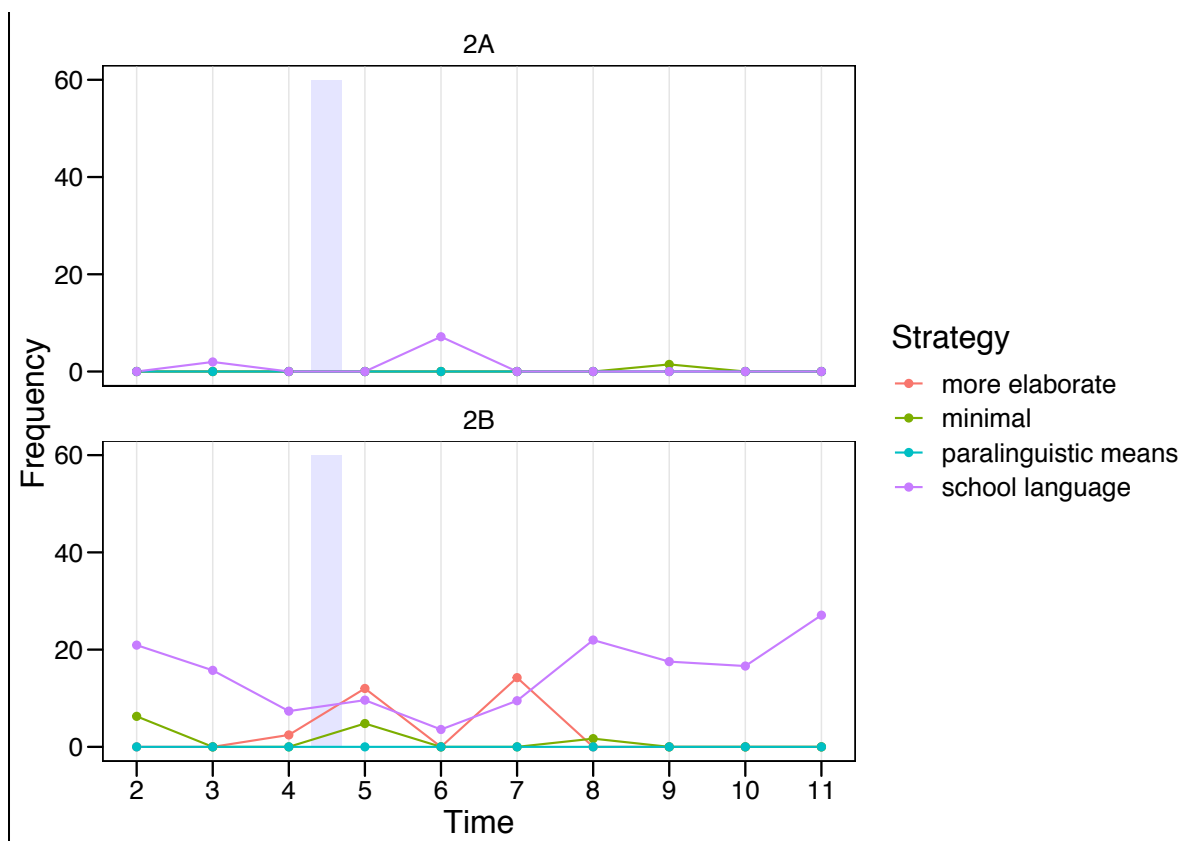


Figure 54: Use of assistance appeal by drawing on more elaborate or minimal language, paralinguistic means or the school language, purple bar = time of feedback

054 2B: (0.4)computer
 055 ehm **Egge**. ((corner))
 056 2A: (0.8) **Egge**.
 057 2B: (0.5)ja.
 058 2A: (0.8)<<whispering>äh>(0.8)e' ehm(3.6) [do what did you]
 059 2B: [what does Eg]ge mean in
English.
 060 2A: (2.8)I don't know;
 061 2B: **her** ((false friend: here)) ((points to the back of the room))
 (1.4)computer;
 062 2A: (1.0)aso e'e' **do you want** to e:h ehm ts
 063 (1.4)ä::h(0.4)**to sitting on the chair and having**
 064 **a computer** to eh(0.8)**for the school**. ((looks at 2B's paper))
 065 2B: (1.7)((looks at his paper, shrugs))
 066 2A: he? ((looks at partner's paper))
 067 2B: ts the ehm(0.5)
 068 2A: yes;
 069 2B: (0.5)<<p>**egge wa isch**>(1.2) ((corner what is))
 070 **what does Egg Egg mean in English**.
 071 2A: (0.6)I don't know.
 072 2B: (2.5) [e::h]<<laughing>höhöhehe> ((laughs))ehm

Extract 111: 2AB7

Drawing on occasional code-switching for assistance seeking might be a more efficient tool in the hands of very low-level learners. By using the shared school

language, learners can actually create the space for using the target language in that the communicative flow is only interrupted minimally (Tognini et al., 2010).

‘Thus, to prohibit the use of L1 in the classroom situations we have described removes, in effect, two powerful tools for learning: the L1 and effective collaboration, which depends, as our study shows, on students’ freedom to deploy this critical psychological tool to meet the demands of the task of learning a second language’ (Antón and DiCamilla, 1999, p.245).

In view of the current debate on striving for multilingualism (Franceschini, 2011; Cenoz, 2013; Deutschschweizer Erziehungsdirektoren-Konferenz (D-EDK), 2014; Bertschy et al., 2015) it seems more appropriate to encourage learners to use all available linguistic resources including the school language, if this permits them to ultimately use English more efficiently (Cummins, 2007).

There might be similar reasons for the low effect of the feedback on paraphrase. Learners were linguistically not flexible enough yet to use more paraphrase, as has been reported before (e.g. Dörnyei, 1995; Nakatani, 2005). At very low levels, learners use simpler lexical compensatory strategies such as foreignizing. Sometimes, the low effect of the feedback might also be explained by the fact that an increase in strategy use was unnecessary, no longer necessary or even counterproductive. 1C or 1E for example, used more listener support than the average learner before they were asked to increase its use. A further increase was probably not necessary. Additionally, 1C and 1I did not increase the use of English chunks as fillers after they were asked to do so. But both were supported more by their partners immediately after the feedback; in that case, there was probably no room for using more fillers. Finally, 1J was asked to use more repetition requests. However, had he increased his use of this rather face-threatening way of resolving trouble, he might have exposed his partner even more.

When after the feedback, learners consciously use more listener support, this might also have negative effects on the interaction. In Extract 111, 1H asks his partner what people can do in his skyscraper. 1G explains that it is a very interesting tower and it actually holds a collection of one hundred and fifty thousand pieces of art. 1H uses ‘what?’ to express his astonishment about the high number of pictures. However, he is not really astonished, as he knows this already from having read texts about the various skyscrapers in class. He only acts out the role of an astonished listener. 1G interprets the ‘what?’ as a clarification request and starts explaining the word piece with a paraphrase. On the one hand, it can be argued that this rather unnatural use of listener support resulted in a misunderstanding, on the other when this ‘performed’ listener support is combined with the willingness to use English, such a misunderstanding can even create more learning opportunities: 1G has to extend the interaction and explain a word in the target language.

149 eh*m* i::' it's i i it's eh(0.6)o:n on this eh in this building it has
eh*m*(0.5)famous famous e' a:from from famous artistseh it's[have]eh
150 1H: [okay,]
151 1G: art a: and e::'(0.4)<<p>and>(0.9)hundred fifty thousand pieces eh
pieces of a[rt]
152 1H: [what?]
153 1G: of art;
154 1H: (0.3)
155 1G: **pieces is a**[when you a a pizza,]
156 1H: [ye yes y ja I' aua]
157 1G: sch mpf
158 1H: **I know what a piece**[is;]
159 1G: [yes;]
160 yes.
161 (0.8)eh
162 1H: **hun hundred,**
163 (0.4) [**fifty**]
164 1G: [hundred]thou[sand]
165 1H: [thou]sand;
166 1G: yeah pieces of art(0.3)[that's that's]very(i) very very nice.
167 1H: [it's very]
168 <<p>**very much,**
169 there's mu many;
170 many[pictures,>]

Extract 112: 1GH8

Feedback on completions and confirmation checks was provided to two learners only. One of these did increase the use of completions, whereas the other showed no change. That is somewhat in contrast to earlier findings (Lee, 2005) but with only two learners being given this feedback, this result is not really telling. A summary of the other instruction given is provided in Table 18. It indicates whether the instruction did have an effect (+) and whether it remained until the end (++) or whether learners did revert to their previous behaviour (+-). It was mostly teacher 2 who provided this extra feedback. For some of these features he also provided learners with specific words and phrases they could use in the future. Therefore, similarly to the effect of the feedback on fillers and listener support, some effects might also be attributed to the fact that learners were given specific phrases rather than the encouragement to use the strategy as such.

	Keep talking for longer	Start and end in English	Give the turn to the partner	Use specific words	Offer partner more thinking time
1E					(++) ⁵
2A		++			
2B		++			
2C		++		++	
2E	(++) ⁶				
2F	(++) ⁷				
2I		++ ⁸	++	++	
2J		++	++	++	

Table 18: Effect of other instruction provided (based on description in Appendix 23)

As interaction strategies are meant to keep the conversation channel open, we might expect the feedback to also impact positively on the time learners spend completing the task and using English. This is only partially true, however, as Figure 55 shows. Many learners steadily increase the time they spend talking English while they decrease it again towards the end of the school year. It seems that task repetition has some effect in this respect. The drop in the very last interaction, then, is most probably task-induced (cf. comparison of tasks in Appendix 25).

⁵ Difficult to observe. There might be some effect (cf. Appendix 23.4).

⁶ The effect is rather small.

⁷ The effect is rather small.

⁸ At first, 2I reverted back to German but finally he did use English.

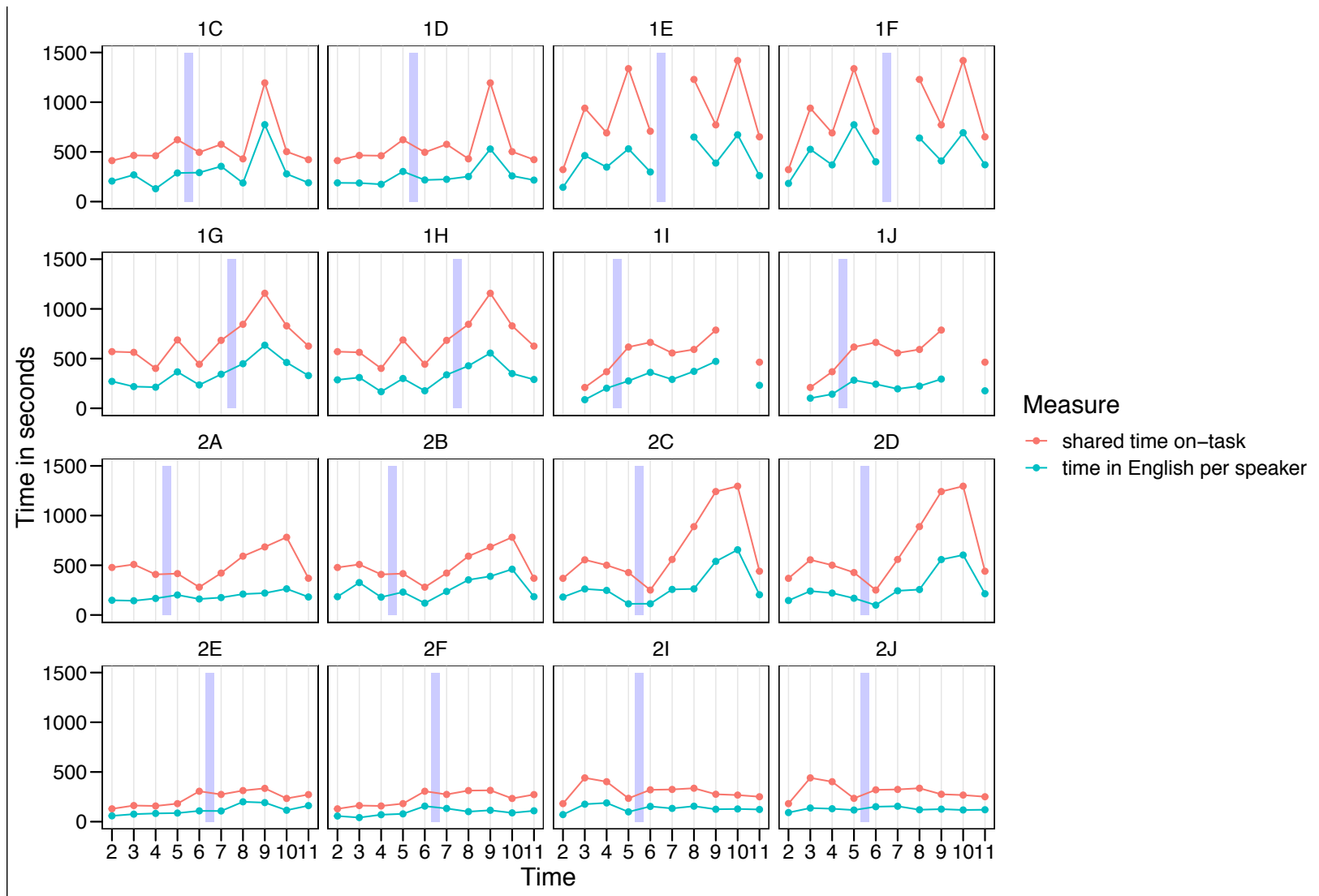


Figure 55: Development of time learners spent on-task and using English, purple bar = time of feedback

In sum, feedback was most effective when learners were given new phrases for self-reliant strategies, for listener support or managing turn taking (start/end/give turn). Feedback on lexical compensatory strategies or assistance appeal was far less effective. The effect however was of two kinds: for chunks as fillers, learners did indeed use more fillers after the intervention; whereas for listener support, some learners simply replaced less elaborate forms of this with more elaborate ones. The overall frequency stayed about the same after the feedback. From the analysis of the individual pairs' interactions, it can be argued that feedback on listener support had a true effect only on 1D. She did support her partner more after the intervention, and using much more listener support certainly played a role in this. For the other learners, the change to more elaborate forms of listener support might have affected perceived proficiency because they used more elaborate language, but it did not change the pattern of interaction nor did it help learners keep the communication channel open for longer. What can also be seen from this figure, is that these learners – unlike learners in Iwashita's study (Iwashita, 2001) – do not necessarily talk less when working with a learner of the same proficiency. It rather seems to be the more collaborative pairs who had the longest interactions.

4.3.3 Impact of feedback on proficiency

Figure 56 shows plots of individual learners' scores for the two fluency measures at each point in time, and the time of the feedback. These indicate that learners who started on a rather high level (1C, 1D, 1E, 1F, 1G, 1H) stay on this level after the intervention, but there is no further increase; whereas some learners who started at a lower fluency level steadily increased their fluency. As can also be seen from this plot, quite a few learners did increase their fluency immediately after the instruction. Some however, also decreased it. Nevertheless, it seems that overall the instruction did not impact negatively on the fluency. Similar plots were also inspected for syntactical and lexical complexity (Appendix 26). There are almost no changes in these scores, however. From visual inspection, a generally negative impact of the instruction on learners' proficiency can be ruled out.

Many learners lowered their fluency scores for the very last interaction. 1F, whose speech rate and phonation time ratio lower towards the end of the school year, said in the interview concerning the final interaction (1EF11SR) that she found the last task very demanding because they had to use past tenses. Task 11 was the only task which required learners to use past tenses, which she found very difficult – a tense most of them knew but could not use fluently yet. Talking about the 'then' rather than the 'now' probably made this task more complex in a resource-directing way (Robinson, 2001) than the other tasks. And indeed, she can be seen struggling with tenses in Extract 113. In line 078, she wants to ask her partner where the party took place. After multiple hesitation and attempts she finally says 'where are the party?', probably being aware that she is not using the past tense here, as in line 082 she adds a possible answer to make her question clearer. Phonation time ratio and pruned speech rate were both based on a pruned number of words, and therefore filled pauses, false starts and self-repairs did affect fluency measures negatively. The lower fluency score for the last task might therefore be attributed to an increased overt (repair) or covert (pauses) monitoring process (Kormos, 2006).

```
077 1F: okay,  
078      a:nd how do you ehm(0.7)where  
079      oh;  
080 1E: oh Scheisse  
081 1F: where e::' where you ha where are the party?  
082      (0.3)in the school;  
083      or  
084 1E: ehm by ehm Jimmy;  
085      do you know,  
086      (0.6)who is Jimmy,  
087 1F: (0.6)n:o,
```

Extract 113: 1EF11

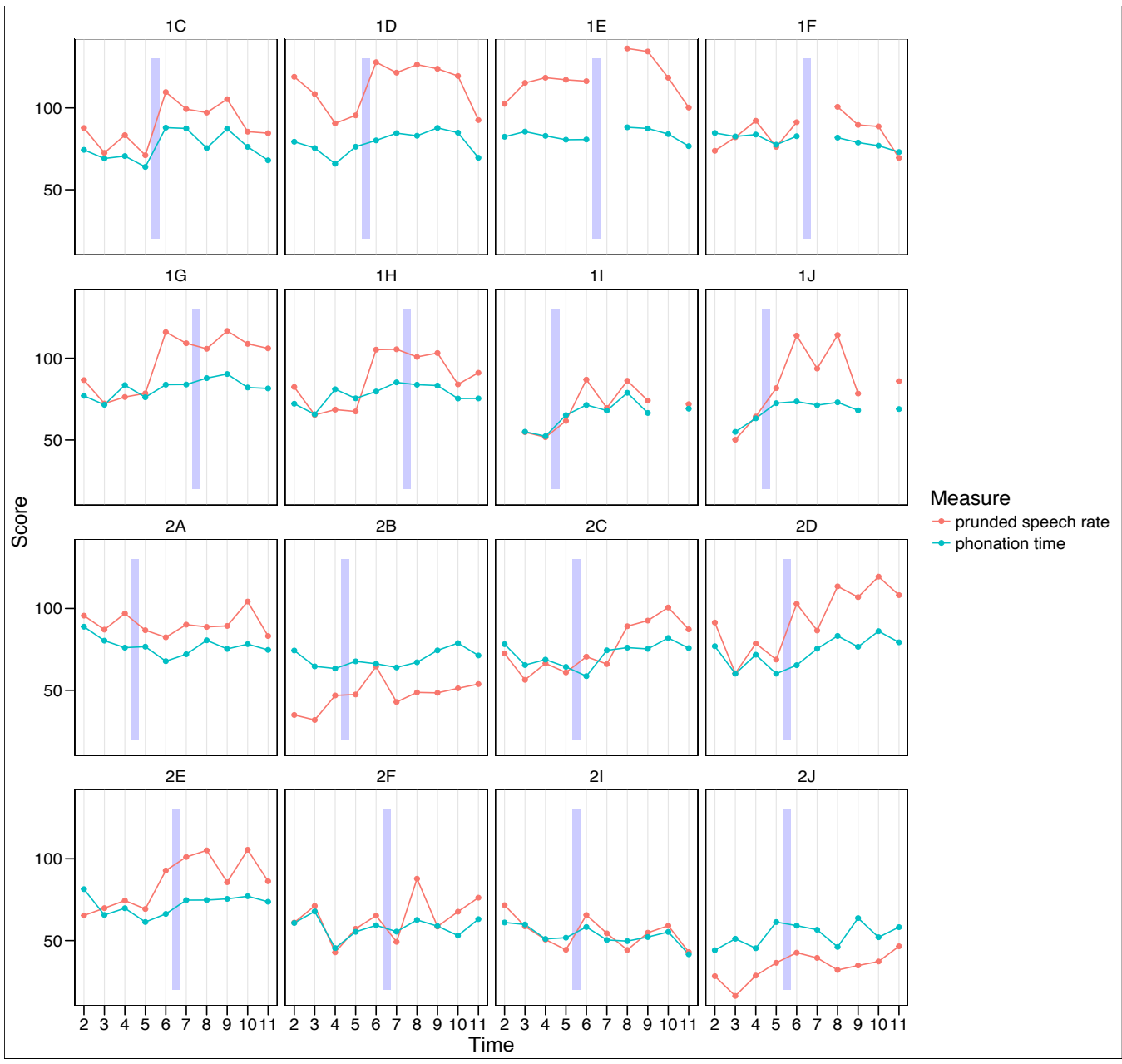


Figure 56: Development of pruned speech rate and phonation time ratio, purple bar = time of feedback

To further investigate the impact of the instruction on the development of proficiency, a robust paired samples t-test on both the pre-feedback and post-feedback data was conducted (pre-feedback 20% trimmed mean for pruned speech-rate = 75.8, for phonation time = 67.6, post-feedback 20% trimmed mean for pruned speech-rate = 87.7, for phonation time = 67.6). There were 16 participants in each group. The 95% CI was [-22.22, -1.56 for speech-rate, -10.45, 0.15 for phonation time], showing that there was at least a 1.5-point improvement for speech rate from pre-feedback to post-feedback, but possibly an increase as large as 22 points. The 95% CI shows that the mean gain from pre-feedback to post-feedback can be assumed, with 95% confidence, to lie within this interval, and so it is a real but very small gain. However, the variability in the interval shows that we cannot be very confident of exactly where the real mean gain lies. The effect (Cohen's $d = .25$) is small according to Cohen's guidelines (Larson-Hall, 2016, p.148). With further testing this interval could be narrowed. For phonation time, there could be a difference as large as 10.5 points, but it is more likely to centre closer to the mean difference of about 5 points. Statistically, we cannot conclude that there is any real difference. Similarly, for the other proficiency scores (subordination score, average length of AS-unit, MTLT, word level) results were plotted (Appendix 26) and then tested statistically (Appendix 27).

The scores of a non-parametric paired samples t-test (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test) further supported the above observations (Appendix 27.3). On the basis of this small study, there is a 95% certainty that instruction designed to increase learner's use of interaction strategies does have an impact on these learners' fluency measured as two different scores ($V=25$ (phonation time) / 24 (pruned speech rate); $p=.02496/.02139$). There is a statistically significant difference in the rankings of the pre-instruction and post-instruction fluency scores for the learners who received instruction designed to promote using more interaction strategies. Effect size cannot be calculated due to the small number of participants. Detailed results are in Appendix 27. However, no such statistical difference can be found with the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test on any of the other proficiency measures (Appendix 27.3). In sum, statistical tests show that the feedback most probably did not impact negatively on any of the proficiency scores. If anything, the feedback had a positive effect on learners' fluency. A purely task-induced effect on the fluency can possibly be ruled out as the intervention took place at different points in time and therefore learners' performance was measured when working on different tasks.

5 Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to explore the development of interaction strategies with low-level learners in a naturalistic language learning environment and to investigate what impact individualized teacher feedback has on the use of these strategies. This concluding chapter therefore first summarises the findings relating to the three main research questions before it discusses possible reasons for the effects of the intervention. Next, it presents some of the pedagogic implications. The chapter closes by addressing some of the limitations of this study and problems arising during the research, before possible angles for future research are suggested.

5.1 Main research questions

First, this study asked what interaction strategies low-level learners used. The findings suggest that learners use a wide range of strategies to keep the conversation going despite their relatively low linguistic proficiency. Learners often maintain the interaction channel open by implicitly supporting their partner with co-constructions, confirmation checks and implicit correction. They also use various forms of listener support to signal understanding and thus support the partner affectively. On the other hand, learners make use of more explicit support devices such as comprehension checks or explicit other-corrections and also ask for help more explicitly through clarification requests, assistance appeals or repetition requests. First and foremost, however, learners try to solve upcoming problems themselves, and only when they do not succeed do they ask the partner for help explicitly. These findings are consistent with research on the preference for self-reliant strategies (Kouwenhoven et al., 2016). The various strategies are used in linguistically more or less elaborate forms, or can be enacted by drawing on paralinguistic means or the school language. There are very few visible instances when learners avoid resolving the trouble. Some learners even resolve trouble over several turns when this is not needed for establishing mutual understanding, whereas other learners only take a few turns. In general, learners take most turns when they ask for help, fewer when they support the partner without exposing the trouble, and fewest turns when supporting the partner while exposing the trouble. A dyad's way of addressing or not addressing trouble remains relatively stable throughout the eleven months and so does the use of strategies. Learners who establish intersubjectivity by using alignment moves (Dings, 2014; Tecedor, 2016), and regularly provide assistance to their partner, continue doing this until the end. However, dyads which right from the beginning interact as though they are performing in front of an audience, keep making only sparse use of listener support and implicit support strategies.

Second, the study has explored the relationship between the use of interaction strategies and language proficiency. From the present data, it can be concluded that whereas all learners make use of interaction strategies, only learners at higher proficiency levels use more elaborate forms of interaction strategy and hardly any school-language-based forms. However, they draw on paralinguistic means or less elaborate English with the same frequency as learners at lower levels. This suggests a development from using school-language-based to target-language-based strategies. Learners at a higher level also tend to support their partner more and use more listener support, whereas less proficient learners ask for help more frequently. Modifications in the direction of more elaborate English, however, are equally frequent for both more or less proficient learners; and this is more impacted by the interaction-patterns used. Similarly, proficiency had no effect on how frequently learners provided self-help. On average, lower level learners spend less time on-task. Pairs of learners with unequal proficiency use assistance appeals more frequently, and the lower-level partner modifies language more when they use more collaborative patterns of interaction. However, when they display low mutuality, they use very few assistance appeals and support strategies. The use of support strategies correlates with use of modifications of utterances in the direction of more standard English by the interaction partner. The use of support strategies and listener support also correlate with more on-task time. This might indicate that learners in the more collaborative dyads create more acquisition-rich interactions than those who use less collaborative talk. At low levels of proficiency, other-regulation, i.e. using interaction strategies which involve the interlocutor (providing support and assistance seeking), permits learners to control the task.

Last, the study investigated how teacher feedback on interaction strategies impacts learners' immediate and long-term use of these. The results show that providing learners with individually tailored feedback on their use can have very mixed effects. In some cases, the intervention led to an increase in the use of the targeted strategies, which would confirm earlier findings that some strategies are indeed teachable (Nakatani and Goh, 2007; Plonsky, 2011). For others, such an effect could not be observed. Feedback was most effective for chunks as fillers and listener support. Feedback on lexical compensatory strategies and assistance appeals was far less effective. When an increase immediately after the intervention could be observed, this lasted in approximately half the cases, or even increased further. The other half decreased the frequency again. In the cases of strategies most effectively impacted by the feedback, two different effects could be observed: for chunks as fillers, learners did indeed use more fillers after the feedback, whereas for chunks to provide listener support, many learners replaced less elaborate forms of listener support with more elaborate ones. It may be that the pattern of the interaction itself had a greater impact on the use of listener

support, rather than any feedback given. Additionally, feedback possibly had a positive effect on the fluency of learners' speech but none on its complexity. Nevertheless, instruction had no adverse effects on learners' fluency or the lexical complexity of their speech.

5.2 Reasons for the effect of the feedback

Findings from the stimulated recall interviews and the interactions demonstrated that learners used interaction strategies in individual ways and we can therefore assume that there are various learner-specific reasons why for some learners the feedback did have an effect, while for others it did not. Additionally, any strategy training might also affect other variables than the mere use of strategies. Chen (2007) identified eight different areas, such as language proficiency, attitude, strategy repertoire and transfer, which were affected by a listening strategy training programme. It can be assumed that feedback to learners with individual pre-conditions might affect some of the areas but not necessarily show an increase in use of the targeted strategy. In addition, an effect of the intervention might not be observed in the use of a distinct strategy, but instead in how a learner uses that strategy in concert with other strategies. More advanced strategy users may apply strategies to new contexts in bundles (Guldimann, 2010, p.110), rather than simply increasing their use of a single one. The following will, therefore, attempt to explain the effect the feedback had by considering every pair's way of interacting. The reasons why the feedback did or did not have an effect were explored in the case of every learner (Appendix 28). Taken together, a set of factors was then assembled which might give a general picture of how the feedback affected the use of interaction strategies. It is hoped that a discussion of these factors will provide a deeper insight into the exact circumstances behind an increase, or provide possible reasons why the feedback did not have any effect.

5.2.1 Proficiency

In the first place, the individual learner's proficiency was a factor which probably impacted on how effective the feedback was. Proficiency can play a role on two levels. First, feedback targeting strategies which are mainly used by dyads with unequal proficiency are only effective when provided to the right partner in such a couple.

'Proficiency plays a mediating role, with learners shifting their interactional style according to the proficiency of their peer', (Bowles and Adams, 2015, p.203).

Explicit assistance appeal is mostly employed when the learner is the less able peer in an unequal pair and also perceives him- or herself as such (e.g. 2B). Strategies such as supporting the partner, or allowing the partner more thinking time, however, will probably only be implemented by the more able learner. This was not always considered by the teachers. 2A for example, was encouraged to use more assistance appeals in English. However, the analysis of 2AB's interactions showed that 2B was on a much lower proficiency-level, and if 2A had indeed incorporated the feedback and asked 2B for assistance, this would probably have increased the trouble in their conversations. It

seems that too much trouble-shooting (Aston, 1986) may have negative effects on the interaction between learners on different proficiency levels when they are using more face-threatening support strategies (pair 1CD), or when the less able partner does not provide enough room for the more able partner to contribute too (pair 2AB). For these reasons, inequality in proficiency within a dyad should always be considered when providing feedback. Learners who differ might be made aware of how they can best support their partner and how they can ask for help without obstructing the partner (for instance by using too many face-threatening strategies, or not providing the partner with enough space for his/her ideas).

Second, proficiency also plays a role when the resources used for enacting strategies are considered. As the findings showed, lower level learners drew more on the school language than higher level learners. Therefore one way of enabling development is for learners to move from using school-language-based strategies to target-language based forms of these strategies, as has been observed before (Bialystok, 1983). Previous studies sometimes viewed first-language-based or interlanguage-based strategies as reduction strategies (Nakatani, 2005) reflecting learners'

'negative behaviour as they try to avoid solving communication difficulties, which is a common behaviour among low proficiency learners', (ibid., p .81).

However, the view here is that learners do in fact use first- or interlanguage-based strategies to maintain the interaction, and these should therefore not be considered non-strategic or even 'negative'. It seems that in many cases, learners do not indeed lack the strategy, i.e. they display strategic competence (Canale and Swain, 1980), but they do not have the formal language proficiency, i.e. they lack the words in the foreign language to enact this strategy in a more elaborate way. At very low levels and under the time pressure of speaking, learners may not have the processing capacity to think of more elaborate ways of using interaction strategies (Harris, 2001, p.129). What under these circumstances seems to be more pertinent, and probably also more appropriate, is to continue the interaction, even when this implies the occasional switch to the shared school language. Plonsky (2011) has observed that in general strategy instruction was both more effective for learners of higher proficiency than at beginner levels, and more effective in a second language than a foreign language context. Yet for speaking, this might simply indicate that though beginners or foreign language learners did in fact use the targeted strategies, they did not draw on the targeted means for enacting them, and were therefore not found to increase strategy use.

The assumption that learners do have the strategic competency but that there is some development from using gestures and mime to using more elaborate English to enact this competency can also be found in the revised CEFR descriptor scales for interaction strategies (Council of Europe, 2018, pp.100–102). The scale 'Asking for

clarification' (ibid., p. 100), starts at A1 level, defined as 'learners can ask for clarification with gestures, mime and sound' (ibid., p. 102). At level A2, it says, the learner 'can ask very simply for repetition when he/she does not understand' (ibid.) and at B2 'can ask follow up questions to check that he/she has understood what a speaker intended to say, and get clarification of ambiguous points' (ibid.). The higher the learners' level is, the more sophisticated their means for asking for clarification are. In the Swiss descriptor scales for lower level learners (Lenz and Studer, 2008), which have not been revised since they were first written, the lowest level mentions drawing on paralinguistic means as lexical compensatory strategy. On level A1.1. it states 'ist dabei aber oft auf Kompensationsmittel wie Gestik, Mimik (...) angewiesen' ('relies on compensatory means such as gesture, mime'), (ibid.). However, negotiation moves ('Kann sagen, dass er/sie nicht versteht und kann den Gesprächspartner mit einfachen Mitteln um Hilfe bitten' ('can say that he/she does not understand and can ask the interlocutor for help'), (ibid.)) are only mentioned at level A2.2. As this study showed, learners at levels below A2.2 can indeed express non-understanding and ask for clarification. However, they often use simple means, such as pauses in mid-turn, repetition or mime, or they draw on other languages than the target language for this. Additionally, they rely on an interaction partner who interprets such implicit assistance appeals correctly and helps maintain the conversation channel open.

What is more, proficiency itself is also of a multi-faceted nature, and may thus impact on the effect of the feedback in various ways. In this data set, some learners could hardly go beyond the phrases they had prepared in the individual preparation time, and therefore had quite high complexity scores but very low fluency scores. Others, however, had high fluency scores but lower scores for complexity. Showing high fluency at the cost of low lexical complexity might mean that learners cannot yet integrate more elaborate target-language-based forms of an interaction strategy. These learners would probably first have to slow their speech to be able to integrate more elaborate phrases. However, when learners hesitate and pause a lot and still do use rather complex language, they probably have to put so much effort into the formulation of an utterance that they cannot possibly include new strategies or phrases, despite their rather high complexity scores. Unless learners are developmentally ready to use more elaborate forms of an interaction strategy, such as circumlocution to compensate for lexical gaps (Harris, 2001, p.129), any instruction on these might be in vain. The higher the level of the learners, the more they will be able to draw on target-language resources to enact a strategy.

On the other hand, the feedback on 'chunks as fillers' and other set phrases for interaction strategies might have a high effect even for very low level learners if learners are given enough opportunities for practice so that they reach 'an automatic stage',

(Dörnyei, 1995, p.64) and are not only encouraged to use them solely in the upcoming task. Harris (2001, p.57) claims that fillers are hard to teach and use because they need to be internalised 'to the point that they can be drawn on automatically since there is no time for reflection in spontaneous speech'. However, the findings in this study suggest that to some learners at low levels, these phrases are teachable with only minimal practice. It is probably not the inclination for strategic behaviour as such which needs to have reached an automatic stage, but the chunks used for implementing the strategy. Additionally, there might not only be a lack of proficiency but also lack of self-efficacy. During the preparation time for the task, two learners asked the researcher what was the English for 'was meinsch du?' ('what do you think?') – a phrase which they were given in written form during the feedback. When asked where they had their feedback sheets and the copy with the strategies and phrases, one said his were in the other classroom, and the other had lost them. This shows that not being able to implement the instruction might be simply due to poor self-management rather than to the instruction as such. Simply put, the conclusion here can be two-fold: help learners improve their self-management, and ensure the chunks are in their heads rather than on their papers only.

5.2.2 Willingness to communicate

Proficiency, however, cannot explain all the effects or non-effects of the feedback; other factors moderate its influence. Dörnyei and Wen-Ta (2009, p.118) maintain that learner-learner interaction is the product of a dynamic interplay influenced by linguistic and motivational factors. One of these factors seems to be the willingness to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre, 2007). This is defined as ‘a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2’ (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p.547), and it is at the heart of any interaction strategy use. Without the ‘desire to communicate at all costs’ (Harris, 2001, p.129), there is no need to use such strategies. With pair 2EF, for example, the difference in proficiency did not result in a proportionally higher use of support strategies, as it did with other pairs. 2E did not support his partner more – even though, with his father talking English to him at home, he would undoubtedly have had the linguistic resources to do so. The major difference between this pair and others with unequal proficiency was in the area of their willingness to communicate. In the interview, they repeatedly state that they hate speaking English. 2E doubted that he would learn anything by talking to his partner and therefore simply tried to get done with the task, whereas 2F stated his low ability. Both factors, pure task-completion orientation (Chappuis, 2015, p.16f), and anxiety (Goh and Burns, 2012, p.29) – even when only perceived – might have detrimental effects on the willingness to communicate.

As earlier studies have shown, some learners may view a task as an opportunity for language learning (Gagné and Parks, 2013) and they are therefore willing to address trouble, whereas others hardly use any negotiation of meaning because their primary concern is to finish the task. When comparing the behaviour in completing tasks of ten-year-old children with adults, Pinter (2006) found a similar difference: children tended to put less effort into sorting out problems and seemed to prioritize getting on with the game over sorting out misunderstandings. Children used fewer self- and other-repetitions, fewer alternative ways of formulation (synonyms, gestures and mime) and less co-construction of phrases or sentences, often made use of short responses, and prompted their partner for help less frequently than the adults did. It can be argued that the speakers in this data set are in between childhood and adulthood, and it might therefore not be surprising that some of them orient more to learning, as the adults in Pinter’s study did, and others more to completing the task. Individual learner engagement might therefore be a crucial factor in the way learning opportunities are created. Creating a more positive environment for interaction, i.e. an environment where everybody is willing to contribute, does not require a high level in proficiency. In fact, Poupore (2015) found that nonverbal behaviours such as laughter, gestures of excitement or eye contact and listener instruction (e.g. interjections) can contribute to a positive group work dynamic

and task motivation as could be seen with dyad 2CD (cf. section 4.1.9.6). The use or non-use of specific interaction strategies is therefore not only a question of proficiency but of the underlying situated willingness to communicate (Yashima et al., 2018).

By setting pair 2EF the goal never to be the first to finish their conversation, teacher 2 imposed an external willingness to communicate. He was probably right in doing so, as with this extrinsic motivation their interactions lasted longer. 'Posing a negative outcome and working to avoid it' (Oxford, 2011, p.124) may in fact be an affective strategy to generate and maintain motivation. Oxford (ibid., p. 74ff) also lists other potentially useful strategies to increase motivation, volition and willingness to communicate such as 'positive self-talk' or 'blocking negative thoughts or feelings that undermine motivation' (ibid., p. 75). At the same time though, any positive experience of language learning and sense of increased competence may enhance motivation (ibid.), and therefore any strategy which supports learners in their successful communication can contribute to motivation and enliven their willingness to talk.

Moreover, learners seem to transfer their way of communicating from the school language to the foreign language – to the extent that this is possible with their limited resources, at least. As 2C and 2D state in the interview (2CD8SR), they use the same way of discussing when they talk to each other in their mother tongue. It seems that the pattern of interaction they usually experience with their peers in their free time does influence the way they complete the task. If they work with a good friend and are used to talk to this friend with a high degree of mutuality, they will transfer this pattern to the interaction in the English language classroom. If on the other hand, they have to talk to a peer they would not talk to in real life, this will impact the pattern of their interaction in a different way. For example, the circumstance that 1C and 1D were boy and girl might have added to the negative change in tone towards the end of the school year, as gender may have some impact on the interaction (Ross-Feldman, 2007). We can therefore assume that in the present context, learners do not only need the willingness to talk but also to talk to a specific partner. For learners who want to play cool in front of their peers, and commonly do that in their mother tongue interactions, interacting with a particular peer can be an insurmountable challenge.

When analysing the interactions, a further aspect which might play a crucial role in supporting the willingness to speak, and also influences the pattern of interaction and thus the use of interaction strategies, was discovered. Some pairs often used a playful approach to the task while others enacted 'their "true" identities' (Pomerantz and Bell, 2007, p.562). In the recall interview 2IJ5SR, for example, 2I refers to a passage when he was asked about his favourite film. He states he has so many favourite films that he did not know how to answer and therefore paused. 2I tried to give a real-life answer, which made him pause. Many learners however, did not relate the content of their interactions

to real life but instead referred to an imaginary world. These learners often started the interaction by greeting each other. Pair 1CD provided the following reasons for this:

1C: mir dänke immer mir si eifach amene angere Ort. das mer üs grad träffe. zum erschte Mau.

((we always think we are at another place. that we meet. for the first time.))

1D: aso mir dänke mir träffe jetzt üs zum erschte Mau. und es sött es natürlechs Gschpäch si. und bi natürleche Gspräch chame doch nid vergässe z grüesse. das wär unhöflech.

((well we think we meet now for the first time. and this should be a normal conversation. and with normal conversation you should not forget to say hello. this would be impolite.))

Extract 114: 1CD9SR

Starting the interaction as though they 'were at another place' rather than in the real world permits them to take on a new identity and digress from what is possible for the true self in the real world. Such a stance might have enabled 2J to answer the question about his favourite film without a pause by providing an imaginary answer.

Sometimes the shift between reality and an imaginary world can occur in the middle of the interaction. In 2EF6 (Extract 115) for example, after talking as his true self, 2E states that he hates dogs and then adds that he does not really hate dogs.

114 2E: I hate dogs.

115 aso? nid das ds fautsch verstahsch

i meines eifach **nume i dere[Roue]**

((well not that you get it wrong I mean it **in this role only**))

116 2F: [ah ea]sy;

Extract 115: 2EF6

In the interview, 2E on commented this as follows:

2F: (...) auso ja, i has nid ächt gmeint, ig has eifach so, dass es chli lenger geit.

(((...) well yes, I did not mean that really, I just did it like that so that it lasted a little longer.))

Extract 116: 2EF6SR

He switched to the imaginary world to implement the teacher's request to prolong the interaction. Digressing from what is possible in this world permits learners at a very low level to avoid topics they do not have the resources to talk about. In some cases, it seems learners adapt the content to the words they are able to recall (e.g. 1GH's associative style as described in 4.1.9.3). Such an associative and adaptive style of interaction may not only permit learners to continue the conversation in English but also use a more collaborative pattern of interaction. It is easier to produce a fitting next

utterance when the content of what you are going to say need not be true in real life. This openness to the imaginary world is probably what 2B lacked. He appeared very rigid in the way he developed his topics, which caused many troubles in the interaction. Leaving the constraints of what is possible in the real world might provide learners with the 'room to maneuver around learners' gap of lexical or syntactic knowledge' (Kormos and Préfontaine, 2016, p.711), a tactic which can avoid feelings of anxiety (Kormos and Préfontaine, 2016). Instead, it might make the interaction much more enjoyable for the learners. First, because not being themselves while struggling in the interaction might be less face-threatening, and second, because of the unpredictable development of the topics, the interaction can become more interesting, and potentially fun topics might arise. In this data, some pairs obviously enjoyed the inventive character of their interactions; they giggled and laughed throughout. Taking on a new persona in the interaction allowed for new surprising aspects to surface.

1IJ normally enacted their true identity, but as seen before, they changed their interaction to a more playful mode in interaction 6 (cf. section 4.1.9.4). As suggested by the task instructions, 1J wants to borrow 1I's mountain bike and lend him his MP3 player in exchange. 1I refuses, and then they negotiate that 1I might have 1J's boat instead (lines 063-075). 1I then asks whether the boat is of good quality and 1J replies that it is not, since it is under the water (line 079). The idea that he wants to exchange a sunken boat in exchange for a new mountain bike triggers lots of laughing by both learners and the additional comment by 2J that he is a good captain (line 082). 1I and 1J both use evaluative comments to this (lines 083, 087), which they otherwise use rather sparingly. The playful completion of the task permits learners 'to "play the school game" (i.e. work), while simultaneously having fun with it', (Pomerantz and Bell, 2007, p.567). This might eliminate 'boredom by adding humour or a new twist (satiation control)', (Oxford, 2011, p.75); an affective strategy, which can in turn maintain motivation and increase willingness to communicate. Nakatani (2010) found a positive correlation between social-affective strategies and oral proficiency, which suggests that controlling one's feelings and thus enjoying the interaction might pave the way to a willingness to communicate.

063 1I: give me a other offer.
 064 1J: (1.4)no.
 065 1I: (2.1)[no?]
 066 1J: [come]on from neighbour to neighbour.
 067 1I: (0.6)okay two days:,
 068 (1.8)two days I I will(0.4)the Boot ((boat)) (0.3)two days.
 069 1J: (0.4)one day.
 070 1I: (0.5)ok okay one day,
 071 (0.4)and you a half day my,
 072 (0.4)
 073 1J: no no [one day](0.4)your mountain bike.
 074 1I: [mountain bike;]
 075 (0.4)okay;
 076 (0.3)is the(0.4)i is the Boot(0.7)good?
 077 1J: (0.4)no.

078 1I: (0.5)no.
 079 1J: (0.3)[it's under]the water.
 080 1I: [no;]
 081 ((laughs))[(laughs)] [oh;]
 082 1J: [(laughs)][(laughs)][(laughs)][(laughs)]I'm a good
 captain.
 083 1I: [that's very beautiful.]
 084 [(laughs)]
 085 <<laughing>yes.>
 086 [(laughs)]
 087 1J: [(laughs)]so crazy.

Extract 117: 1IJ6

A more playful orientation to the task can also permit learners to consciously repeat and manipulate linguistic forms (Pomerantz and Bell, 2007, p.570) and thus use L1-based strategies, which are sometimes frowned upon, in a more fruitful way. 2C and 2D have already been seen playing on the word 'shrump' (section 4.1.9.6). In the same interaction, they play on the words 'ship driver' and 'shit driver' thus repeating the phrase several times in various forms and extending the interaction, and seemingly enjoying this (Extract 118). Such language play may at first sight seem trivial or even risqué in a classroom. However, being allowed to approach the task in such a playful way probably permitted the two to stay on-task for longer, produce more language and thus create many more language learning opportunities. 2C and 2D keep talking for longer than most other learners in class 2 (cf. section 4.3.2).

674 2D: [and we]need a: good ship;
 675 2C: [<<p>a good,>]
 676 2D: [driver not so]you.
 677 2C: (0.4)**I'm a go[od ship driver.]**
 678 2D: [a a]no, ((laughs silently))
 679 **you're a shit driver a bad ship driv[er]** [we need a good]
 680 2C: [ehm ehm a sh]**[it driver]I'm a shit**
 [(laughs)]you say that;
 681 2D: [(laughs)]
 682 [okay;]
 683 2C: **[I'm a shit][driver.]**

Extract 118: 2CD10

In adopting a playful orientation, learners can also take more risks. When they 'misfire linguistically or socially' (Pomerantz and Bell, 2007, p.572), they can always retreat from their utterance claiming that they were 'just playing'—a stance that is not available during more 'serious' activities', (ibid., p. 572). Still, such language play is only possible when learners listen carefully to what the partner says and then build on this. A shift to a more playful orientation can therefore result in co-constructed utterances and verbal play, possibly a relevant part of learning (Sullivan, 2000). It permits the use of 'ludic discourse', an important kind of discourse for language acquisition (Tarone, 2005).

The possibility of manipulating meaning or form and trying out new language can – according to the output hypothesis – contribute to language learning (Swain, 2005). When used within a playful context, some negotiation moves might lose their otherwise face-threatening character and contribute to further modifications in learners' utterances as the use of fake clarification requests by 1GH did. However, perhaps teachers should explicitly make learners aware that they are allowed to 'play'. Before the researcher can start the interview with learners 1G and 1H, 1H apologetically says that they produced rather 'illogical ideas' (1GH7SR) and 1G confirms this impression. However, it was in this interaction when their associative way of building on the others' ideas urged the two learners to use many related words they would otherwise not have used.

In contrast to more advanced learners, when low-level learners frame the interaction 'solely as work' (Pomerantz and Bell, 2007, p.567), this might encourage more complex constructions because language is used as planned in the preparation time and not adapted to the partner in the context of the unfolding talk – as was observed with 2J, for example. A more playful approach, however, can lower the linguistic demands of the task and enable learners to engage more with the partner and thus use more collaborative patterns of interaction. Contrary to language play used by more advanced learners, low-level learners might not produce more elaborate utterances, but certainly thematically more cohesive ones, as did the more advanced learners (Pomerantz and Bell, 2007). Language play therefore seems to be equally important in the low-level classroom, but might have different effects: less syntactically complex but equally more cohesive utterances and collaborative patterns of interaction. Above all, it permits very low-level learners to keep the conversation channel open.

The question of real or imaginary world-relatedness is even more pertinent in the present context, as it is a strong claim of the newly introduced curriculum that the use of the foreign language in the classroom should engage learners in 'authentic' interaction, and the new course materials are meant to cover real-life topics such as pollution of the environment or preferred music styles.

'Spontaneous play, on the other hand, is often viewed as a distracter in the classroom, as an action arising from "not being on task"' (Sullivan, 2000, p.122).

It seems that topics which are of relevance to the learners' life are important, but that the actual content being discussed should not restrict learners to 'getting at truth', (Sullivan, 2000, p.128). Instead, it seems that learners in puberty may feel freer to keep talking if they can change to an imaginary world and can thus create more learning opportunities than learners who talk as their true self. A relation to real-world activities is still given. If learners talk about a band they do not really like as though they did like it (an example of twisting a task to make it less 'serious' provided by teacher 2, the task may still relate to

the real world on all three levels as suggested by Willis and Willis (2008, p.15). The necessary vocabulary to talk about music might be very relevant to learners' life, and justifying one's likes and dislikes is probably equally relevant in a teenager's real world. However, in the real world learners would probably not talk positively about precisely this band. In sum, not orientating to the real world at all costs might take away some of the pressure very low-level teenage learners are under, and pave the way for experimenting with the language and keeping the conversation going despite resource deficits, and thus contribute to a willingness to communicate.

5.2.3 Interacting for learning or display

In this study, some learners view their task completion as a performance for the teacher (e.g. 1IJ or 2EF as described in sections 4.1.9.4 and 4.1.9.7). They talk for display rather than for learning, and therefore strive for a smooth interaction with scarce trouble-shooting. Depending on which task they think they are doing, i.e. whether they are displaying linguistic knowledge or holding a mundane everyday conversation, learners will address their limited linguistic resources differently. But still, classroom interaction will probably always differ from everyday conversation. In real life, learners would perhaps not talk to that specific learner about this specific topic. If in the classroom they have to talk to a learner they would never speak to in real life, the best way of addressing this challenge might be to revert to classroom mode: display of linguistic resources. Rather than learning 'to get better' (Chappuis, 2015, p.15), i.e. adopting a learning orientation (ibid., p. 16), learners might adopt a performance- and ego-involved orientation, focusing 'their effort on protecting their sense of self-worth' (ibid.), and only expend as much effort as is needed to complete the task. These learners will most probably avoid supporting their partner, using hesitation markers or asking for help, as such behaviour would impact negatively on a smooth performance and rather expose their weakness.

Even when a pure display mode is avoided, learner-learner interaction will probably still oscillate between learning, i.e. addressing the trouble overtly, and exchanging meanings, i.e. developing the topical talk. Some learners will perhaps only be able to increase their use of interaction strategies, and thus use interactional features conducive to language learning, when they orient more to the task as a language learning activity, and not when 'maintaining and pursuing a somewhat relaxed version of mutual understanding' (Kasper and Kim, 2007, p.39) is the goal. Unmitigated other-correction, for example, might be less scarce when learners orient to learning, and thus they might benefit from the language acquisition potential of corrective feedback (Lyster et al., 2013). Or else learners might use more self-correction, which can have similar effects for language learning as modified output within negotiation moves (Loewen and Sato, 2018). Teachers and learners should both be clear what the purpose of a dialogic task is. Crucially, teachers should point out to the learners the difference between a mere display of their linguistic ability, and a conversation where all trouble is a potential learning spot.

5.2.4 Willingness to collaborate

Every pair of learners uses a characteristic pattern of interaction while creating the task-in-process (cf. sections 4.1.9 and 4.1.10); this seems to be rather stable. Depending on their interaction patterns, learners use different ways of addressing resource deficits. Changing the use of interaction strategies without addressing the underlying pattern might therefore be impossible. Unless learners collaborate more, they will not be able to increase the occurrence of interaction strategies which are typically used in co-constructed talk. On the other hand, if learners already co-construct their talk, they will most probably not use the more face-threatening strategies such as explicit assistance appeals, clarification and repetition requests. Besides, increasing the use of some other potentially useful strategies such as chunks as fillers may become redundant, as then the partner would provide the help rather than allowing the speaker to provide self-help by using more fillers. Indeed,

‘peer help and co-operation might compensate for the ineffective use of interaction strategies due to limited language proficiency’ (Lam and Wong, 2000, p.251).

It should also be considered that changes in the interactional behaviour of one learner will always affect the other. 1D for example, changed her interactional behaviour after the feedback, whereas 1C did not implement the instruction. As a pair, however, they did move in the direction indicated by the teacher. Similarly, 2EF’s interactions lasted longer after the intervention, even though only 2E spent more time talking English. So a particular instruction’s lack of effect might not necessarily have a negative outcome; altering the strategy use of only one of the interactants can still result in the aim being achieved.

The ability to cooperate so that the discussion can develop is key to any speaking programme (Goh and Burns, 2012). Unless learners are aware of the shared responsibility for the interaction and orient themselves towards learning, their interactions will probably display rather low mutuality and equality (Storch, 2002a), and thus not create the learning opportunities a more collaborative interaction can offer (Storch, 2002b; Foster and Ohta, 2005). In fact, pair dynamics, i.e. whether pairs use more or less collaborative patterns of interaction, were found to have more effect on the number of LREs than proficiency differences (Watanabe and Swain, 2007), for example. Bowles and Adams (2015, p.203) conclude that a collaborative orientation towards the interaction may determine ‘how helpful the interaction is for learning’. When learners prompt and co-construct, they project ‘what is likely to come next’, (Ohta, 2001b, p.92), which requires a high level of involvement and attention. Even upper intermediate learners do not automatically display the high mutuality which creates learning

opportunities when they complete communicative tasks (Chen, 2017). Nevertheless, it is probably not a question of proficiency. Naughton (2006, p.179) maintains that

‘[t]he unfolding of collaborative dialogue may depend less on task type, proficiency, or the emergence of communicative misunderstandings, and more on learner orientation, the socioaffective climate, and the structure and organization of the task. The willingness of students to request and provide help may be a key factor in the success of small group oral interaction and in the ability of students to aid each other’s interlanguage development’.

Pair 2CD, for example, uses paralinguistic and minimal target-language-based means, such as shadowing, to provide listener support and support the partner; they have various means to cooperate, and relate an own contribution to that of the previous speaker. This demonstrates that even low-level learners can form optimal dyads, as described by Chen (2017): ‘attentive listeners responding to each other’s ideas and questions so that they can offer each other valuable feedback’. For these reasons, interaction strategy training should probably not be limited to cognitive strategies, but also address underlying issues such as the degree of collaboration. Some learners might not be aware that they can in fact learn more when they collaborate with their partner. Naughton (2006) demonstrates that it is indeed possible to teach learners how to work in a more collaborative way. In this data set, only one pair (1CD) was encouraged to use more cooperation, and those learners did indeed do so after the feedback, although they reverted to their initial pattern after some time. Encouraging learners to support the partner and provide listener support should therefore not be limited to those at higher levels, and the collaboration issue probably needs to be addressed more than once.

5.3 Pedagogic implications

Studies of strategy instruction highlight the importance of teaching strategies over an extended period of time, and point out that only focusing on a few strategies might be more effective than addressing a whole range of them (Plonsky, 2011). From what we have seen above, the classroom reality is probably more complex. For some learners and some strategies, one-off feedback on a small number of strategies may be sufficient, and any more time spent on strategy training would be in vain (Hassan et al., 2005, p.65), whereas other learners might have needed more extended practice of specific chunks, or issues at a deeper level should have been addressed. Proficiency, the willingness to collaborate with the partner and to contribute to the interaction, viewing the interaction as a learning opportunity, and the willingness to communicate all seem to impact on the effect of the instruction (see Figure 57). Neither context alone, i.e. task type or setting, nor proficiency only, can explain the use of strategies, as others have found before (e.g. Rost and Ross, 1991). Each of these underlying factors probably necessitates a different kind of intervention. Feedback on the linguistic or the cognitive interaction strategy level only – as was attempted in this study – is probably not sufficient.



Figure 57: Factors impacting on the effect of interaction strategy instruction

Based on this observation, the following will now provide a suggestion for giving feedback to learners on their use of interaction strategies. It is presented in the form of a cascade assuming that some underlying issues have to be addressed before low-level learners can increase the use of specific strategies. The cascade is based on an aggregation of the previous analysis of the reasons why the feedback did or did not have an effect. First, there is a set of strategies which seems to be suitable for all learners, irrespective of their proficiency or the interaction patterns they are using (Figure 58). Shadowing, starting the conversation in English, offering the turn to the partner, and using specific lexical patterns are all linguistically undemanding and might in fact equip low-level learners to continue a conversation despite their resource deficits. Shadowing seems particularly interesting, as its form – other-repetition – can in fact also serve the purpose of gaining time, and can function as a confirmation check. If the above basic set of strategies is then extended to using other-repetition not only for shadowing but also for time-gaining and confirmation checks, learners already have quite a wide repertoire of strategies available. At very low levels, being aware of those very simple ways of gaining time, asking for confirmation, and providing listener support might be beneficial. These are all non-face-threatening strategies, and might therefore ultimately foster collaboration and thus contribute to more acquisition-rich interactions.

Second, for various situations as identified among the learners studied here, different suggestions for feedback are listed. If need be, teachers should first address a lack in willingness to communicate by targeting affective strategies, asking learners to keep talking for longer, and orienting to an imaginary world rather than the real one. Dörnyei and Ushida (2009) maintain that by appraising their performance, learners will perceive the need to activate relevant self-regulatory strategies to control the action, which will then ease task execution processes (Dörnyei and Wen-Ta, 2009). Third, if willingness to communicate is not an issue, but learners are at a very low level (A1), teachers can encourage them to use very simple linguistic resources to address the trouble, provide them with practice opportunities for some specific chunks for fillers or listener support, and they can again remind learners to digress from talking about the real world in order to avoid topics which may be too demanding. Next, if learners are not using collaborative patterns of interaction, they can be reminded that the task is not meant for display, and that any successful conversation is like a ping-pong game with, and not against, the partner. Learners can also be encouraged to use more listener support, and possibly again be prompted to talk about an imaginary world rather than the real world if this might help them collaborate more. If, however, they are already using highly co-constructed talk, they might be taught some chunks for fillers or listener support, to integrate some more elaborate language. When their partner contributes less to the interaction, then using more listener support and providing the partner with more

thinking time can be an option. In unequal dyads, the less able peer can be encouraged to use more assistance appeals, whereas the more able peer should be encouraged to use more non-face-threatening support strategies and listener support. The above suggestions can be reinforced by also focusing on Meta-SI strategies (Oxford, 2011, p.126), especially those used during task preparation, e.g. planning: setting goals and prioritizing goals (making task humorous and fun, helping class partner, practising chunks as fillers), planning ahead: emphasizing (fluency or accuracy for a given task and based on this plan the strategies to be used). By truly tailoring the feedback to learners' current level and needs, and giving learners specific sets of strategies to work on and to plan for the next interaction, they should be better equipped to keep the communication channel open in their next interaction and create more acquisition-rich talk.

FEEDBACK SUITABLE FOR ALL LEARNERS

- Use other-repetition to gain time, ask for confirmation and provide listener support.
- Start and end the conversation in English.
- If you don't know how to continue, offer the turn to your partner.
- Use specific lexical patterns given by the teacher, e.g. 'why – because.'

FEEDBACK SUITABLE FOR SPECIFIC LEARNERS ONLY (Work from top to bottom)

1) **Willingness to communicate: Learners who seem not to be willing to communicate**

- Use (meta-)affective strategies to address motivational issues.
- Keep talking for longer.
- Orient to an imaginary world rather than the real world.

2) **Linguistically very low-level:**

- Use minimal resources for addressing the trouble: 'Hm?' 'What?' self-repetition, other-repetition, 'uhm', interjections, single words in the school language to ask for help (when working with a more able partner).
- Practise specific chunks for fillers and to provide listener support until they can be used automatically.
- Orient to an imaginary world rather than the real world.

3) **Learners not using a collaborative pattern of interaction:**

- Know that the task is a learning opportunity rather than meant for display.
- Know that you both share responsibility for the interaction: play-pong *with* your partner not *against* him/her!
- Provide more listener support.
- Orient to an imaginary world rather than the real world.

4) **Learners with a collaborative pattern of interaction:**

- Use more elaborate forms for gaining time (chunks as fillers).
- Use more elaborate forms for providing listener support (chunks for listener support).

5) **Learners whose partner contributes less to the interaction:**

- Use listener support (lower levels: single words, higher levels: chunks).
- Provide the partner with more thinking time.

6) **Learners working with a more able peer:**

- Use assistance appeals.

7) **Learners working with a less able peer:**

- Use more support strategies without exposing the trouble.
- Use more listener support.

Figure 58: Feedback cascade

One aspect which was missing in this project was self-evaluation, the fourth step of the approach to strategy teaching advocated by Rubin et al. (2007). We can argue that this might easily have been introduced in one of the stimulated recall interviews after the intervention. However, the aim here was not to reinforce the intervention and therefore self-evaluation was not encouraged. Still, some learners showed self-evaluative comments in the recall interviews without being prompted to do so. Less able learners would probably need to be encouraged to evaluate their use and effectiveness of the strategies. Thus, a comprehensive interaction strategy programme could then be planned along the lines used for any strategy training (ibid.):

- 1) **Raise learners' awareness:** Raise awareness of the strategies learners are using by watching part of the recording with them and identifying their zone of proximal development with the help of the above cascade for providing feedback.
- 2) **Present strategies:** Suggest some new strategies according to the learners' individual needs and provide them with the linguistic resources to implement these strategies.
- 3) **Practise strategies:** Focus learners' attention on preparing for the next interaction, e.g. by asking learners to write down the new strategies and the linguistic resources and use these as reminders in all the following interactions. If need be, learners should practise the phrases they are provided.
- 4) **Promote self-evaluation:** After the following interaction, ask learners to discuss with peers to what extent they were able to use the suggested strategies and whether the use was effective. Once learners are familiar with the range of strategies, they can watch other learners' recordings and provide feedback to their peers.

This way, participants might become what is the goal of any strategy training: independent learners who are able to manage their own learning effectively by planning, monitoring and evaluating it.

The individually tailored feedback as suggested above can be complemented by some other potentially fruitful intervention with the whole class. The easiest is probably to change interaction partners if interaction patterns in some dyads seem less favourable.

Teachers

'need to pay attention to pair dynamics in class and should allow or encourage learners to change partners if dominant/dominant or dominant/passive patterns become prevalent' (Kim and McDonough, 2008, p.228f).

In addition, an approach designed to introduce the concept of 'organization of music' (Holbrook, 2015, p.259) could probably be adapted to tap into learners' experiences and concepts of 'organization of talk', and from this work towards a common understanding of how collaborative patterns of interaction are manifested. Naughton (2006) reports on a cooperative strategy training which successfully taught learners how to request or provide more help. In addition, there are some suggestions on how to practise specific strategies, such as backchannelling or discourse markers (Berry, 2018; Lee, 2018). Another interesting option might be to draw on tools such as the 'conversation-analytic role-play method' (Stokoe, 2011) to make learners aware of how to handle obstacles in the interaction (cf. Appendix 29).

However, such teaching and the individualised training can only be implemented if teachers have some basic understanding of how conversations work. In previous sections, we saw that some learners were perhaps unable to implement the feedback because it simply targeted the wrong strategies. At the meetings with the teachers, it became evident that they tended to always suggest to weaker learners to use more fillers and listener support, and to the stronger ones to support their partner more, which is probably a good basic approach. Teacher 1 expressed her concerns that at first it was very difficult for her to find anything to say to 1D, but that after she had received the researcher's analysis and instructions for the learners, she realised that it was the more able peer's responsibility to include the less able learner more to make the conversation more equal (van Lier and Matsuo, 2000). Both teachers and learners should have a basic understanding of the learning potential of collaborative dialogue and be aware of different interaction patterns. This could even be complemented by some basic CA training for teachers

'to enhance their reflective practice, to improve their interactional teaching skills, to respecify their teaching goals regarding oral abilities, and to deepen their understanding of classroom dynamics' (Markee and Kunitz, 2015, p.434).

Barraja-Rohan reports that CA indeed proved to be an effective diagnostic tool for the teacher (Barraja-Rohan, 2011). At the end of this research project, even without specific CA training, teacher 1 mentioned that she now listened in to learners' discussions with 'a different ear', and teacher 2 added he now had more tools at hand to give instruction to his learners. A deepened understanding of pair dynamics and conversation might help teachers provide more specific and more appropriate feedback.

5.4 Limitations and recommendations

First, it should be stressed that this study was primarily concerned with investigating a very specific context: a Swiss lower secondary classroom where English is taught as a second foreign language. Additionally, the study was only small-scale (two teachers, two classes, 16 learners), narrowly targeted (oral interaction strategies) but relatively long-term (ten 5 to 20-minutes interactions spread over 10 months). For these reasons, quantifications only represent a small extract in a very specific context. Though this study also used statistical procedures, that does not imply that these results can be generalised beyond the investigated participants. Statistical analysis mainly served the purpose of corroborating qualitative findings. In order to reinforce the quantitative part of the mixed-methods approach adopted here and to investigate the impact of the intervention in more detail a future study should involve more dyads.

What is more, the quantitative part of this study lacks valid inter-rater checks for both the interaction strategies and proficiency measures. However, most proficiency measures are based on well-known measurements, they were applied with the utmost care, and results were confirmed by the teachers' and the researcher's external ratings. As for the lack of thorough inter-rater checks of interaction strategies, the qualitative data analysis resulted in a more diverse and complex perception of the use of these strategies than was expected from reading the literature. Reasons for this might be that most previous studies of them were conducted from a quantitative stance, and the focus of the analysis was more on the form of the phenomenon under study than its function (Foster and Ohta, 2005). The coding of the data for the use of interaction strategies as found in the qualitative analysis therefore necessitated a thorough understanding of the structure of conversations and classroom interaction (e.g. its turn-taking (Schegloff et al., 2002) or learners' alignment activity (Dings, 2014; Tecedor, 2016)). Neither of the two teachers nor the teacher trainer colleague or the novice teacher had the necessary skills in these areas, nor was there time and money to cover all these topics in the available training sessions. The missing rigour of the inter-rater checks was considered in the quantitative analysis of the data in that this only focused on main categories, and results were always discussed in the context of the qualitative findings. In conclusion, understanding interaction strategies in task-based interaction necessitates a fine-grained emic view of the task-in-progress. On the other hand, it is this detailed analysis which makes inter-rater checks and quantification very resource-intensive. It seems very challenging to do justice to the individual and unpredictable nature of classroom talk, and at the same time still quantify the results to shed light on language development. Nevertheless, if time had permitted, more thorough rater training should have been undertaken, and a second rater should have coded proportions of transcripts as initially planned, until sufficient inter-rater agreement was reached. Any future study would

benefit from focusing more on inter-rater reliability by the involvement of a well-trained second rater.

What distinguishes this study from previous research on interaction strategies is that it did take an emic perspective on very low-level learners in an under-researched classroom context. By so doing, the analysis could go beyond surface features of strategy use and as a result uncover some underlying issues. What contributed to understanding these underlying issues better was the use of stimulated recall interviews. Including the learners' perspective on their interactions helped understand their interactional behaviour during task performance. At times, however, it would have been helpful for the researcher to know the task performance better before starting the interview, in order to be able to prompt participants in recalling cognitive processes more fully. In hindsight, it would also have been an option to conduct one of the interviews concerning the interaction right after the feedback was provided, and thus understand better whether learners were able to implement that. This was avoided because of fear of "social desirability bias" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.54). However, learners were very frank in the interviews, and did not seem to want to simply please the researcher, and therefore doing the second recall after the interaction immediately following the feedback would probably have been possible without affecting the results.

A more pertinent problem during some recall interviews was the fact that some learners were embarrassed when watching themselves completing the task. It is questionable if they were really able to recall what was happening during the interaction rather than just being overwhelmed by negative feelings about themselves. During task completion, however, it seemed most learners did forget about the camera. Some fooled around as though they were not being filmed; some used swear words or German and only changed to more appropriate language when the teacher physically approached them. Still, at some points they did address the researcher by talking to the camera. This was rare however. We can therefore assume that the camera did influence the interaction, but that this influence was minor only. In sum, through triangulating findings from multiple data sources, the phenomenon under investigation could be explored from both the learner's, the teacher's, and the researcher's perspectives, and thus a fuller picture of the use of interaction strategies in these specific classrooms could emerge.

On the one hand, this study therefore informs and deepens the understanding of how learners use interaction strategies in the lower secondary classroom in a Swiss state school, and on the other, its findings shed light on how learners can be better equipped to complete speaking tasks; thus it refines existing knowledge about learning processes in the foreign language classroom. In heterogenous classes with diverse proficiency levels, language backgrounds and personality traits, learners need individually-tailored feedback on interaction strategies. Some need linguistic resources to

be able to use stalling devices and maintain the interaction, whereas others need to be reminded that they should indeed support their partner, and they also need to be given examples of how they can do this while interacting. For some, a list of lexical chunks which can be used to implement various help-seeking or -providing strategies might suffice, whereas others may need feedback with some specific practice training before they can implement new strategies. The findings permitted the writing of a 'feedback cascade' for teachers, to identify which aspects of learner-learner interaction can be addressed, and which prioritises more pertinent aspects over secondary ones. It is hoped that this can support teachers in providing more efficient feedback on the use of interaction strategies.

Future research could test the usefulness of this feedback cascade and also focus on how exactly teachers provide the feedback and what effect this has. Instead, future studies could also only address one of the issues covered in the feedback cascade, such as the teaching of affective strategies in a State school context as this seems a fundamental issue in the lower secondary classroom. Another angle of approach for future research would be to investigate if and how learners who do not use collaborative patterns of interaction could be encouraged to collaborate more by using more listener support and support strategies. In this data set, these were found to correlate both with more time spent talking English, and more modifications of utterances in the direction of more standard English. Based on the findings and the analysis so far, it would also be interesting to see which of the strategies the same learners use when talking to other peers, or to a proficient speaker of the target language who does not share the school language, and whether this would provide them with equal learning opportunities. Another avenue for further study would be research into the development of accuracy in a lower secondary setting. Because of time-constraints it was not possible in this study to apply proficiency measures for correctness. Such an investigation could be complemented by some training in providing corrective feedback, i.e. using various other-support strategies, and an analysis whether this results in higher accuracy rates without impacting negatively on fluency, not only in a university setting (Sato and Lyster, 2012), but also in the lower secondary classroom.

For the moment, it is hoped that the findings of this study may contribute to a successful ping-pong game in the lower secondary English classroom, where learners 'coordinate or align their activities sensitively and ongoingly for their mutual benefit' (Atkinson, 2013, p.470).

6 List of References

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For the plots and the statistical analysis RStudio (RStudio Team, 2016) and jamovi (Love et al., 2018) were used employing the following and dependent packages:

- Rcmdr (Fox and Bouchet-Valat, 2017)
- ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009)
- ggthemes (ggthemes: Extra Themes, Scales and Geoms for “ggplot2,” 2017)
- plyr (Wickham, 2011)
- HH (Heiberger, 2017)
- reshape2 (Wickham, 2007)
- walrus (Love and Mair, 2018)

Interacting with limited resources

**Investigating the impact of teacher feedback on
the development of interaction strategies in the
classroom by learners of English**

VOL II

BRIGITTE REBER
Doctor of Philosophy

ASTON UNIVERSITY

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APPENDIX

1 Studies investigating the teachability of interaction strategies

Study	Participants	Strategies	Intervention	Research design Data analysis	Results
Rost, Ross (1991) Learner use of strategies in interaction: typology and teachability	false beginner – elementary level college intermediate – advanced 4 cohorts of 18 students	general questioning strategies referential questioning strategies inferential questioning strategies	training video with example and explicit instruction on how to use the targeted strategies	experimental pre-test with dictation: two proficiency groups students ask questions in their L1 at specific points in the story all students wrote a summary to check the understanding of the story	high proficiency learners use forward inference and continuation signals low-proficiency listeners use lexical reprise and global reprise product analysis: differences in comprehension of story significant effect in the use of forward inferencing strategy low proficiency learners can be taught how to ask for lexical clarification

<p>Dörnyei (1995) On the teachability of communication strategies</p>	<p>109 students 1.5 – 3.5 years of English (200-480 lessons) 15-18 years grammar school</p>	<p>topic avoidance and replacement, circumlocution, using fillers and hesitation devices</p>	<p>6-week strategy training programme awareness-raising and practice activities, 3 lessons per week for 20-40 minutes</p>	<p>pre- post-test quasi-experimental design (treatment, two types of control group (no treatment, general conversational training)) spoken production: topic description, cartoon description, definitions proficiency (C-test, oral task, speech rate)</p>	<p>increase in quality of definitions improvement in use of fillers no increase in use of circumlocutions (overall frequency was low) gains in speech rate but also for the conversational training group improvements and gains unrelated to proficiency general correlation between speech rate and strategy use</p>
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<p>Bejarano et al., (1997)</p> <p>The skilled use of interaction strategies: Creating a framework for improved small-group communicative interaction in the language classroom</p>	<p>34 students</p> <p>11th grade class at comprehensive high school</p>	<p>modified interaction: comprehension check and clarification, assistance appeal, providing assistance (completions), repairing</p> <p>social-interaction strategies: elaborating, facilitating flow of conversation (e.g. by using prompts), responding, seeking information or an opinion, paraphrasing (a participant clarifies the previous speaker's contribution by restating it in his own words)</p>	<p>6 week course</p> <p>1 hour group work training per week, two hours teacher-fronted</p> <p>introduction of each individual strategy, consolidation of all the strategies</p> <p>watch pre-test video with the teacher and discuss which strategies have not been used and how they could have been included</p>	<p>experimental and control group</p> <p>pre-test and post-test</p> <p>video of group discussion task before and after intervention</p> <p>descriptive statistics</p> <p>observation-tally for:</p> <p>number of turns per participant</p> <p>number of paratactic turns (no interaction strategies used)</p> <p>number of modified-interaction and social-interaction strategies</p> <p>attitude towards group-work questionnaire</p>	<p>experimental group used significantly more modified-interaction and social-interaction strategies</p> <p>more turns (increased participation) but not significant</p> <p>decrease of non-interactive participation in experimental group</p> <p>no changes in the control group</p>
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<p>Cohen, Weaver, Li (1998)</p> <p>The impact of strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language</p>	<p>55 students intermediate level learning French or Norwegian</p>	<p>broad range of strategies for preparation, self-monitoring and self-reflection afterwards¹</p>	<p>explicit teaching when and why strategies can be used</p> <p>integration into everyday class materials</p> <p>only transactional speaking</p>	<p>experimental group: 32, comparison group: 23</p> <p>pre-treatment background questionnaire</p> <p>SILL</p> <p>3 tasks (oral production: self-description, storytelling, city description)</p> <p>strategy checklist after each task</p> <p>21 students: verbal reports while completing post-test strategy checklist</p> <p>assessment of spoken language used during task²</p>	<p>experimental group outperform comparison group on the third task</p> <p>French: experimental group higher on vocabulary scale for self-description</p> <p>increase in use of certain strategies was linked to improved task performance for experimental group (preparatory and monitoring strategies), some for control group and some for both groups</p> <p>some were linked to poorer performance in the control group mainly (substituting a forgotten word, translating)</p>
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¹ **preparation:** lower your anxiety, prepare and plan

self-monitoring: feeling in control: emotional temperature, concentrate, use prepared materials, clarification request, delay speaking, don't give up-start over in another direction, think in the target language, positive self-talk

be involved in the conversation (concentrate on the conversation, listen to your partner, cooperate to negotiate meaning, anticipate what partner is going to say, empathize with partner – be supportive and helpful, take risks)

monitor your performance monitor use of lexis, grammar and pronunciation, self-correct, activate new lexis, compensate (circumlocution, synonyms, guessing, assistance appeal, use cognates, word coinage, use gestures), approximate message, switch topic

self-reflection afterwards: evaluate your performance: positive self-talk, self-evaluation, identify problem areas, share with peers and instructors, be aware of others' thoughts and feelings

plan for future tasks: plan for how you will improve, look up lexis and grammar, review strategies checklists, ask for help or correction, work with proficient user of language, keep learning log

² Self-confidence, grammar, vocabulary (for self-description and city description) and identification of key elements, ordering of elements (for retelling task)

<p>Scullen, Jourdain (1999)</p> <p>The effect of explicit training on successful circumlocution: a classroom study</p>	<p>25 fourth-semester French students</p> <p>novice-high to intermediate-high on ACTFL</p>	<p>circumlocution (superordinate terms, analogy, function, and description)</p>	<p>explicit teaching immediately prior to each practice session</p> <p>15 weeks, 3 hours per week</p>	<p>2 groups (experimental-control)</p> <p>pre-test – 3 practice sessions – post-test</p> <p>telephone conversation, listener was restricted in what he/she could say to put the burden of explaining on the other speaker</p>	<p>both groups made progress in successful circumlocution</p> <p>use of circumlocution remained constant between both groups but probably benefitted the listener</p> <p>great individual variation in number and type of circumlocution</p>
<p>Lam and Wong (2000)</p> <p>The effects of strategy training on developing discussion skills in an ESL classroom</p>	<p>58 students</p> <p>17 years old</p> <p>studied English for 13-14 years</p>	<p>clarifying oneself</p> <p>seeking clarification</p> <p>checking one's understanding</p>	<p>three lessons:</p> <p>awareness raising and introduction, reinforcement, consolidation and revision</p>	<p>pilot study</p> <p>questionnaire for teachers what they think learners need in interaction</p> <p>pre-training task recording</p> <p>post-training task recording</p>	<p>teachers think learners need the following: clarifying oneself, seeking clarification, checking one's understanding of other people's messages</p> <p>'greater use of interaction strategies, and more genuine interaction in group discussions'</p> <p>'more incidents of ineffective than effective use of interaction strategies'</p> <p>'peer help and co-operation might compensate for the ineffective use of interaction strategies due to limited resources'</p>

<p>Gallagher-Brett (2001)</p> <p>Teaching communication strategies to beginners</p>	<p>Year 7 Comprehensive School Beginners 8 weeks</p>	<p>phrases for:</p> <p>turn-taking</p> <p>requests for help</p> <p>clarification</p> <p>repetition</p> <p>greetings</p> <p>pause fillers</p>	<p>explicit teaching of communication strategies phrases</p> <p>practise and reinforcement via classroom discussions, role plays and games</p>	<p>action research project (Master thesis)</p> <p>pre- and post-questionnaires audio recordings of interactions during and post</p>	<p>self-reported use of wide selection of phrases</p> <p>learners included some of the strategies, dependent on communicative function and on nature of the task</p> <p>learners did not use pause fillers</p> <p>repetition and talking to themselves possibly to gain time</p> <p>used a wide range of social strategies without being taught</p> <p>used fewer social and communication strategies in the test</p> <p>personality and general ability may have influenced the use of strategies</p>
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<p>Rossiter (2003a)</p> <p>'It's like chicken but bigger': effects of communication strategy in the ESL classroom</p>	<p>30 adults</p> <p>diverse language backgrounds</p> <p>on average 4.2 years in English speaking Canada</p> <p>mostly high school or university background</p>	<p>paraphrase</p> <p>approximation, super-ordination, analogy, all-purpose word, circumlocution (exemplification, description, size, spatial dimensions, colour, shape, substance, specific parts, function, location, details of a part, history)</p>	<p>16-week programme: communicative language teaching</p> <p>twelve lessons: raising awareness of usefulness, modelling, explicit instruction, opportunities for practice</p>	<p>teacher as interlocutor, restricted language to put onus on learner</p> <p>tests in week 1, 5, 10</p> <p>picture story description, object description task</p> <p>pruned speech rate</p> <p>count strategies and message abandonment</p>	<p>increased range of strategy types used by the treatment group in immediate post-test only</p> <p>otherwise no difference</p> <p>no improved performance</p> <p>task effect</p>
<p>Rossiter (2003b)</p> <p>The effects of affective strategy training in the ESL classroom</p>	<p>31 students</p> <p>19-56 years</p> <p>various first languages</p> <p>residence in Canada: 5 months -27 years</p> <p>mostly high school background</p>	<p>relaxation, visualisation, positive self-talk, humour, risk-taking, monitoring emotions</p>	<p>interlocutor with native speaker proficiency</p> <p>consciousness-raising and training in relaxation, visualization, positive self-talk, humour, risk-taking, and monitoring emotions</p>	<p>pre-test, post-test, delayed post-test</p> <p>self-report instruments for self-efficacy</p> <p>pruned speech rate in words per minute</p>	<p>learners received the instruction well</p> <p>visualization seemed problematic</p> <p>no significant between-group benefit for L2 performance</p>

<p>Nakatani (2005)</p> <p>The effects of awareness-raising training on oral communication strategy use</p>	<p>18-19 years</p> <p>EFL class, 62 female learners</p> <p>6 years of English</p>	<p>appeal for help</p> <p>asking for repetition</p> <p>confirmation check</p> <p>comprehension check</p> <p>clarification request</p> <p>modified output</p> <p>Time-gaining (fillers)</p> <p>maintenance (listener support, shadowing)</p> <p>offering assistance</p> <p>self-solving: paraphrase, approximation, restructuring</p> <p>reduction: (message abandonment, L1-based strategies, interlanguage-based strategies, false starts)</p>	<p>12 weeks course</p> <p>list of strategies with examples</p> <p>strategy diary to make plans, monitor, and evaluate performance</p> <p>review (reflection and repetition of last lesson's task)</p> <p>Presentation (of new task)</p> <p>discussion of possible 'communication strategies')</p> <p>rehearsal (with peers and planning with diary)</p> <p>performance (of task)</p> <p>evaluation (with diary)</p>	<p>quantitative intervention study</p> <p>experimental and control group</p> <p>coding speech production (number of words per C-unit) and achievement and reduction strategies</p> <p>speaking pre- and post-test</p> <p>retrospective protocol data</p>	<p>significant improvement of production rate (words per C-unit) and overall proficiency for the experimental group</p> <p>experimental group: significant effect for modified interaction, modified output, time-gaining and maintenance strategies</p> <p>no significant difference between the groups for help-seeking strategies and self-solving strategies</p> <p>experimental group: decrease in message abandonment but no change in L1-, interlanguage-based or false start strategies</p> <p>more confirmation and comprehension checks after the training</p> <p>learners in experimental group show awareness of using modified interaction, modified input, time-gaining, and maintenance strategies</p>
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Lee (2005) Training young learners in meaning negotiation skills: Does it help?	11-12 years Primary school	negotiation devices: confirmation checks comprehension checks clarification requests repetition requests repetition	awareness-raising and modelling with recording of proficient speakers doing the same task targeted practice in using negotiation devices	action research project	total number of devices used increased repetition of other's utterance decreased range of devices used increased most striking difference: increased number of confirmation checks
Coulson (2005) Collaborative tasks for cross-cultural communication	18-19 years Lower-intermediate	Team-talking (collaboratively producing language) collective scaffolding	specific tasks (encouraging learners to express precise meanings) awareness-raising (transcribing and reflecting on learners' interactions) practise	action research project Recordings and transcripts	Learners were able to repair peers' breakdowns.
Leedham (2005) Exam-oriented tasks: transcripts, turn-taking and backchannelling	Two young women, early twenties 5.5 IELTS	Turn-taking styles Backchannelling	task post-task listening with analysis of transcript task repetition	action research project Recordings and transcripts	Learners noticed the differences in turn-taking styles and use of backchannel. Learners used backchannel and listener feedback in the second task.

<p>Lam (2006) Gauging the effects of ESL oral communication strategy teaching: a multi-method approach</p>	<p>13-14 years secondary school two intact class: 20 and 20 learners Seven years of English elementary-intermediate</p>	<p>resourcing (task instructions as linguistic resource) paraphrasing using self-repetition (stalling device) using fillers (stalling device) using self-correction asking for repetition asking for clarification asking for confirmation</p>	<p>explicit strategy training spread over 5 months: rationale and value of strategy training, examples to model on and opportunities to use, consolidate and evaluate</p>	<p>intervention study (qualitative and quantitative approaches), treatment and comparison class longitudinal (5 months) standardized Proficiency Test group discussion task to measure task performance in week 1 and 20 (20 recordings): proficiency (impressionistic rating) and task effectiveness Self-report questionnaire (all participants) in week 1 and 20 observation: qualitative analysis of observed strategy use in weeks 1, 10, 20 for 4 pull-out groups, stimulated recall (four pull-out groups, transcripts coded for strategy types used, weeks 1, 10, 20): proportional frequencies of reported use of strategies</p>	<p>improved general task effectiveness and confidence in completing the tasks – probably enhanced self-efficacy students are more aware of strategies (higher self-reported use of strategies) -> declarative knowledge about strategies increase in resourcing</p>
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<p>Naughton (2006)</p> <p>Cooperative strategy training and oral interaction: enhancing small group communication in the language classroom</p>	<p>22-25 Years</p> <p>45 EFL learners</p> <p>same school language (Spanish)</p> <p>10 weeks course</p> <p>High school graduates</p> <p>upper intermediate</p>	<p>asking follow-up questions</p> <p>requesting and giving clarification</p> <p>repair (self- and other)</p> <p>requesting and giving help (scaffolded help)</p>	<p>embedded but direct strategy training reflecting sociocultural and interactionist views: explicit discussion of strategy and its rationale, practice in small groups (game) encouraging positive interdependence and individual accountability</p> <p>strategy introduced by teacher: function and form explained</p> <p>practise in groups</p> <p>8 hours strategy training</p>	<p>quasi-experimental study</p> <p>quantitative analysis using descriptive and inferential statistics</p> <p>three experimental and two control groups</p> <p>triads videotaped at the beginning (= pre-test) and 8 weeks later (post-test)</p> <p>dependent variables: overall participation (number of turns), use of interaction strategies (pilot study, interrater reliability calculated), video-recording before and after intervention</p>	<p>number of turns increased in experimental group and decreased in control group</p> <p>increase in strategy use in the experimental group</p> <p>increase in using follow-up questions in the experimental group</p> <p>increase in requesting and giving clarification in the experimental group, overall used least frequently</p> <p>increase (but lower than for the other strategies) of repair in both groups, initially very low frequency (possibly due to higher familiarity with interlocutor)</p> <p>most increase in requesting and giving help</p>
<p>Maleki (2007)</p> <p>Teachability of communication strategies: An Iranian experience</p>	<p>60 students</p> <p>university</p> <p>20-25 years</p> <p>lower intermediate, intermediate</p>	<p>approximation</p> <p>circumlocution/paraphrase</p> <p>appeal for assistance</p> <p>time-stalling devices</p>	<p>4-month teaching period</p> <p>class A coursebook without CS, class B coursebook with CS</p>	<p>oral and written examinations</p> <p>Cambridge ESOL speaking test with one student from class A and one from class B</p>	<p>proficiency affected positively with a very strong effect on interactive communication, even on the achievement test class B scored higher</p>

<p>Lam (2009)</p> <p>Examining the effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on ESL group discussions: A synthesis of approaches</p>	<p>13-14 years</p> <p>secondary school</p> <p>seven years of English</p>	<p>metacognitive strategies:</p> <p>problem identification planning content</p> <p>planning language</p> <p>evaluation</p> <p>asking for and giving help</p> <p>positive self-talk</p>	<p>Explicit strategy training</p>	<p>intervention study (qualitative and quantitative approaches)</p> <p>treatment and comparison class</p> <p>longitudinal (5 months)</p> <p>standardized proficiency test (all participants)</p> <p>self-report questionnaire (all participants)</p> <p>qualitative analysis of observed strategy use (pull-out groups): descriptive statistics of standardized frequencies</p> <p>stimulated recall (four pull-out groups, transcripts coded for strategy types used, weeks 1, 10, 20): proportional frequencies of reported use of strategies</p>	<p>experimental group outperformed control group in proficiency and task effectiveness</p> <p>statistically significant gain in self-perceived use of 'asking for help' and 'problem identification'</p> <p>observed strategy use: upwards trend in 'problem identification'</p> <p>general increase in the variety of strategy use</p>
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<p>Lam (2010a)</p> <p>Implementing communication strategy instruction in the ESL oral classroom: what do low-proficiency learners tell us?</p>	<p>20 learners</p> <p>13-14 years old</p> <p>6 years of English at primary level</p>	<p>psycholinguistic perspective:</p> <p>planning and encoding of preverbal messages: resourcing, paraphrasing, using fillers, using self-repetition</p> <p>Monitoring the phonetic plan and articulated speech: using self-correction,</p> <p>Post-articulatory monitoring stage: asking for repetition, asking for clarification, asking for confirmation.</p>	<p>explicit strategy training: rationale and value of strategy instruction, examples, practise, self-evaluation</p>	<p>intervention study</p> <p>two intact classes</p> <p>Kruskal-Wallis Test to put students in each class into three high-proficiency and two low-proficiency groups</p> <p>five months intervention: group discussions</p> <p>Stimulated recall interviews</p> <p>Recordings in week 1, 10, 20 with subsequent stimulated recall interview</p> <p>instances of mention of a strategy type identified in the recall interviews</p> <p>Task in weeks 1 and 20: rated for English proficiency and task effectiveness by 4 different teachers</p>	<p>low-proficiency students: consistent increases in aggregated frequency and variety of strategy use</p> <p>increase in English proficiency score for low-proficiency learners</p>
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<p>Lam (2010b)</p> <p>Metacognitive strategy teaching in the ESL oral classroom: ripple effect on non-target strategy use</p>	<p>13-14 years</p> <p>seven years of English</p>	<p>metacognitive strategy instruction:</p> <p>problem identification, planning content, planning language, evaluation</p> <p>Social strategies:</p> <p>asking for help, giving help, positive self-talk (scaffolded help)</p>	<p>five months: 8 strategy sessions of 1 hour and twenty minutes</p> <p>explicit strategy instruction, rationale and value of strategy instruction, provide names and examples to model on and practice and consolidation</p>	<p>treatment and comparison class</p> <p>observation, stimulated recall interviews</p> <p>two groups of four per class</p> <p>recording of preparation in L1</p> <p>recording of discussion task</p> <p>stimulated recall interviews of pre-discussion session with individual learners</p>	<p>'consistent and steady decreases (...) in the aggregated use of non-target strategies but obvious increase (...) in the aggregated use of the target strategies in week 10', 'marginal increase (...) in week 20'</p> <p>'steady decrease in the use of the whole sample of observable, non-target strategies over time', no increase in strategic awareness and use of strategies,</p> <p>treatment class upward trend and comparison class downward trend for monitoring contributions, suggesting turn-taking tactics, facilitating progress</p> <p>'metacognitive strategy teaching (...) associated with the E class using more of 'Monitoring contributions', 'Suggesting turn-taking tactics' and Facilitating progress' and deploying a wider range of strategies as compared with the C class'</p>
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<p>Nakatani (2010) Identifying strategies that facilitate EFL learners' oral communication: a classroom study using multiple data collection procedures</p>	<p>62 college students (18-19 years) 6 years of English</p>	<p>possible phrases for: appeal for help asking for repetition comprehension checks confirmation checks clarification requests using fillers response for maintenance (active response (making positive comments or using other conversation gambits, e.g. I see. Or: It sounds good.), shadowing) self-repairing</p>	<p>review, presentation, rehearsal, performance and evaluation (self-reflection) of specific strategy</p>	<p>quantitative study: multiple data collection procedures pre-test and post-test conversation tasks beginning and end of 12 weeks (researcher clerk, learner customer) oral pre-test and post-test (fluency, ability to interact, flexibility in developing dialogue) general English test before the course (listening and reading) post-test discourse data: production rate (words per C-unit), number of errors, use of achievement and reduction strategies self-reported use of communication strategies and verbal report protocol data dependent variable: oral post-test scores independent variables: General English test scores, oral pre-test, post-test discourse data</p>	<p>most significant predictor for conversation post-test score: response for maintenance other predictors: production rate, signals for negotiation (confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests, result of the oral pre-test score) high-proficiency students recognized using time-gaining, response for maintenance strategies and negotiation moves and modified their utterances. In addition, they used social affective strategies whereas low-proficiency students lacked the strategic and linguistic knowledge to use communication strategies</p>
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<p>Kim, McDonough (2011)</p> <p>Using pre-task modelling to encourage collaborative learning opportunities</p>	<p>13-14 years</p> <p>Middle school students: 44</p> <p>4 years previous English and extra lessons</p>	<p>LRE for vocabulary and grammar: correctly resolved, unresolved, incorrectly resolved</p> <p>collaborative pair dynamics (Storch, 2002) with both interlocutors providing feedback, responding to questions and sharing ideas</p> <p>collaborative:</p> <p>offering consistent interactional feedback throughout task performance</p> <p>engaging each other's idea</p> <p>maintaining similar contributions to task accomplishment</p> <p>encouraging a partner's participation</p>	<p>pre-task modelling with video clips of proficient speakers</p> <p>three lessons in two weeks</p>	<p>quantitative intervention study</p> <p>between-groups design</p> <p>experimental and control/comparison group</p> <p>coding numbers of LREs and resolving of LREs and pair dynamics as dependent variables</p> <p>independent variable: Pre-task modelling: explicit instructions about task implementation and videotape models of collaborative task interactions</p> <p>dependent variable: number and resolution of LREs, pair dynamics</p> <p>dictogloss, decision-making, information-gap task</p>	<p>pre-task modelling: greater number of grammatical and lexical LREs, greater proportion of correctly resolved LREs and fewer unresolved LREs</p> <p>with pre-task modelling: more collaborative interaction, difference more noticeable for dictogloss and decision making than information gap task</p> <p>pre-task modelling: more grammatical LREs for dictogloss, and more lexical LREs for information gap</p> <p>trends: pre-task modelling: less use of L1, more mining rather than taking entire sentences from task instructions</p>
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<p>Barraja-Rohan (2011)</p> <p>Using conversation analysis in the second language classroom to teach interactional competence</p>	<p>20-60 years two classes migrants and international students (lower) intermediate level two classes at different language levels</p>	<p>verbal and non-verbal resources for the following concepts: response tokens assessments adjacency pairs and sociocultural norms (e.g. greetings, conversation closings)</p>	<p>awareness-raising with natural conversations by proficient speakers</p>	<p>action research project conversation Analysis two semesters pre-instruction conversations post-instruction conversations</p>	<p>interactional transfers from L1 to L2 were not automatic self-reported: CA methodology helped students apply the concepts, became more effective conversationalists CA proved to be a powerful diagnostic tool for the teacher-researcher</p>
<p>Alibakhshi, Padiz (2011)</p> <p>The effect of teaching strategic competence on speaking performance of EFL learners</p>	<p>age 18-20 60 learners 4 semesters of previous instruction</p>	<p>avoidance, approximation, restructuring, language switch, word coinage, appeal for assistance, circumlocution, self-repetition, self-repair</p>	<p>10-week treatment, no mention of the exact procedures</p>	<p>randomly assigned to two groups pre- and post-test, delayed post-test (3 months) group discussion, retelling Persian short stories in English, picture description</p>	<p>decrease in avoidance and language switch increase in approximation and assistance appeal and circumlocution no difference in restructuring and word coinage approximation, appeal for assistance, self-repetition: effect is lost language switch remained stable, higher than control group avoidance, restructuring, word coinage, circumlocution, self-repair: no change after three months</p>

<p>Sato, Lyster (2012) Peer interaction and corrective feedback for accuracy and fluency development</p>	<p>university-level classes 167 students</p>	<p>corrective feedback: prompts and recasts CF: negotiation of form IF: negotiation of meaning (for message comprehensibility problems) MO: repair moves following CF MO: Modified output following IF SMO: Self-initiated repair (no provision of CF)</p>	<p>modelling, practice, use-in-context 10 hours in total over 10 weeks plus fluency-focused peer interaction activities</p>	<p>quasi-experimental study four conditions: prompts, recasts, peer interaction, control fluency (unpruned and pruned speech rate) accuracy (error-free clauses per total number of clauses)</p>	<p>corrective feedback in peer interaction has positive impacts on accuracy development peer interaction (even without teaching strategies) contributes to fluency prompts and recasts groups improved accuracy and fluency instruction lead to increase in use of interactional moves which were targeted CF groups: more CF than the others recast group: more CF than the prompt group CF groups: more SMO CF and MO are related to development of pruned speech rate but not unpruned speech rate CF did not impact negatively on fluency development but facilitated monitoring, which contributed to more accurate and faster processing.</p>
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<p>Sato (2013)</p> <p>Beliefs about peer interaction and peer corrective feedback: Efficacy of classroom intervention</p>	<p>university students</p> <p>167 students</p> <p>used to form-focused teaching</p>	<p>corrective feedback: prompts (withholding the correct form – opportunity for interlocutor to self-correct)</p> <p>recasts: providing the correct form by reformulating the error</p>	<p>modelling, practice, use-in-context</p> <p>10 hours in total over 10 weeks plus fluency-focused peer interaction activities</p> <p>raising awareness of effectiveness of peer interaction and how to provide corrective feedback</p>	<p>mixed methods: prompts group, recasts group, peer interaction group, control group</p> <p>pre- and post-intervention questionnaires</p> <p>qualitative: interview (grounded theory)</p>	<p>intervention caused some changes in the learners' beliefs over time</p> <p>prompts, recast and peer interaction groups: positive attitude towards pair activities and belief in learning potential of pair interaction</p> <p>prompts and recasts groups: positive attitude towards pair activities, providing peer feedback</p> <p>prompts group: positive attitude towards pair activities</p> <p>Learners started to rely on their classmates, more collaboration</p>
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Tavakoli, Campbell, McCormack (2015) Development of speech fluency over a short period of time: effects of pedagogic intervention	B2 22 and 35 students	personal patterns of frequent pausing, single-word fillers, lexical-chunk fillers, avoiding unnecessary repair moves	4 weeks: instruction for 30-40 minutes per week awareness-raising activities teach strategies that help improve utterance fluency provide opportunities for practicing the strategies in class and independently outside class	quasi-experimental pre-test – post-test design monologic tasks control group: general speaking and listening skills fluency ³ complexity ⁴ accuracy ⁵ experimental group: strategy training	gains in length of run, articulation and speech rates, phonation time ratio
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³ mean length of run (mean number of syllables between two pauses), mean length of pauses, mean number of clause-internal versus clause-external silent pauses, mean number of filled pauses, repair measures (mean number of partial or complete repetitions, hesitations, false starts, and reformulations per minute), phonation time ratio (time taken to perform the task, excluding the pauses), articulation rate (mean number of syllables per minute divided by amount of phonation time, excluding pauses), speech rate (mean number of syllables per minutes divided by total time, including pauses)

⁴ mean number of clauses per AS-unit and mean number of words per AS-unit

⁵ accuracy (percentage of error-free clauses, percentage of correct verb use)

<p>Fuji, Ziegler, Mackey(2016)</p> <p>Peer interaction and metacognitive instruction in the EFL classroom</p>	<p>39 learners from three intact classes</p> <p>intensive academic English program</p> <p>13 men, 26 women</p> <p>about 18 years</p> <p>low intermediate</p>	<p>metacognitive strategies:</p> <p>clarification requests, confirmation requests, recasts</p>	<p>one session: how to be an active learner: feedback, negotiation, and noticing</p> <p>explanation, examples, useful phrases, practise, review followed by post-test</p>	<p>quasi-experimental study</p> <p>treatment and control group</p> <p>pre-test and post-test: interactive tasks (picture difference, problem-solving task)</p> <p>exit questionnaire after the post-test task</p> <p>in the analysis, the focus was on responses to non-target-like utterances and modified output opportunities and modified output</p>	<p>treatment group provided significantly more feedback to non-target-like utterances (mostly clarification requests) and used more modified output after the intervention than the control group</p> <p>learners react positively to the teaching</p>
<p>Bataineh, Al-Bzour, Baniabdelrahman, (2017)</p> <p>On the teachability of communication strategies to Jordanian EFL beginners: exploration and reflection</p>	<p>6th grade</p> <p>24 male and female learners at a private school</p>	<p>approximation, circumlocution, repetition, appeal for help, self-repair, appeal for confirmation, appeal for clarification, and guessing</p>	<p>8-week treatment, researcher introduced the CSs, modelled their use, and encouraged students to use them whenever they had difficulty expressing themselves</p> <p>two CS integrated in every period</p>	<p>CS-focused observation checklist</p> <p>oral pre-/post-test</p>	<p>marked improvement in students' oral performance</p> <p>increased use of all CSs but for guessing</p>

2 Initial categories of strategies

(based on Færch and Kasper (1983) Goh and Burns (2012, p.66) and Nakatani (2010, p.131f)

1) Ein vorgegebenes Gespräch beginnen und beenden

2) Zeit zum Überlegen oder Formulieren gewinnen (using fillers to gain time)

- a) einzelne Füllwörter verwenden: well, uhm, ehm
- b) ganze Chunks verwenden: Let me see, How can I say...

3) Wenn du ein Wort nicht weisst

- a) ein ähnliches Wort verwenden (alternative word): table for desk
- b) ein Universalwort verwenden (all-purpose word): stuff
- c) beschreiben oder ein Beispiel nennen (paraphrase)
- d) ein Parallelwort verwenden (word coinage and foreignizing): use a German word by adjusting it to English pronunciation (it might be a parallel word)
- d) Gestik und Mimik verwenden (non-linguistic strategies)

4) Wenn du etwas Kompliziertes erklären musst

- a) ein Beispiel machen (exemplification)
- b) den grösseren Rahmen / Kontext erklären, bevor du etwas detailliert beschreibst (message frames)

5) Den Partner/die Partnerin um Hilfe bitten (assistance appeal)

6) Unklarheiten beheben

- a) fragen, ob der Partner / die Partnerin dich verstanden hat (comprehension check)
- b) die letzte Aussage des Partners / der Partnerin wiederholen, um dich zu vergewissern, dass du ihn / sie richtig verstanden hast (confirmation check)
- c) um weitere Informationen oder eine erneute Erklärung bitten (clarification request)
- d) um Wiederholung bitten (repetition request)
- e) um ein Beispiel bitten (exemplification request)

7) Das Gespräch in Gang halten

- a) Kommentare oder Ausrufe verwenden, um dem Partner / der Partnerin dein Interesse zu zeigen (providing active response): I see, it sounds good
- b) Die letzte Aussage des Partners / der Partnerin wiederholen, um zu zeigen, dass du ihm / ihr folgst (shadowing)
- c) Den Partner / die Partnerin zum Sprechen auffordern (offering turns)
- d) eine Aussage des Partners / der Partnerin vervollständigen: ein englisches Wort geben oder einen angefangenen Satz der Partnerin des Partners beenden (completion)

3 Research questions and methods of data collection

QUAL: Qualitative, quan: quantitative

Research questions	Evidence: Data	Evidence: Analysis
<p>RQ1: What interaction strategies do low-level learners use?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Which strategies do they use? b) Which are the preferred strategies? c) Do all learners use the same strategies? d) Does the use of strategies change over time? 	<p>Video recordings of 16 learners' task-based interaction at 10 different points in time over a period of 10 months (before and after the intervention)</p> <p>Subsequent stimulated recall at three different points in time</p>	<p>QUAL: use of interaction strategies development of use of interaction strategies</p>
<p>RQ2: What is the relationship between the use of interaction strategies and language proficiency?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Is there a relation between the use of specific interaction strategies and language proficiency? b) Do learners who are using more fluent and more complex language use different strategies from learners at lower fluency- and complexity-levels? 	<p>Video recordings of 16 learners' task-based interaction at 10 different points in time over a period of 10 months (before and after the intervention)</p>	<p>quan: discourse analytical measurement for fluency and complexity transcripts coded for the use of interaction strategies Spearman's rho</p>
<p>RQ3: How does teacher feedback on interaction strategies impact learners' immediate and long-term use of interaction strategies?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Does the use of strategies change immediately after the instruction? b) Do these changes last or do learners revert to their initial use of interaction strategies? c) Does teacher feedback on interaction strategies have any immediate or longer-term effect on learners' speaking proficiency? 	<p>Video recordings of 16 learners' task-based interaction at 10 different points in time over a period of 10 months (before and after the intervention)</p> <p>Audio-recording of intervention (individually-tailored feedback given to learners) and copy of notes on feedback sheet for learners</p> <p>Stimulated recall before and after the intervention at three different points in time</p>	<p>QUAL: use of interaction strategies with focus on development before and after intervention</p> <p>quan: visual inspection of frequency of strategy use and development of proficiency scores robust paired samples t-test of proficiency scores right before and after the feedback</p>

Table 1: Research questions, corresponding data collection instruments and methods of analysis

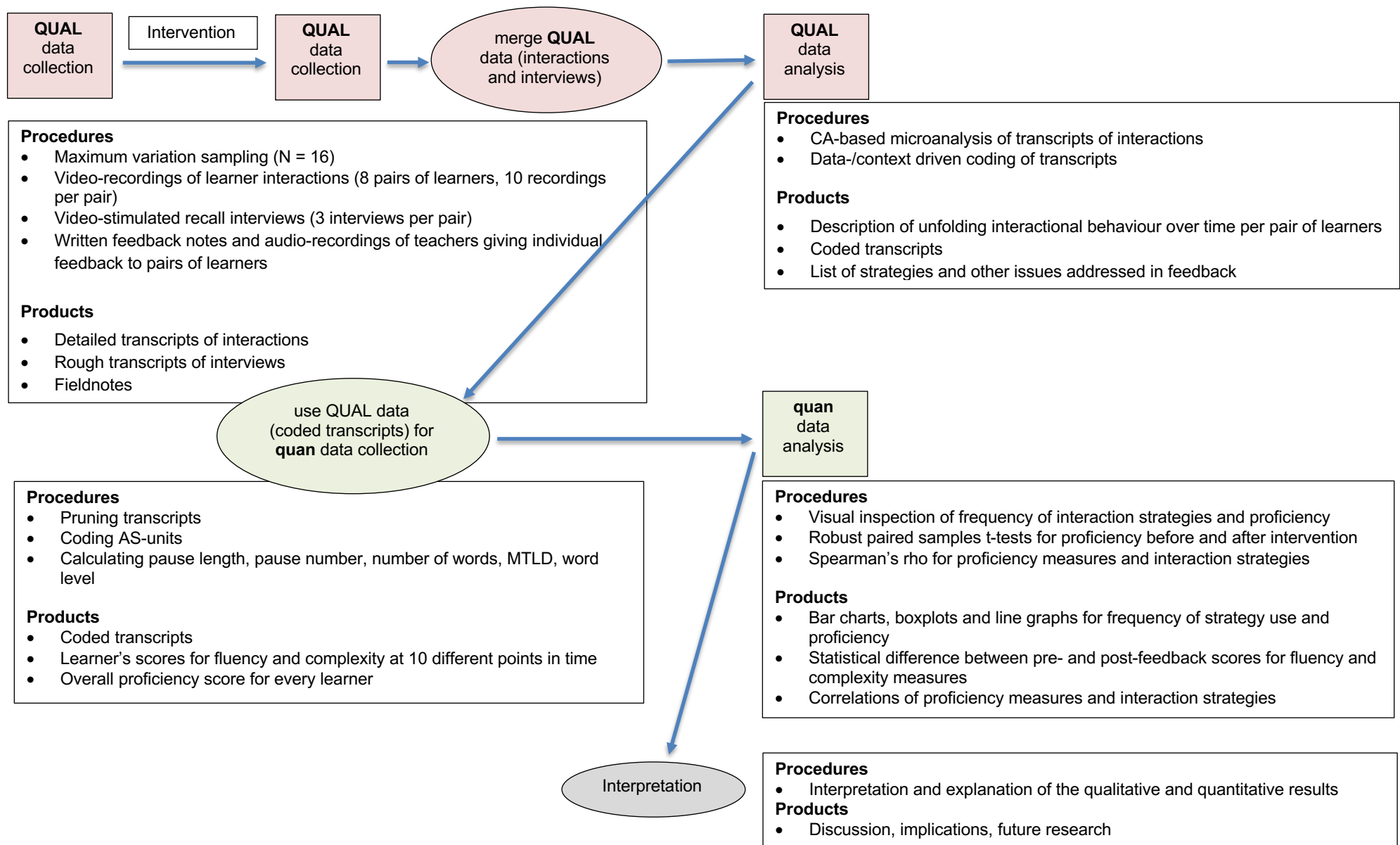


Figure 1: Procedural diagram for exploratory mixed methods design

4 Data collection schedule

	2 ⁶	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Date	25/08/15	19/10/15	09/11/15	30/11/15	18/01/16	01/02/16	07/03/16	21/03/16	30/05/16	13/06/16
Feedback				13.30	13.30	13.30	13.30			
Task	13.30	13.30	13.30	13.40	13.40	13.40	13.40	13.30	13.30	13.30
Recall			14.25	14.25	14.25	14.25	14.25	14.25	14.25	14.25
1AB ⁷	O	O	⁸	OS	XO	O	S ⁹	¹⁰	OS	O
1CD	O	O	O	OS	XO	O	O ¹¹	OS	O	OS
1EF	O	O	O	O	OS	X ¹²	XOS ¹³	O	O	OS
1GH	O	O	OS	O	O	OS	XO	O	OS	O
1IJ	¹⁴	O	OS	XO	O	OS	O	OS	¹⁵	O
Other learners							X			

Table 2: Data collection schedule class 1

O = Recording of task-based interaction

S = Stimulated recall interview

X = Feedback by teacher 1

... = missing data

⁶ Recordings 1 made on 18/08/15 in class 1.

⁷ Data from 1AB was not included in the data analysis.

⁸ No recording, B and K are sick.

⁹ Recording of 1A and 1K, 1B is sick

¹⁰ Recording of 1A and 1K, 1B is sick

¹¹ 1F had to leave earlier, no warming-up by teacher, they started with the preparation time for the task straight away.

¹² Recording of 1E and 1K, feedback for 1E to recording 6, 1F is sick

¹³ Feedback for 1F to recording 6, feedback for 1E to recording 7

¹⁴ Recording of 1KI, 1J is sick.

¹⁵ Recording of 1KI, 1J is sick.

	2 ¹⁶	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Date	24/08/15	27/10/15	10/11/15	01/12/15	26/01/16	23/02/16	22/03/16	05/04/16	31/05/16	16/06/16
Feedback				9.50	9.50	9.50	9.50			
Task	10.15	10.15	10.15	10.15	10.15	10.15	10.15	10.15	10.15	11.00
Recall			13.40	10.30	10.35	10.35 13.40	10.35 13.40	10.35 13.40	10.35 13.40	10.35 13.40
2AB	O	O	OS	XO	O	OS	O	OS	O	O
2CD	O	O	O	OS	XO	O	OS	O	OS	O
2EF	O	O	O	O	OS	XO	O	OS	O	OS
2GH ¹⁷	O	O	OS	O	O	OS	XO	O	¹⁸	OS
2IJ	O	O	O	OS	XO	O	OS	O	OS	O
Other learners								X		

Table 3: Data collection schedule class 2

O = Recording of task-based interaction

S = Stimulated recall interview

X = Feedback by teacher 2

...= missing data

¹⁶ Recordings 1 made on 17/08/15 in class 2 were not used for analysis

¹⁷ Data from 2GH was not included in the data analysis..

¹⁸ Recording of 2HK, 2G is sick.

5 Letter of consent

Schülerinnen und Schüler der Klasse ...

Bern, (date) BRe

Forschungsprojekt zum Thema Sprechen im Englischunterricht

Liebe Eltern

Im Rahmen eines Forschungsprojektes der Pädagogischen Hochschule Bern und der Aston University soll untersucht werden, wie Englisch-Lernende optimal beim Entwickeln der Sprechfertigkeit unterstützt werden können.

Zu diesem Zweck werden über ein Jahr verteilt ungefähr 11 Videoaufnahmen von Schülerinnen und Schülern gemacht, die im Rahmen des normalen Englischunterrichtes eine Sprechaufgabe lösen. Im Anschluss an das Lösen der Aufgabe werden einzelne Lernende ihre Aufnahme zusammen mit den Forschenden ansehen und sich dazu äussern, wie es ihnen während dem Lösen der Aufgabe ergangen ist, wo sie Schwierigkeiten hatten und wie sie diese gemeistert haben. Die Forschenden werden ihnen nach Bedarf noch weitere Fragen zur Aufnahme stellen. Auch diese Gespräche werden aufgezeichnet. Alle Aufnahmen werden anschliessend transkribiert und analysiert.

Vor dem Lösen der nächsten Aufgabe werden jeweils einzelne Lernende ein persönliches Feedback zur letzten Aufgabe erhalten mit Tipps, wie sie in Zukunft ihre Sprechfertigkeit im Englisch verbessern können. Auch dieses Feedback wird aufgenommen. Alle Lernende der Klasse werden im Verlaufe des Projektes in den ‚Genuss‘ dieser Tipps kommen, ob sie sich nun entscheiden beim Forschungsprojekt mitzumachen oder nicht.

Die so gesammelten Daten werden jeweils sofort anonymisiert, indem die Namen durch erfundene Namen ersetzt werden. Alle Daten werden vertraulich behandelt, und nur zu Forschungszwecken verwendet. Elektronischen Daten werden immer passwortgeschützt gespeichert, andere Daten stets verschlossen aufbewahrt.

Die Resultate aus diesem Projekt werden veröffentlicht, dabei wird selbstverständlich darauf geachtet, dass die soweit Daten anonymisiert sind, dass keine Lernenden identifiziert werden können.

Ich bitte Sie, mir mittels beigelegtem Talon mitzuteilen, ob Sie einverstanden sind, dass Ihr Kind an diesem Projekt teilnimmt. Falls Sie dies lieber nicht möchten, kann darauf Rücksicht genommen werden, ohne dass Ihrem Kind daraus Nachteile entstehen. In diesem Fall werden von Ihrem Kind keine Daten gesammelt.

Sie dürfen auch jederzeit während des Projektes darum bitten, keine weiteren Daten mehr zu erheben.

Für Fragen stehe ich jederzeit gerne zur Verfügung.

Ich bitte Sie, den ausgefüllten Talon bis spätestens Montag, XX. 20XX mit beiliegendem Antwortcouvert an mich zurückzusenden.

Für Ihr Mithilfe und Ihr Verständnis danke ich Ihnen herzlich.

Freundliche Grüsse

Name und Vorname des Kindes:

Ich habe / Wir haben die oben stehende Beschreibung des Projektes gelesen und ich bin / wir sind damit einverstanden, dass unser Kind am Projekt teilnimmt. Es darf gefilmt und befragt werden.

Ich bitte / Wir bitten Sie, unser Kind nicht zu filmen.

Datum:

Unterschrift:

6 List of strategies and phrases for the learners

Conversations (replaces p. 9 in *My Resources*)

1) Ein vorgegebenes Gespräch beginnen und beenden

a) beginnen

Let's start!	Beginnen wir!
Do you want to start?	Möchtest du beginnen?
Can I start?	Kann ich beginnen?

b) beenden

I think we're / we've finished.	Ich denke, wir sind fertig.
I think we're done.	Ich denke, wir sind fertig.

2) Zeit zum Überlegen oder Formulieren gewinnen

a) einzelne Füllwörter verwenden

Hmm ...	Hmm ...
Um ...	Ehm ...
Well ...	Na ja ... / Nun ... / Also ...
Well, actually ...	Also, eigentlich ...
Right ...	Also ...
I see ...	Na gut ... / Verstehe ...

b) ganze Chunks verwenden

Let me see ...	Moment ... / Also ...
Let me think ...	Moment ... / Also ...
... you know weisst du ...
How can I say?	Wie kann ich das sagen?
Err, just a second.	Ehm, eine Sekunde / Ehm, einen Moment.
Hang on (a second).	Warte (eine Sekunde).
Give me a second, please.	Eine Sekunde.

3) Wenn du ein Wort nicht weisst

a) ein ähnliches Wort verwenden

b) ein Universalwort verwenden

thing	Ding
stuff	Zeug
... and stuff.	... und so.

c) beschreiben oder ein Beispiel nennen

(It is a) sort of / kind of ...	(Es ist) eine Art ...
... and so on.	... und so weiter.
stuff like that	so was Ähnliches
something like that	so was Ähnliches

d) ein Parallelwort verwenden

d) Gestik und Mimik verwenden

4) Wenn du etwas Kompliziertes erklären musst

a) ein Beispiel machen

for example	zum Beispiel
--------------------	--------------

b) den grösseren Rahmen / Kontext erklären, bevor du etwas detailliert beschreibst

5) Den Partner/die Partnerin um Hilfe bitten

I'm sorry. What are we supposed to do?	Sorry, was müssen wir machen?
What do we have to do?	Was müssen wir machen?

I don't understand.	Ich verstehe das nicht.
I can't follow you.	Ich kann dir nicht folgen.

What does ... mean?	Was heisst ...?
How do you say ... in English?	Wie sagt man ... auf Englisch?
What's ... in English?	Was heisst ... auf Englisch?

Is this right? Is that right?	Ist das richtig?
Is this OK? Is that OK?	Ist das okay?

6) Unklarheiten beheben

a) fragen, ob der Partner / die Partnerin dich verstanden hat

Do you understand?	Verstehst du?
Do you know what I mean? Do you see what I mean?	Weisst du, was ich meine?
Is it OK?	Ist es okay?

b) die letzte Aussage des Partners / der Partnerin wiederholen, um dich zu vergewissern, dass du ihn / sie richtig verstanden hast

You mean ...	Meinst du ...
Is that...?	Ist das ...?

c) um weitere Informationen oder eine erneute Erklärung bitten

What do you mean?	Was meinst du?
What did you say?	Was hast du gesagt?
Could you explain that again?	Kannst du das nochmals erklären?

d) um Wiederholung bitten

Pardon?	Wie bitte?
Sorry?	Wie bitte?
Can you say that again, please? Could you say that again, please?	Kannst du das nochmals sagen? Könntest du das nochmals sagen?
Can you repeat that, please? Could you repeat that, please?	Kannst du das bitte wiederholen? Könntest du das bitte wiederholen?

e) um ein Beispiel bitten

Can you give me an example (of what you mean), please?	Kannst du bitte ein Beispiel geben (dafür, was du meinst)?
---	--

7) Das Gespräch in Gang halten

a) Kommentare oder Ausrufe verwenden, um dem Partner / der Partnerin dein Interesse zu zeigen

Oh.	Oh.
I see.	Ja. / Ich verstehe.
Oh, I see.	Ach so!
(Oh,) yeah?	(Ach,) ja?
(Oh,) really?	(Ach,) wirklich? / Echt?
Really? (That's interesting.)	Wirklich? (Das ist interessant.)
You're kidding.	Du machst Witze.
I don't believe it!	Unglaublich!
Right.	Okay. / In Ordnung. / Richtig.
Yes, that's right.	Ja, das stimmt. / Ja, das ist richtig.
Exactly.	Genau.
Yes, that's it.	Ja, genau.
Absolutely.	Genau.
I agree.	Einverstanden.
Wow!	Wow!
That's good.	Das ist super. / Das ist gut.
That's very good.	Das ist sehr gut.
(Oh,) that's great.	(Oh,) das ist super.
That's really great.	Das ist wirklich grossartig!
Good idea!	Gute Idee!
Excellent!	Ausgezeichnet!
Brilliant!	Toll!
Fantastic!	Fantastisch!
Awesome!	Der Hammer!
That's amazing.	Das ist verblüffend.
Gosh!	Meine Güte!
Oh dear!	Oje!
Oh, that's terrible.	Oh, das ist schrecklich.
That's dreadful.	Das ist grässlich.

Yeah, I guess so.	Ja, ich denke schon.
No, I guess not.	Nein, ich denke nicht.

b) Die letzte Aussage des Partners / der Partnerin wiederholen, um zu zeigen, dass du ihm / ihr folgst

c) Den Partner / die Partnerin zum Sprechen auffordern

Really? Why?	Echt? Warum? / Wirklich? Warum?
Why?	Warum?
When?	Wann?
Where?	Wo?
Who?	Wer?

And you?	Und du?
What do you think?	Was denkst du?
And what about ...? / And how about ...?	Und wie ist es mit ... ? / Und ...?
Do you agree?	Bist du einverstanden?

d) eine Aussage des Partners / der Partnerin vervollständigen: ein englisches Wort geben oder einen angefangenen Satz der Partnerin des Partners beenden

Working with a partner

That's easy.	Das ist einfach.
This is difficult.	Das ist schwierig.
No, this is wrong.	Nein, das ist falsch.
That doesn't work.	Das funktioniert nicht.
Never mind!	Macht nichts!
Stop it!	Genug!
I like ...	Ich mag ...
I don't like ...	Ich mag nicht ...

7 Feedback sheet

Individual feedback for (name of learner)



Great, continue using the following strategies:



Next time, try the following strategies:

Useful chunks:

8 Teachers' written feedback notes

Numbers refer to those indicated in Appendix 3 'Initial categories of strategies'.

1C

gut

1) Gespräch beginnen und beenden

zu verbessern

2a+b) Zeit gewinnen

7b) Kommentare

1D

1) Gespräch beginnen und beenden

3d) Gestik (ex: quiet, 2)

7a-c)

6b-c)

zu verbessern

3c)

1E

gut

7b) Aussage wiederholen

7d) Aussage vervollständigen

3c) Wort beschreiben

3d) Parallelwort

zu verbessern

5) um Hilfe bitten anstatt deutsches Wort benutzen

7a) Kommentare „I see“

1F

gut

7d) Aussage vervollständigen

3e) Mimik und Gestik (bird in your head, 2 days, strong)

3d) Parallelwort

1G

gut

7a) Kommentare „that sounds great!“

3e) Mimik/ Gestik

6b) Aussage wiederholen

4a) Bsp. machen (cat is a pet)

zu verbessern

6c) weitere Informationen

2b) let me think

1H

gut

1) Gespräch beginnen und beenden

7a) Kommentare „Ok, 2 sofas!“

3e) Mimik/ Gestik

zu verbessern

7d) Satz vervollständigen

6c) weitere Informationen

(Note by researcher:

Some of the above do not correlate with what the teacher actually said!)

1IJ

Allgemein

- Sprachlich können sich die Jungs noch nicht gut ausdrücken.

- Sie sind unkonzentriert und nicht immer bei der Sache

- keiner übernimmt die Verantwortung

1I

gut

1) Gespräch beginnen und beenden

zu verbessern

2a)

7a)

7c)

1J

1) Gespräch beginnen und beenden

zu verbessern

2b)

7a)

7c)

2A

Was du schon **gut** machst!

- Du beginnst das Gespräch und bist aktiv
- Du zeigst deinem Partner mit Gesten und Mimik, dass du ihm zuhörst (z.B. Kopfnicken, Augenkontakt)
- Gute Sätze: I like... / I don't like... / I want to do... / No, I don't want.. / Homework is good for... / What do you make?
- Du hilfst deinem Partner mit Wörtern, die du kennst
- Du hast wirklich diskutiert und ausgehandelt wegen den Hausaufgaben

Versuche **nächstes Mal** folgende Strategien:

- Wenn Du ein Wort nicht weißt, beschreibe es (it is very big and it looks like...) oder nenne ein Beispiel (for example a Ferrari or a Subaru)
- Das Gespräch beenden (I think we have finished / I think we're done)

Hilfreiches:

- What do we have to do? (Was müssen wir machen?)
- I don't understand (Ich verstehe das nicht)
- What's in English? (Was heisst auf Englisch?)

2B

Was du schon **gut** machst!

- Du reagierst auf deinen Partner und fragst nach, wenn du nicht sicher bist, was er gesagt hat
- Wenn der Auftrag nicht klar ist, versuchst du das zu klären (*Deutsch/Englisch*)
- Du hast wirklich diskutiert und ausgehandelt wegen den Hausaufgaben

Versuche **nächstes Mal** folgende Strategien:

- Beginne Du mit dem Gespräch (Let's start / Do you want to start? / Can I start?)
- Wenn Du ein Wort nicht weißt, beschreibe es (it is very big and it looks like...) oder nenne ein Beispiel (for example a Ferrari or a Subaru)

Hilfreiches:

- What do we have to do? (Was müssen wir machen?)
- I don't understand (Ich verstehe das nicht)
- What's in English? (Was heisst auf Englisch?)

2C

Was du schon **gut** machst!

- Du zeigst deinem Partner mit Gesten und Mimik, dass du ihm zuhörst (z.B. Kopfnicken und „o.k.“, Augenkontakt, lachen)
- Gute Sätze: „I wasn't!“; „Are you finished?“

Versuche **nächstes Mal** folgende Strategien:

- Nimm dir **Zeit für die Vorbereitung** und **notiere dir möglichst viele Sätze**.
- **Beginne** du mit dem Gespräch (z.B. Are you ready? / Can I start? / I'd like to start!)
- **Gewinne Zeit zum Ueberlegen** und Formulieren, indem du sogenannte „chunks“ verwendest, z. B. Let me think... / How can I say? / Give me a second, please.

Hilfreiches:

- **Who = Wer?** (z.B. Who is that man? It's Roger Federer)
- **Where = Wo?** (z.B. Where are you? I'm in the toilet!)

2D

Was du schon **gut** machst!

- Du beginnst das Gespräch und fragst „Do you want to start?“
- Du zeigst deinem Partner mit Gesten und Mimik, dass du ihm zuhörst (z.B. Kopfnicken und „ah, interesting“, Augenkontakt, lachen)
- Gute Sätze: „I was in ...“; „Why do you make music?“; „Are you finished?“

Versuche **nächstes Mal** folgende Strategien:

- Nimm dir **Zeit für die Vorbereitung** und **notiere dir möglichst viele Sätze**.
- Bitte deinen Gesprächspartner um **Wiederholung**, wenn du ihn nicht verstehst (Can you say that again, please? / Sorry?).
- **Fordere deinen Partner zum Sprechen auf** mit Sätzen wie: „What do you think?“ oder „And you?“.

Hilfreiches:

- **Wiederhole** ab und zu **die Aussagen deines Partners**, um zu zeigen, dass du ihm folgst und damit er merkt, ob du ihn richtig verstanden hast.

2E

Was du schon **gut** machst!

- Auf die Vorschläge deines Partners reagierst du mit Füllwörter wie „mmmh“ und zeigst, dass du dir sein Angebot überlegst.
- Gute Fragesätze, wie „Can I borrow your bike, please?“ oder „Do you want....?“

Versuche **nächstes Mal** folgende Strategien:

- Beginne das Gespräch erst, wenn du wirklich gut vorbereitet bist und dir der Auftrag ganz klar ist (alles lesen!).
- Halte das Gespräch aufrecht, indem du ausführlicher antwortest oder deinerseits weitere Fragen stellst und dich nicht schnell mit einer Einigung zufrieden gibst.
- Du darfst das Thema auch ausbauen und selber weiter entwickeln.

Hilfreiches/Zusätzliches:

- Wenn niemand das Gespräch beginnen will, dann macht ihr das mit „Schere, Stein, Papier“ aus.
- Challenge: Ihr seid nicht die erste Gruppe, die mit dem Gespräch fertig ist!

2F

Was du schon **gut** machst!

- Auf die Vorschläge deines Partners reagierst du mit Füllwörter wie „mmmh“ und zeigst, dass du dir sein Angebot überlegst.
- Gute Antwortsätze mit Begründung, wie „No, my bike is bigger and the tennis racket is *mini!*“

Versuche **nächstes Mal** folgende Strategien:

- Beginne das Gespräch erst, wenn du wirklich gut vorbereitet bist und dir der Auftrag ganz klar ist (alles lesen!).
- Wenn du ein Wort nicht weißt, verwende einen ähnlichen Ausdruck oder umschreibe. Z.B. „zusammen“ => „You and me!“ oder „We two“.
- Unterstütze deine Umschreibung allenfalls mit Gesten.

Hilfreiches/Zusätzliches:

- Wenn niemand das Gespräch beginnen will, dann macht ihr das mit „Schere, Stein, Papier“ aus.

-Challenge: Ihr seid nicht die erste Gruppe, die mit dem Gespräch fertig ist!

2I

Was du schon **gut** machst!

- Du beginnst das Gespräch
- Du zeigst deinem Partner mit deiner Mimik, dass du ihm zuhörst (z.B. Kopfnicken, Augenkontakt, lachen)
- Fragesätze (z.B. What do you...?)

Versuche **nächstes Mal** folgende Strategien:

- **Antworte** nie nur mit „yes/no“, sondern **erweitere** mit „Yes, that’s correct. I like it!“; „No, I don’t like that, because...“
- **Gewinne Zeit zum Ueberlegen** und Formulieren, indem du sogenannte „chunks“ verwendest, z. B. Let me think... / How can I say? / Give me a second, please.
- **Beende das Gespräch** offiziell (I think we have finished!; Are we finished?).

Hilfreiches:

- Why = warum (Why do you eat spaghetti?)
- Because = weil (Because I am hungry!)

2J

Was du schon **gut** machst!

- Du zeigst deinem Partner, dass du ihm zuhörst (z.B. Kopfnicken, Augenkontakt, lachen)
- Fragesätze (z.B. What’s your favourite song/film?)

Versuche **nächstes Mal** folgende Strategien:

- **Beginne** du mit dem Gespräch (Are you ready? / Can I start? / I’d like to start! / Do you want to start?)
- Wenn du ein englisches Wort nicht weißt, dann **umschreibe** das Wort („Jugi“ – it’s a hotel for young people; „Tambour“ – it’s like the drums)
- **Fordere deinen Partner zum Sprechen auf** mit Sätzen wie „What do you think?“, „And you?“ oder „Can you give me an example?“

Hilfreiches:

- Why = warum (Why do you eat spaghetti?)
- Because = weil (Because I am hungry!)

9 Conclusions drawn from trial

9.1 Recording devices

Recording with learners' mobile phones is not suitable as only one person can be seen. Tablet and computer: sound quality is not sufficient when there is too much background noise. > Other recording devices are needed.

9.2 Feedback for learners

- Teacher listened to recording three times to give feedback.
- Providing the feedback takes about 10 minutes for two learners.
- Suggestion by Teacher A: Give complete list of strategies to learners as overview and only highlight what seems suitable (green and orange).
- Danger of mix-up of comprehension check and confirmation check.
- Should differentiate between strategies they did not use at all and those they wanted to use but lacked the words for.
- Phrases on feedback sheet should be translated. > list of strategies and phrases for the real project.
- It was much easier for teachers to capture communication strategies from video than from audio. > Having video recordings for the teachers is essential.
- I am permitted to use teacher A's feedback for training.

9.3 Recall and interview

Worked well.

9.4 Tasks

Used in trial: Tasks 6, 9 and a third one which was not used in this project.

Conclusions drawn from the trial:

- Some learners are not used to having instructions in German. German keywords might be confusing for learners as some of them state that having English trigger words is easier for them and they do not normally work with German trigger words. Learners ask if they are required to translate all the keywords to English. > Write that they should note keywords they think will be helpful in the interaction. > For the research project, ask the teachers to look at the task instruction sheets and adapt the instructions to what their learners are used to.
- Learners take hardly any notes during preparation. Preparation normally only takes 5 minutes. In the instructions it says 10 minutes. > shorten this.
- It seems important learners do prepare individually and do not talk during preparation time. Additionally, they should not note complete sentences.
- Task 6: Add: 'was wie lange und unter welchen Bedingungen ausleihen' instead of only: 'findet eine gute Lösung'.
- In general, the topics work well.
- If possible, do not indicate who should start speaking as this may suggest a specific kind of turn-taking.

9.5 Transcribing data

- Transcript: It was much easier to capture communication strategies from video than from audio.
 - Hesitation markers were all transcribed with German conventions.
- > After trying various options, it was decided to transcribe the recordings in EXMARaLDA's Partitur Editor (Schmidt and Wörner, 2014), relevant passages from the recall interviews in an additional tier, and use EXMARaLDA for the analysis.

10 Tasks

The following are based on test tasks in 'lingualevel' (Lenz and Studer, 2008).

10.1 Steckbriefe für die Website

Material

- *My Resources*

Vorbereitung

- Lies dieses Blatt genau durch.
- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur *My Resources* erlaubt.
- Du darfst auch keine Stichwörter notieren.
- Du musst dich allein auf das Gespräch vorbereiten.
- Für die Vorbereitung hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Situation

Deine Klasse will sich auf der Schul-Website auf Englisch präsentieren, weil sie mit Klassen aus der ganzen Welt Kontakt sucht. Jede Schülerin und jeder Schüler soll mit einem Steckbrief vorgestellt werden. Niemand soll über sich selbst schreiben, sondern über eine Kollegin oder einen Kollegen. Zuerst müsst ihr einander **interviewen** um für den Steckbrief genug zu erfahren.

Auftrag

Fragt einander, was ihr wissen möchtet, um nachher einen Steckbrief schreiben zu können.

Wechselt euch beim Fragen und Antworten ab.

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte (A oder B)**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Hinweise

Natürlich ist es gut, wenn man korrekt spricht.

Das Wichtigste ist aber, dass ihr einander wirklich etwas sagt.

Durchführung

Setzt euch so an einen Tisch, dass ihr gut miteinander reden könnt.

Löst die Aufgabe selbstständig.

Die Lehrerin/der Lehrer schaut nur, dass ihr die Aufgabe richtig verstanden habt, diskutiert aber nicht mit.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch

Dauer: ca. 5 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A

- Schau auf dem Interviewblatt unten, welche Informationen du schon hast und welche dir noch fehlen. Frage deine Interviewpartnerin/deinen Interviewpartner, was du noch wissen musst (alle ?).
- Beantworte die Fragen, die dir gestellt werden, möglichst gut. Hinweise

Hinweise

- Verschiedene Fragen sind vorgegeben (z.B. Name), aber du musst auch mindestens eine eigene Frage stellen ().
- Viele Informationen stehen schon da (z.B. die Telefonnummer), danach brauchst du nicht mehr zu fragen.
- Wechselt euch mit Fragen und Antworten ab.
- Bitte bei der Vorbereitung keine Notizen machen.
- Du beginnst das Gespräch.

Interviewblatt:

name of your interview partner	...?
number, street	...?
telephone	056 483 34 96
birthday	...?
family	2 sisters
other languages	...?
food	pizza + ...?
animals	dogs
favourite sports	skiing + ...?
music	guitar
PC, TV	...?
holidays, other countries	...?
friends	...?
.....	...?

Aufgabenkarte B

- Schau auf dem Interviewblatt unten, welche Informationen du schon hast und welche dir noch fehlen. Frage deine Interviewpartnerin/deinen Interviewpartner, was du noch wissen musst (alle ?).
- Beantworte die Fragen, die dir gestellt werden, möglichst gut. Hinweise

Hinweise

- Verschiedene Fragen sind vorgegeben (z.B. Name), aber du musst auch mindestens eine eigene Frage stellen ().
- Viele Informationen stehen schon da (z.B. der Geburtstag), danach brauchst du nicht mehr zu fragen.
- Wechselt euch mit Fragen und Antworten ab.
- Bitte bei der Vorbereitung keine Notizen machen.
- Du beginnst das Gespräch.

Interviewblatt:

name of your interview partner	...?
telephone	...?
birthday	25 th January
family	...?
other languages	English + ...?
food	ice cream + ...?
animals	...?
favourite sports	football
music	...?
PC, TV, film	Harry Potter + ...?
holidays, other countries	Italy
friends	...?
.....	...?

10.2 Einen Aufenthalt in Schottland planen

Material

- Schreibzeug
- Coursebook S. 6
- My Resources
- Bilder
- Aufgabenkarte (Rückseite)

Situation

Im nächsten Juni könnt ihr das Klassenlager zusammen mit eurer englischen Partnerklasse in Schottland verbringen. Ihr beginnt gerade mit der Planung. Eure Lehrerin/euer Lehrer hat Bilder und Informationen mitgebracht von verschiedenen Sehenswürdigkeiten und möglichen Aktivitäten. Ihr findet diese auf Seite 6 in eurem coursebook.

Vorbereitung (EA)

- Lies dieses Blatt genau durch.
- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur My Resources erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung kannst du auf der Aufgabenkarte (auf der Rückseite) Stichwörter notieren, ein Wörterbuch ist aber nicht erlaubt. Achtung: Du darfst keine ganzen Sätze aufschreiben, sondern wirklich nur einzelne Wörter als Hilfen.
- Du musst dich alleine auf das Gespräch vorbereiten.
- Für die Vorbereitung hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Schaut euch die verschiedenen Bilder und die Texte an und macht Vorschläge für die Gestaltung von zwei Vor- und zwei Nachmittagen. Einigt euch auf das beste Programm. Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch
Dauer: ca. 5 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A + B

Teil 1

Deine Vorschläge für die zwei Tage:

Erkläre deiner Gesprächspartnerin/deinem Gesprächspartner deine Vorschläge für Mittwoch und Donnerstag.

Deine Stichwörter:

	Morning	Afternoon
Wednesday	Activity / Sight:	Activity / Sight:
	Why?	Why?
Thursday	Activity / Sight:	Activity / Sight:
	Why?	Why?

Teil 2

Diskussion und Entscheidung:

Macht einen gemeinsamen Plan für die zwei Tage.

- Begründet eure eigenen Vorschläge gut. Verteidigt sie.
- Am Schluss solltet ihr euch aber auf einen (guten) Plan einigen.

Euer gemeinsamer Vorschlag:

	Morning	Afternoon
Wednesday
Thursday

10.3 Hunde und Katzen

Material

- Schreibzeug
- Aufgabenkarte A oder B
- *My Resources*

Situation

Für Menschen in verschiedenen Ländern und Kulturen bedeuten Tiere manchmal etwas ganz anderes. Was in der einen Kultur ein treuer Freund ist, wird in einer anderen Kultur einfach gegessen, zum Beispiel Katzen und Hunde. Du kommst mit einer/einem Gleichaltrigen über Hunde und Katzen ins Gespräch.

Vorbereitung (EA)

- Lies dieses Blatt genau durch.
- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur *My Resources* erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung kannst du auf der Aufgabenkarte Stichwörter notieren, ein Wörterbuch ist aber nicht erlaubt. Achtung: Du darfst keine ganzen Sätze aufschreiben, sondern wirklich nur einzelne Wörter als Hilfen.
- Du musst dich alleine auf das Gespräch vorbereiten.
- Für die Vorbereitung hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

1) Teilt einander mit, was ihr Katzen und Hunden gegenüber für Gefühle habt.

2) Diskutiert dann über die Vor- und Nachteile von Katzen und Hunden als Haustiere.

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte (A oder B)**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Hinweise

Natürlich ist es gut, wenn man korrekt spricht.

Das Wichtigste ist aber, dass ihr wirklich miteinander sprecht und aufeinander eingeht.

Durchführung

Setzt euch so an einen Tisch, dass ihr gut miteinander reden könnt.

Löst die Aufgabe selbstständig.

Die Lehrerin/der Lehrer schaut nur, dass ihr die Aufgabe richtig verstanden habt, diskutiert aber nicht mit.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch

Dauer: ca. 10 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A

Teil 1 Hunde, Katzen und du



Was hast du für Gefühle gegenüber Hunden und Katzen?

1. Magst du Hunde und Katzen?
Was gefällt dir besonders an ihnen, was nicht?
Was bedeuten sie dir ganz persönlich?
2. Was sind schöne, was sind hässliche Hunde und Katzen?

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

- **Beschreibe deiner Partnerin/deinem Partner deine Gefühle gegenüber Hunden und Katzen. Du beginnst mit Punkt 1.
Beantworte Fragen.**
- **Höre dann zu, was deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner zu den Punkten 1 und 2 sagt.
Stelle mindestens zwei Fragen dazu.**
- **Sag dann etwas über Punkt 2 und beantworte Fragen.**

Teil 2
Gespräch: Hunde und Katzen als Haustiere

- Welche Vor- und Nachteile haben Hunde und Katzen als Haustiere?

	Hunde	Katzen
Vorteile		
Nachteile/ Probleme		

Hinweise

- Diskutiert die Vor- und Nachteile miteinander und einigt euch auf den wichtigsten Vor- und Nachteil bei jedem Tier.

Du Darfst Stichwörter (keine Sätze) notieren und beim Sprechen brauchen.

Aufgabenkarte B

Teil 1 Hunde, Katzen und du



Was hast du für Gefühle gegenüber Hunden und Katzen?

1. Magst du Hunde und Katzen?
Was gefällt dir besonders an ihnen, was nicht?
Was bedeuten sie dir ganz persönlich?
2. Was sind schöne, was sind hässliche Hunde und Katzen?

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

- Höre zu, was deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner zum Punkt 1 sagt.
Stelle mindestens zwei Fragen dazu.
- Teile deiner Partnerin/deinem Partner mit, was du zu den Punkten 1 und 2 zu sagen hast. Beantworte Fragen.
- Höre dann zu, was deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner über Punkt 2 sagt.
Stelle Fragen, wenn du willst.

Teil 2
Gespräch: Hunde und Katzen als Haustiere

- Welche Vor- und Nachteile haben Hunde und Katzen als Haustiere?

	Hunde	Katzen
Vorteile		
Nachteile/ Probleme		

Hinweise

- Diskutiert die Vor- und Nachteile miteinander und einigt euch auf den wichtigsten Vor- und Nachteil bei jedem Tier.

Du Darfst Stichwörter (keine Sätze) notieren und beim Sprechen brauchen.

10.4 Hausaufgaben

Material

- Schreibzeug
- My Resources
- Aufgabenkarte

Situation

Hausaufgaben sind wohl fast überall ein Gesprächsthema unter Schülerinnen und Schülern. Deshalb ist es wichtig, dass man auch auf Englisch etwas dazu sagen kann. Ausserdem interessiert sich eure Englischlehrerin/euer Englischlehrer wirklich dafür, was ihr zu diesem Thema zu sagen habt.

Vorbereitung (EA)

- Lies dieses Blatt genau durch.
- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur My Resources erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung kannst du auf der Aufgabenkarte (auf der Rückseite) Stichwörter notieren, ein Wörterbuch ist aber nicht erlaubt. Achtung: Du darfst keine ganzen Sätze aufschreiben, sondern wirklich nur einzelne Wörter als Hilfen.
- Du musst dich alleine auf das Gespräch vorbereiten.
- Für die Vorbereitung hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Informiert darüber, wie viel Hausaufgaben ihr macht, was ihr lieber oder weniger gern macht und ob ihr Hausaufgaben überhaupt eine gute Sache findet.

Diskutiert dann über Hausaufgaben und macht der Lehrerin/dem Lehrer drei Vorschläge in Bezug auf die Hausaufgaben.

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Hinweis

Natürlich ist es gut, wenn man korrekt spricht.

Das Wichtigste ist aber, dass ihr wirklich miteinander diskutiert und schliesslich eure Vorschläge formuliert.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch und den Vorschlägen für die Lehrerin/den Lehrer

Dauer: ca. 10 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A + B

Teil 1

Du und die Hausaufgaben

Berichte deiner Gesprächspartnerin/deinem Gesprächspartner über die folgenden Punkte:

- Wie viel Zeit wendest du auf für Hausaufgaben?
- Welche Hausaufgaben machst du gern – welche weniger gern?
- Findest du Hausaufgaben etwas Gutes und Nützliches (= useful)?

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Teil 2

Diskutiert über Hausaufgaben:

- Was soll man zu hause machen müssen, was nicht?
- Wie viel Hausaufgaben soll es geben?

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Macht der Lehrperson dazu einen gemeinsamen Vorschlag (auf Englisch):

Was?

.....

Was nicht?

.....

Wie viel?

.....

10.5 Über seine Interessen Auskunft geben

Material

- Schreibzeug
- My Resources
- Aufgabenkarte

Situation

Weil deine Klasse mit Schulklassen in verschiedenen Ländern in Kontakt ist, macht sie immer wieder etwas auf Englisch für die Schulwebsite. Diesmal wollt ihr die Schülersteckbriefe, die ihr schon im Netz habt, etwas ergänzen: Ihr wollt kurze Texte über Dinge schreiben, die euch besonders wichtig sind. Ihr schreibt aber nicht über euch selbst, sondern über jemand anderen. Um genug von den anderen zu erfahren, führt ihr im Englischunterricht Interviewgespräche durch und nehmt sie auf.

Vorbereitung (PA): 3 Minuten

- Entscheidet: Worüber wollt ihr sprechen?
- Jede Schülerin/jeder Schüler wählt aus der Liste links zwei Themen aus, die sie/ihn besonders interessieren. Kreuze deine Themen und die Themen deines Partners/deiner Partnerin an.

Hinweis

Wählt nicht dieselben Themen aus. Im Notfall darf aber eines gleich sein.

Deine Themen:	Themen deiner Partnerin/deines Partners:
Lesen: Bücher und Magazine	Lesen: Bücher und Magazine
Sport	Sport
Musik	Musik
TV-Sendungen und Filme	TV-Sendungen und Filme
Geld und Einkaufen	Geld und Einkaufen
Reisen und Ferien	Reisen und Ferien

Vorbereitung (EA): 10 Minuten

- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur My Resources erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung darfst du Stichwörter notieren.
- Du bereitest dich alleine auf das Gespräch vor.
- Für die Vorbereitung verwendest du die Aufgabenkarte.
- Für die Vorbereitung auf das Gespräch hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Interviewt euch gegenseitig zu zwei Themen, die jeder selbst auswählt.
Befragt einander gründlich und spricht ausführlich darüber.
Wechselt euch nach jedem Thema ab.

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Hinweis

- Natürlich ist es gut, wenn man korrekt spricht. Das Wichtigste ist aber, dass ihr wirklich miteinander diskutiert.
- Höre genau auf die Antworten. Reagiere und stelle weitere Fragen.
- Wechselt nach jedem Thema ab: Einmal stellst du die Fragen, dann deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner, dann wieder du.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch

Dauer: ca. 15 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A + B

Fragen stellen

Stelle deiner Gesprächspartnerin/deinem Gesprächspartner gute Fragen zu den zwei Themen, die sie oder er gewählt hat.

Denk dran: Du willst erfahren, was deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner in Bezug auf dieses Thema wirklich tut, denkt und fühlt.

Deine Stichwörter zu den Fragen

Thema 1

.....

Thema 2

.....

Antworten geben

Gib deiner Interviewpartnerin/deinem Interviewpartner genau Auskunft über die Themen, die du gewählt hast.

Was genau?

Wann? Wie viel?

Thema 1:

.....

Warum?

Gefühle?

..... ?

Was genau?

Wann? Wie viel?

Thema 2:

.....

Warum?

Gefühle?

..... ?

10.6 Etwas ausleihen

Material

- Schreibzeug
- Aufgabenkarte A oder B
- *My Resources*

Situation

Ein Campingplatz im Wallis. viele Menschen aus verschiedenen Ländern sind da und reden ab und zu miteinander. Schwieriger wird es, wenn man Sachen voneinander ausleihen möchte. Eine Jugendliche/ein Jugendlicher versucht es auf Englisch.

Vorbereitung (EA): 10 Min.

- Lies dieses Blatt genau durch.
- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur *My Resources* erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung kannst du auf der Aufgabenkarte Stichwörter notieren, ein Wörterbuch ist aber nicht erlaubt. Achtung: Du darfst keine ganzen Sätze aufschreiben, sondern wirklich nur einzelne Wörter als Hilfen.
- Du musst dich alleine auf das Gespräch vorbereiten.
- Für die Vorbereitung hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Sprecht miteinander und einigt euch, wer was wie lange brauchen darf, und unter welchen Bedingungen.

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte (A oder B)**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch

Dauer: ca. 10 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A

Du möchtest von deiner Gesprächspartnerin/deinem Gesprächspartner aus dem Zelt nebenan für einen Tag das Mountainbike ausleihen.

Beginne das Gespräch. Grüsse, sei freundlich.

- Bring das Gespräch auf das Mountainbike.
- Frag, ob du es für einen Tag ausleihen darfst (= to borrow)

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Hör zu und reagiere.

- Biete deinen MP3-Player an. Dine Partnerin/dein Partner steigt nicht auf das Angebot ein.
- Finde Argumente. Bleibe hartnäckig.

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

- **Diskutiert und findet eine gute Lösung.**
- **Schliesse das Gespräch ab.**

Du darfst Stichwörter (keine Sätze) notieren und beim Sprechen brauchen.

Aufgabenkarte B

Deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner aus dem Zelt nebenan möchte für einen ganzen Tag dein neues Mountainbike ausleihen (= to borrow).

Sie/er beginnt das Gespräch. Du hörst zu und reagierst.

- Du möchtest das Bike lieber nicht geben. Sag, warum nicht.

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Du machst ein Angebot: Du bist einverstanden, wenn du dafür für zwei Tage lang den teuren Tennisschläger (= racket) des anderen haben kannst..

- Deine Partnerin/dein Partner bietet etwas anderes an.
- Du bist damit (vorerst?) nicht zufrieden. Argumentiere. Gib nicht gleich nach.

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

- **Diskutiert und findet eine gute Lösung.**

10.7 Ordnung im Klassenzimmer

Material

- Schreibzeug
- My Resources
- Aufgabenkarte

Situation

Eure Englischlehrerin/euer Englischlehrer möchte, dass ihr Vorschläge für die Einrichtung des Klassenzimmers macht und Regeln vorschlagt, wie man sich in der Klasse verhalten soll.

Vorbereitung (EA): 10 Minuten

- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur My Resources erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung darfst du Stichwörter notieren.
- Du bereitest dich alleine auf das Gespräch vor.
- Für die Vorbereitung verwendest du die Aufgabenkarte.
- Für die Vorbereitung auf das Gespräch hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Überlegt euch, wie ihr das Zimmer einrichten würdet und welche Verhaltensregeln für euch wichtig sind.

**Informiert einander über eure Vorschläge und diskutiert dann. Einigt euch auf die Zimmereinrichtung und die wichtigsten Regeln.
Macht konkrete Vorschläge.**

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch

Dauer: ca. 10 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A + B

Teil 1

Wie soll die Einrichtung des Klassenzimmers sein?

- Erzähle deiner Gesprächspartnerin/deinem Gesprächspartner von deinen Vorstellungen.
- Diskutiert eure verschiedenen Ideen und einigt euch auf 3 gemeinsame Vorschläge.

Deine Stichwörter:

- Sitzen:

.....

- Lesecke?

.....

-

.....

Teil 2

Welche Regeln sollen im Klassenzimmer gelten?

- Informiere deine Gesprächspartnerin/deinen Gesprächspartner über deine Vorschläge.
- Diskutiert die Vorschläge und einigt euch auf drei wichtigsten Regeln.

Deine Stichwörter:

- Ämter: Tafel putzen Wie lange?

.....

- Essen und Trinken im Zimmer?

.....

- Handy?

.....

-

.....

10.8 Den letzten Tag in New York planen

Material

- Schreibzeug
- Coursebook S. 65 – 75
- *My Resources*

Situation

Ihr plant euren letzten Tag in New York. Du willst die anderen überzeugen, deine ausgewählte Sehenswürdigkeit zu besuchen.

Vorbereitung (GA Expertengruppe): 10 Min.

- Bei der Vorbereitung dürft ihr My Resources und das Coursebook verwenden.
- Bei der Vorbereitung darfst du Stichwörter notieren.
- Du bereitest dich in der Expertengruppe auf das Gespräch vor.
- Für die Vorbereitung verwendest du die Aufgabenkarte.
- Für die Vorbereitung auf das Gespräch habt ihr 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Informiert einander über eure Sehenswürdigkeit und diskutiert dann. Einigt euch auf eine Sehenswürdigkeit und zwei andere Aktivitäten, die ihr am letzten Tag in New York machen wollt.

Macht konkrete Vorschläge.

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch

Dauer: ca. 10 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte Expertengruppe

Überzeugt die anderen von eurer Sehenswürdigkeit

Ihr habe alle die gleiche Sehenswürdigkeit studiert. Nun wollt ihr eure Kolleginnen und Kollegen davon überzeugen, am letzten Tag eures Aufenthaltes in New York diese zu besuchen.

Wie überzeugt ihr sie am besten?

Als Hilfe beantworte in der Gruppe die folgenden Fragen:

- Why is your sight interesting?
- What could you do there?
- Is there a fact that shows that your sight is very special?

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

Überlegt euch zwei weitere Aktivitäten für diesen Tag

Ihr habt schon viel über New York gehört. Welche anderen Aktivitäten (z.B. Restaurant, Taxi, Skyscraper, Subway, ...) möchtet ihr an diesem Tag noch machen?

Deine Stichwörter:

.....

.....

.....

Aufgabenkarte A + B

Deine Vorschläge für den letzten Tag

Erkläre deiner Gesprächspartnerin/deinem Gesprächspartner deine Vorschläge.
Begründe deine Vorschläge gut. Verteidige sie.

Diskussion

Diskutiert eure Vorschläge und einigt euch auf einen gemeinsamen Plan für den letzten Tag. Gebt nicht zu schnell nach!

Sehenswürdigkeit:

Aktivität 1:

Aktivität 2:

10.9 Stadt und Land

Material

- Schreibzeug
- Aufgabenkarte A oder B
- *My Resources*

Situation

In anderen Ländern gibt es viel grössere Städte und viel ländlichere Gegenden als in der Schweiz. Sind Grsstadtmenchen eigentlich anders als solche aus kleinen Dörfern? Und wo lebt man besser? Du kommst in den Ferien mit einer/einem Gleichaltrigen darüber ins Gespräch.

Vorbereitung (EA): 10 Min.

- Lies dieses Blatt genau durch.
- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur *My Resources* erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung kannst du auf der Aufgabenkarte Stichwörter notieren, ein Wörterbuch ist aber nicht erlaubt. Achtung: Du darfst keine ganzen Sätze aufschreiben, sondern wirklich nur einzelne Wörter als Hilfen.
- Du musst dich alleine auf das Gespräch vorbereiten.
- Für die Vorbereitung hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Beschreibt einander, wo ihr wohnt und wie es dort aussieht. Überlegt dann zusammen, was die Vor- und Nachteile von städtischem und von ländlichem Leben sind. Wo lebt man besser?

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte (A oder B)**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch
Dauer: ca. 10 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A

Teil 1

Picture of a town

Erzähle, wie deine Stadt (Bild) aussieht, was es dort alles gibt, wie man dort lebt.

- Was man nicht sieht, erfindest du dazu.

Deine Stichwörter:

- Häusern, Strassen, Verkehr usw.

.....
.....

- Schule, Kino, Geschäften usw.

.....
.....

-Natur, Luft usw.

.....
.....

-

.....
.....

Teil 2

Sammelt und diskutiert zusammen Vor- und Nachteile des Lebens in der Stadt und auf dem Land.

	Stadt	Land
Vorteile
Nachteile

Einigt euch gemeinsam:

- Wo lebt man besser: In der Stadt oder auf dem Land?
- Wichtigster Grund für eure Entscheidung?

Aufgabenkarte B

Teil 1



Erzähle, wie deine Stadt (Bild) aussieht, was es dort alles gibt, wie man dort lebt.

- Was man nicht sieht, erfindest du dazu.

Deine Stichwörter:

- Häusern, Strassen, Verkehr usw.

.....
.....

- Schule, Kino, Geschäften usw.

.....
.....

-Natur, Luft usw.

.....
.....

-

.....
.....

Teil 2

Sammelt und diskutiert zusammen Vor- und Nachteile des Lebens in der Stadt und auf dem Land.

	Stadt	Land
Vorteile	
Nachteile	

Einigt euch gemeinsam:

- Wo lebt man besser: In der Stadt oder auf dem Land?
- Wichtigster Grund für eure Entscheidung?

10.10 Eine Expedition planen

Material

- Schreibzeug
- My Resources
- Aufgabenkarte
- Coursebook S. 86-87, eventuell S. 88-89.

Situation

Ihr habt James Cook kennengelernt. Stellt euch vor, ihr lebt selber im 18. Jahrhundert und plant eine Expedition. Überlegt euch, wohin eure Reise euch führen soll und wie ihr dorthin reist. Welchen Herausforderungen werdet ihr auf eurer Reise begegnen und mit welchen Mitteln wollt ihr diese meistern?

Du und deine Gesprächspartnerin / dein Gesprächspartner einigen sich auf eine Reise und das Reisegepäck.

Vorbereitung (EA): 10 Minuten

- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel My Resources und das Coursebook erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung darfst du Stichwörter notieren.
- Du bereitest dich alleine auf das Gespräch vor.
- Für die Vorbereitung verwendest du die Aufgabenkarte.
- Für die Vorbereitung auf das Gespräch hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Überlegt euch, wohin die Reise führen soll und wie ihr dorthin reisen wollt. Was muss alles organisiert werden? Wer übernimmt welche Aufgaben?

Zuerst überlegt ihr allein, dann tauscht ihr eure Ideen aus und entscheidet. Macht konkrete Vorschläge.

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Hinweis

- Natürlich ist es gut, wenn man korrekt spricht. Das Wichtigste ist aber, dass ihr wirklich miteinander diskutiert.
- Höre genau auf die Antworten. Reagiere und stelle weitere Fragen.
- Wechselt nach jedem Thema ab: Einmal stellst du die Fragen, dann deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner, dann wieder du.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch

Dauer: ca. 10 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A + B

Wohin soll die Reise führen? Wie reist ihr?

Informiere deine Gesprächspartnerin/deinen Gesprächspartner über jeden Punkt. Hör zu, was sie oder er sagt.
Diskutiert die Vorschläge zu jedem Punkt und einigt euch.

Deine Stichwörter:

Wohin?

.....

Reisemittel?

.....

Die Reise vorbereiten

Deine Stichwörter:

Welchen Herausforderungen werdet ihr auf eurer Reise begegnen?

.....

Wie könnt ihr diese meistern?

.....

Was müsst ihr auf eure Reise mitnehmen?

.....

Was muss vor der Reise vorbereitet/organisiert werden?

.....

Wer übernimmt welche Aufgaben?

.....

10.11 Wie war's letzte Woche?

Material

- Schreibzeug
- Aufgabenkarte A oder B
- *My Resources*

Situation

Ihr besucht seit kurzem dieselbe Schule. Schülerin/Schüler B lebt erst ganz kurz in der Schweiz und kann noch fast kein Deutsch. Ihr kommt aber gut miteinander aus und redet fast immer Englisch.

Letzte Woche hat Schülerin/Schüler A in Bern eine grössere Englischprüfung gehabt (für ein Diplom für Jugendliche). Und Schülerin/Schüler B war am Freitagabend zu einer Party eingeladen, an die A nicht gehen konnte. Nun habt ihr einiges zu besprechen.

Vorbereitung (EA): 10 Min.

- Lies dieses Blatt genau durch.
- Bei der Vorbereitung ist als Hilfsmittel nur *My Resources* erlaubt.
- Bei der Vorbereitung kannst du auf der Aufgabenkarte Stichwörter notieren, ein Wörterbuch ist aber nicht erlaubt. Achtung: Du darfst keine ganzen Sätze aufschreiben, sondern wirklich nur einzelne Wörter als Hilfen.
- Du musst dich alleine auf das Gespräch vorbereiten.
- Für die Vorbereitung hast du 10 Minuten Zeit.

Auftrag (PA)

Sprecht miteinander, stellt einander Fragen zu den beiden Erlebnissen und informiert euch gegenseitig.

Lest eure **Aufgabenkarte (A oder B)**. Haltet euch an die Anweisungen.

Produkt

Eine Videoaufnahme von eurem Gespräch

Dauer: ca. 10 Minuten

Aufgabenkarte A

Deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner will ein paar Dinge über deine Englischprüfung von letzter Woche wissen.

Dir ist das gerade recht, denn du wolltest schon wegen der Party vom Freitag mit ihr/ihm reden.

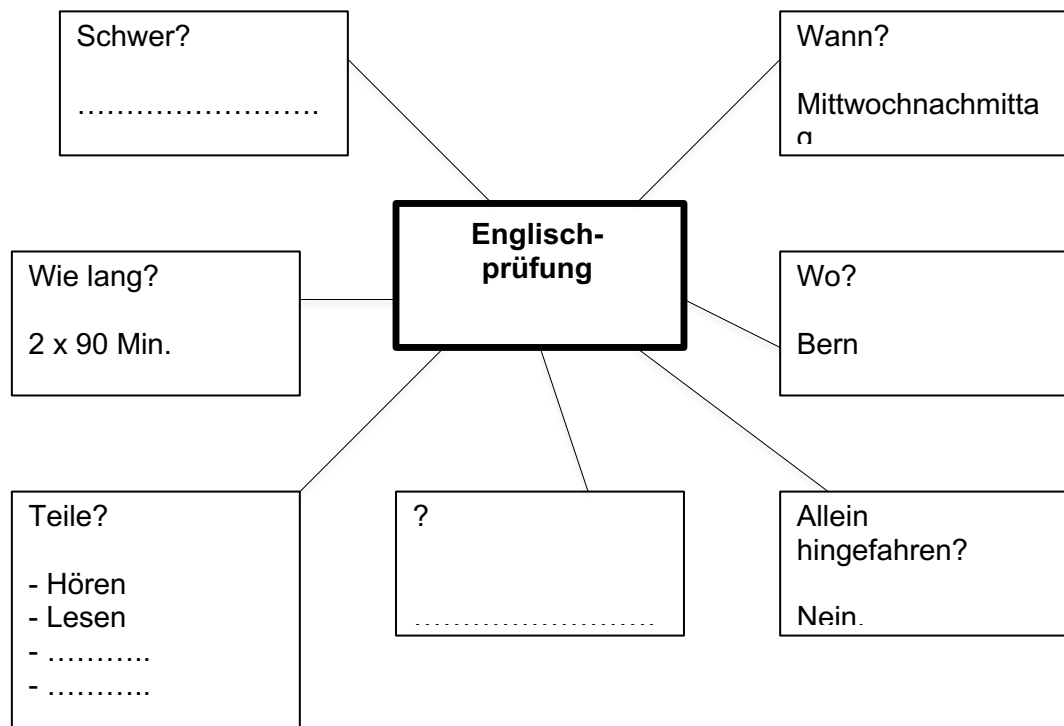
Sprecht miteinander über die beiden Themen *Prüfung* und *Party*.

Beantworte die Fragen deiner Schulkameradin/deines Schulkameraden.

Einen Teil der Antworten findest du in der folgenden Übersicht.

Gestrichelte Linie (.....) heisst: selber erfinden.

Sag noch andere Dinge über die Prüfung, wenn du willst.



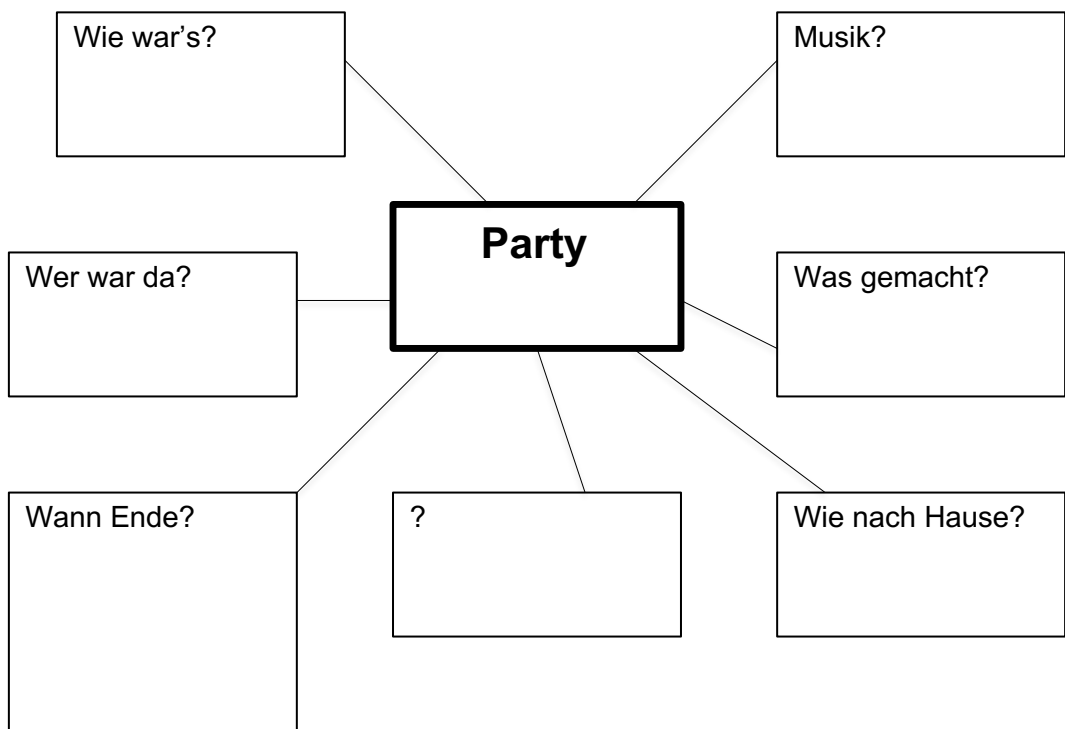
Stelle deiner Schulkameradin/deinem Schulkameraden Fragen zur Party vom Freitag. Du konntest nicht gehen. Viele Bekannte von dir waren da.

Stell deine Fragen. Bestimme selbst die Reihenfolge.

Achte auf die Kästchen. Dort stehen Stichwörter zu deinen Fragen.

Gestrichelte Linie (.....) heisst: selber erfinden.

Sag noch andere Dinge, wenn du willst.



Aufgabenkarte B

Du weißt, dass deine Gesprächspartnerin/dein Gesprächspartner letzte Woche eine Englischprüfung hatte, um ein Sprachdiplom für Jugendliche zu bekommen. Nun willst du dich erkundigen, wie es gegangen ist. Vielleicht kannst du dann auch noch ein wenig von der Party vom Freitag erzählen.

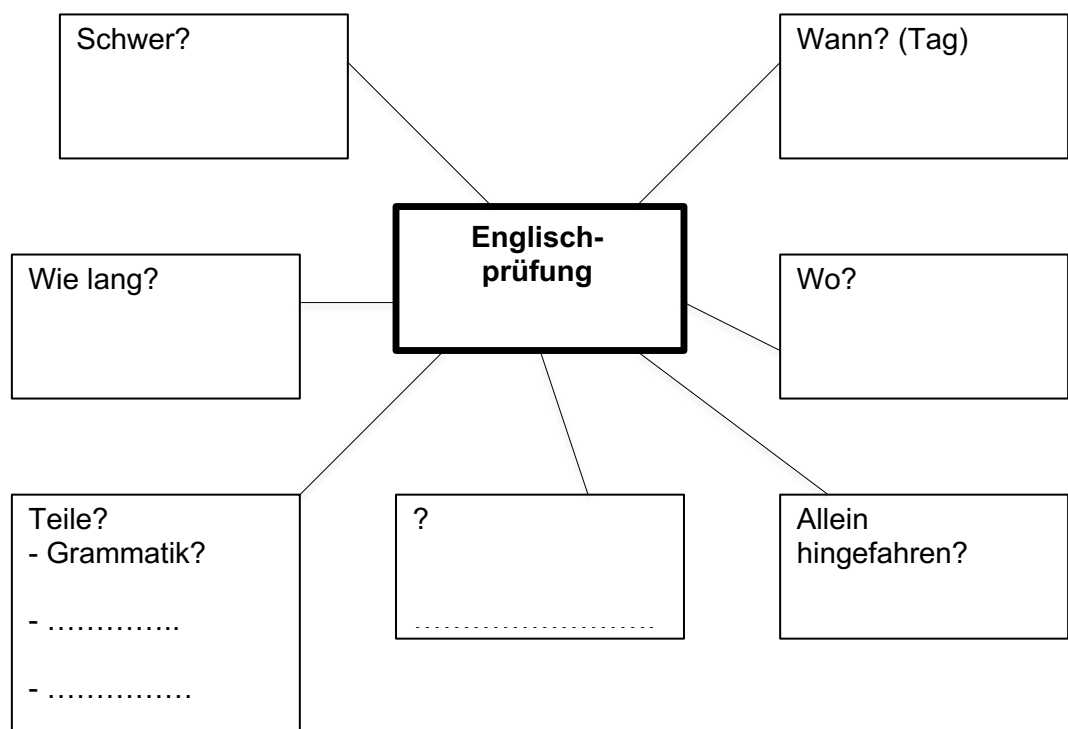
Sprecht miteinander über die beiden Themen *Prüfung* und *Party*.

Stell deine Fragen. Bestimme selbst die Reihenfolge.

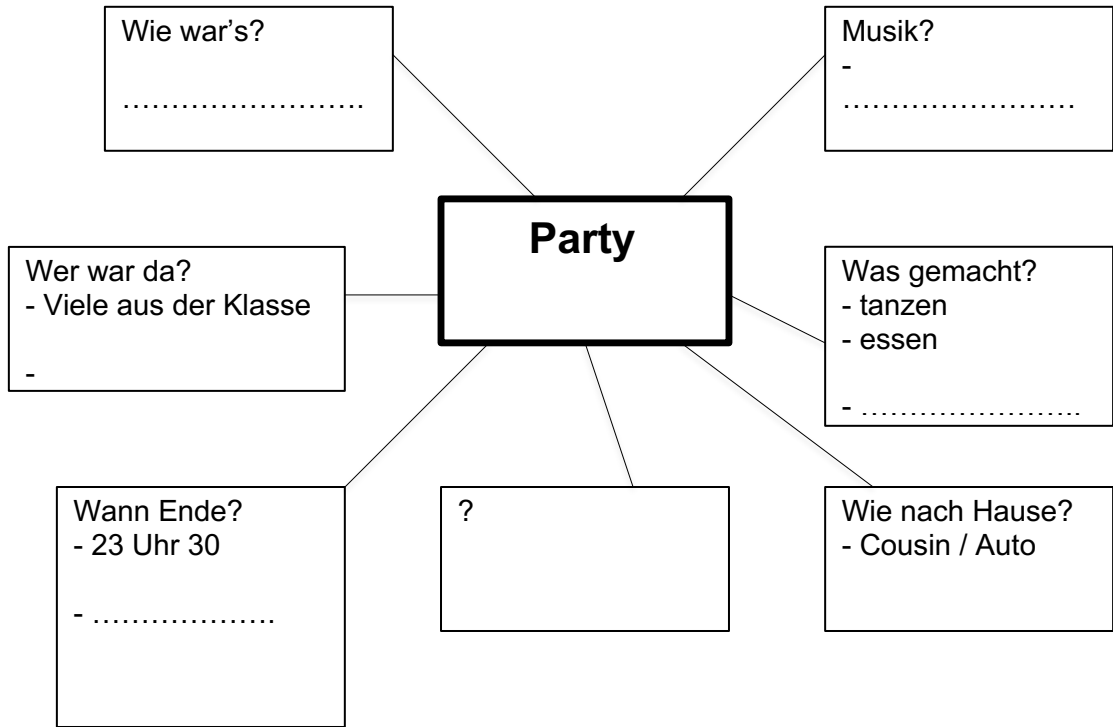
Achte auf die Kästchen. Dort stehen Stichwörter zu deinen Fragen.

Gestrichelte Linie (.....) heisst: selber erfinden.

Sag noch andere Dinge, wenn du willst.



Beantworte die Fragen deiner Schulkameradin/deines Schulkameraden zur Party.
Einen Teil der Antworten findest du in der folgenden Übersicht.
Gestrichelte Linie (.....) heisst: selber erfinden.
Sag noch andere Dinge über die Prüfung, wenn du willst.



11 Stimulated recall research protocol

11.1.1 Introduction

- 1) Explain that you are interested in how language is learned and that this is why together you are now going to watch the interaction.

'What we're going to do now is watch the video. We are interested in what you were thinking at the time you were talking', (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.154) to each other. 'We can see what you were doing by looking at the video, but we don't know what you were thinking. So what I'd like you to do is tell me what you were thinking, what was in your mind at that time while you were talking to', (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.154) each other.

'I'm going to put the remote control on the table here and you can pause the video any time that you want. So if you want to tell me something about what you were thinking, you can push pause. If I have a question about what you were thinking, then I will push pause and ask you to talk about that part of the video', (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.154).

- 2) 'Demonstrate stopping the video and asking a question for them', (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.154).
- 3) Ask if there are any questions about the procedure.
- 4) Have both participants try using the pause button.

11.1.2 During the recall

- 1) If one of the participants stops the video, listen to what he or she is saying.
- 2) 'If you stop the video, ask something general, for example:

*'What were you thinking here/at this point/right then?
Can you tell me what you were thinking at that point?
I see you're laughing/looking confused/saying something there, what were you thinking then?', (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.154).*

- 3) 'If their response is that they don't remember, do not pursue this because "fishing" for answers that were not immediately provided increases the likelihood that the answer will be based on what the person thinks no or some other memory or perception.
- 4) Try not to focus or direct participant responses beyond "what were you thinking then." You might want to focus attention on' (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.154f) interaction strategies like:

*Do you remember thinking anything when your partner paused here?
Do you remember thinking anything when you paused here? / when you said 'ehm' here?
Do you remember thinking anything when your partner/you both laughed here?
Can you remember what you were thinking when she said that/those word(s)?*

- 5) 'Try not to react to responses other than providing backchanneling cues or nonresponses:

Oh, mhm, great, good, I see, uh-huh, ok

11.1.3 *After the recall*

- 1) Ask participants 'if they have any questions or comments about the video or the task they have done', (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.155).
- 2) Ask questions concerning the use of interaction strategies. These questions will become clearer in the course of data collection.

Note: This was followed closely the first time. For the second and third recall the researcher also raised other topics which seemed pertinent from the current analysis of the data.

12 Transcription Conventions

Conventions are based on GAT2 (Selting et al., 2011).

MINIMAL TRANSCRIPT

Sequential structure

[] overlap and simultaneous talk
[]

In- and outbreaths

°h / h° in- / outbreaths of appr. 0.2-0.5 sec. duration
°hh / hh° in- / outbreaths of appr. 0.5-0.8 sec. duration
°hhh / hhh° in- / outbreaths of appr. 0.8-1.0 sec. duration

Pauses

(.) micro pause, estimated, up to 0.2 sec. duration appr.
(-) short estimated pause of appr. 0.2-0.5 sec. duration
(--) intermediary estimated pause of appr. 0.5-0.8 sec. duration
(---) longer estimated pause of appr. 0.8-1.0 sec. duration
(0.5)/(2.0) measured pause of appr. 0.5 / 2.0 sec. duration
(to tenth of a second)

Other segmental conventions

and_uh cliticizations within units
uh, uhm, etc. hesitation markers, so-called "filled pauses" (Here they were always written in German and phonetically, own addition.)

Laughter and crying

((laughs)) description of laughter and crying
((cries))
<<laughing> > laughter particles accompanying speech with indication of scope
<<:-)> so> smile voice

Continuers

hm, yes, no, yeah monosyllabic tokens
hm_hm, ye_es, bi-syllabic tokens
no_o

Other conventions

((coughs)) non-verbal vocal actions and events
<<coughing> > ...with indication of scope
() unintelligible passage
(xxx), (xxx xxx) one or two unintelligible syllables
(may i) assumed wording
(may i say/let us say) possible alternatives

((unintelligible, unintelligible passage with indication of duration appr. 3 sec))
((...)) omission in transcript

bold (unlike GAT) refers to a line of transcript relevant in the argument

BASIC TRANSCRIPT

Sequential structure

= fast, immediate continuation with a new turn or segment
(latching)

Other segmental conventions

: lengthening, by about 0.2-0.5 sec.
:: lengthening, by about 0.5-0.8 sec.
::: lengthening, by about 0.8-1.0 sec.
? cut-off by glottal closure

Accentuation

SYLlable focus accent
!SYLlable extra strong accent

Final pitch movements of intonation phrases

? rising to high
, rising to mid
- level
; falling to mid
. falling to low

Other conventions

<<surprised> > interpretive comment with indication of scope

Fine Transcript

SYLlable focus accent
sYllable secondary accent
(...)
↑ smaller pitch upstep
↓ smaller pitch downstep
(...)

For the excerpts the equidistant font Courier 10 pt with a line spacing of 1.5 was used.

13 Considerations and decisions taken while developing codes

After transcription of an interaction was complete, the same conversation was fully annotated for strategies. Any new strategy, which had not been captured during transcription, was added to the annotation panel. Annotating the transcript immediately after transcription permitted to understand the nature of the interaction better and identify new strategies more easily. Thus, the list of categories in EXMARaLDA's (Schmidt and Wörner, 2014) annotation panel grew steadily. However, mostly new varieties of already existing strategies were added rather than completely new strategies, e.g. use of longer or shorter filler to gain time, school language or English used to signal non-understanding etc. In interaction 1GH5, line 055, for example, during the second annotation the note was added whether this instance was a 'completion' or a 'confirmation check'. Later, the new category 'confirmation check English with completion' had been established and this was therefore annotated as such.

13.1 Simple means with various functions

Inevitably, it was sometimes not entirely clear what purpose a specific word or phrase served, especially when learners used simple means such as 'okay' or gestures to fulfil various functions in the interaction. For example, prolonged 'a:nd' at the beginning of an utterance could be used to gain time or to only join an own utterance to what has been said before or both. When such ambiguous cases occurred, its main function was defined on the basis of the understanding of the unfolding talk and coded accordingly. The following will discuss some ambiguous cases in more detail.

13.1.1 'okay' and 'yes'

The all-purpose word 'okay' can serve many different purposes, and is therefore sometimes difficult to annotate.

'The discourse marker okay is one of the most versatile, most broadly applicable and most frequently used discourse markers. In being able to use the multifunctional discourse marker okay, ELF speakers can achieve a maximum of interactional functions with a minimum of linguistic and cognitive effort in a variety of different interactional positions', (House, 2013, p.63).

'Okay' can be used to give the turn to the partner meaning 'I'm done, it's your turn now' The following Extract illustrates this.

```
030 2C:          [ehm ]okay;
031          ehm I e'I lo:ve cats and dogs,
032          (0.4)ehm(0.5)so is he eh(0.7)he's so sweet,
033 2D:  (0.8)
034 2C:  and
035 2D:  lov[ely]
036 2C:  [<<p>ca>](0.5)lovely: and friendly: and cal:m(0.4)cheerful and
          exists(0.9)ehm(1.2)ehm(1.6) okay,
037 2D:  (1.3)ehm(2.0)I find,
038          (3.5)((laughs))(2.7)we have two dogs at my home by by my dad.
```

Extract 1: 2CD3

It can also signal the end of a topic before the same speaker starts a new one. At the same time, this may give the speaker time to formulate the next topic. 1E states in the recall interview that she uses 'okay; and' in Extract 2 when the topic is closed.

157 1E: [because]he is stupid;
158 1F: (0.7)very stupid;
159 1E: aha,
160 1F: okay;
161
162 1F: and,
163 (0.3)
164 1E: ((caughs))

Extract 2: 1EF11

'Okay' can also simply signal agreement as in Extract 3.

184 1G: no the MP3 player and the:(0.7)[the MP3]player for ever and the
racket for one day.
185 1H: [racket?]
186 okay;
187 1G: it's that a: deal.
188 1H: (0.5)yes;
189 1G: <<p>ehm it's a very good deal>.
190 **okay;**
191 1H: (0.7)**okay.**

Extract 3: 1GH6

When learners finish resolving problems, they often signal this with some confirmation. Several intertwined negotiation moves are often confirmed with several confirmatory signals (cf. Extract 4).

740 1E: cocotnu [coconuss,] ((confirmation check))
741 1F: [New Zealand;]
742 1E: ((shrugs))[I think;]
743 1F: [cocossnut;] ((confirmation check))
744 1E: (1.3)[coconuts;] ((other-correction))
745 1F: [**yeah;**]
746 (0.3)coconut;
747 (0.5)**okay;**
748 1E: (0.8)
749 1F: **yes;**

Extract 4: 1EF10

'Okay' is also used to provide listener support or to gain time which at times can be hard to differentiate. 'Okay' in line 098 of Extract 5, for example, was first coded as 'listener support'. From the recall interview, however, it became evident that 1D wanted to say that most people do not like Juventus but she did not know how to say this and therefore did not say anything apart from 'okay'.

095 1D: why do you like sports.
096 1C: (1.4)because:(0.8) I play football and I really l like the:: (0.4)the
team Juventus.
097 1D: ((laughs))
098 <<laughing>**okay,**>
099 1D: ((laughs))
100 1C: (2.4)((looks at partner)) ehm:(1.4)how do you feel when you read;

Extract 5: 1CD5

The function of 'yes' is not always clear either. It is often used to confirm understanding after some trouble has been resolved. However, similar to 'okay' it can also serve as time-gaining device. Sometimes, the function is not entirely clear, as in the following Extract. 'Yes' is used at the end of a negotiation move (starting in line 016). Therefore, it might also serve the purpose of confirming what the other speaker had said. However, here it is used after some hesitation and it seems that it rather marks the end of some deliberating and is therefore probably more a time-gaining device. The decision as to which function 'okay' or 'yes' should be attributed to, was always taken on the basis of the analysis of the unfolding talk.

014 1H: ((laughs))<<laughing>okay,>
 015 (1.1)ehwhat do you like ehm(1.4)ehat dogs and cats and what not;
 016 1G: (1.4)I don't understand,
 017 1H: (0.6)<<p>kay>[what do you]like eh like at cats and dogs?
 018 1G: [xxx xxx xxx]
 019 1H: and what not;
 020 1G: (1.0)e::h(0.7)**yes** the dogs are friends and play with you:;
 021 (0.4)that's great,
 022 and cats,
 023 (0.3)ehm(1.4)eh(0.5)
 024 1H: <<laughing>he>
 025 1G: <<laughing>he>(0.8)cats are very cute;

Extract 6: 1GH3

13.1.2 Gestures and mime

Most strategies can also be enacted by drawing on gestures and mime. In Extract 7, for example, 2C replaces an unknown word with mime and gestures (line 095). 2D then uses the same gestures to ask for confirmation (line 098). After confirming this (line 099), 2C double checks with the German word 'Ohr' (line 101), upon which 2D confirms by using gestures. 2C self-corrects – this time using normal volume – by adding the English plural marker 's' to the German word 'Ohr' (line 103). 2D confirms by laughingly repeating this coined word thus probably marking the word as non-standard. 2C confirms a last time. The decision as to which function the use of gestures and mime had was always based on the understanding of how a strategy was used in the context of the unfolding interaction.

094 2C: I found ehm(2.0)eh this here,
 095 (1.3)has ehm cool((**holds both hands up, waves them around his head**))
 096 2D: hair;
 097 2C: (0.4)nei nid ((no not)) hair öhm[(1.5)]
 098 2D: [((**imitates his partner's gestures**))]
 099 2C: öh ja. (0.6)(tröch)
 100 2D: (<<pp>e' e'>)
 101 2C: <<p>O::hr> ((ear))
 102 2D: ((touches his ears with both hands))
 103 2C: ohrs ja ohrs ((laughs))
 104 2D: ((laughs))ohrs((laughs))
 105 2C: (0.3)yeah;

Extract 7: 2CD3

13.1.3 Listener support

It can at times be difficult to differentiate whether a specific comment is meant to encourage the partner to continue talking or to only give one's opinion. It was therefore decided to only annotate a comment as 'listener support' when the subsequent turn was taken by the other speaker again or when it was followed by a pause of 0.5 seconds or longer. This might be a rather crude way of differentiating whether the speaker did

indeed not want to take the floor but support the partner. The evaluative comment 'okay nice' in lines 143-144 of Extract 8 for example, was not annotated as 'listener support' because it rather serves to close this exchange and start a new topic than encourage the partner to continue, which can also be seen by the fact that 1G continues right after this with a hesitation marker.

139 (0.4)eh but(0.6)ts I like uni hockey,
140 (0.4)<<laughing>>because I'm good in this game;>
141 (1.4)and:(0.7)ts e:hm you have eh(0.5)you have a stick;
142 ((laughs))
143 1G: **okay,**
144 **nice,**
145 ((smiles))
146 1H: [((laughs))]
147 1G: [**ehm**](0.6)f: eh(1.0)ehm how much,
148 eh do you make sport;
149 and to which time;

Extract 8: 1GH4

However, Extract 9 illustrates that such a rough rule cannot account for all instances. In line 201, 1H comments on 1G's idea from the previous line. After this, 1G continues by means of 'shadowing' 1H's comment – he has the next turn but he only continues properly after 1H's hesitation in line 204. We can therefore assume that 1H's contribution in lines 201 and 202 are meant as an agreement rather than an encouragement for 1G to continue talking.

197 1G: (0.7)no.
198 1H: ((laughs))
199 1G: only only on the food corner not not here
200 [on the <<dim>places.>]
201 1H: [**okay; that's a**
202 **that's a good idea;**
203 1G: <<p>that's a good idea.>
204 1H: ehm: ts ts
205 1G: and
206 the: the:
207 1H: we can need the handy,

Extract 9: 1GH7

13.1.4 Self-repetition

Self-repetitions can help make meanings clearer to the listener or work as a stalling device or even serve both purposes simultaneously. Repetition can facilitate 'the production of more language, more fluently' (Tannen, 1987, p.48) but it can also serve many other purposes (e.g. showing listenership, humour, backchannelling (Tannen, 1987)). For reasons of consistency, self-repetition was only considered a time-gaining device when it did not co-occur with overlap. This is a rather pragmatic decision as it is not entirely clear whether self-repetition never served the purpose of gaining time during overlapping talk. The following example illustrates this: In line 202, 1H self-repeats the major part which was affected by the overlap.

197 1G: (0.7)no.
198 1H: ((laughs))
199 1G: only only on the food corner not not here
200 [on the <<dim>places.>]
201 1H: [okay; **that's a**
202 1H: **that's a** good idea;
203 1G: <<p>that's a good idea.>

Extract 10: 1GH7

When there was no overlap, self-repetition was also used for other than time-gaining purposes. In Extract 11 for example, 1F uses self-repetition to reinforce her order rather than for gaining time.

259 1F: **shut up(0.9)please shut up;**
260 1E: (2.8)
261 1F: **yes;**
262 a::nd(1.7)ehm(0.7)

Extract 11: 1EF11

13.1.5 Other-repetition

Similarly, other-repetition was used for various purposes. The five main functions found in the data are: to gain time (other-repetition), to negotiate meaning when one is not entirely sure of one's own understanding (confirmation check), to react to a negotiation move or an assistance appeal (response-other-repetition), for keeping the conversation going (shadowing) or to support oneself by repeating what the partner has just said in order to gain time. When cross-checking the annotated transcripts for the various functions of other-repetition, it was found that the main distinguishing factors were what triggered the other-repetition and who continued talking after the other-repetition. If after the other-repetition the other speaker continued or was obviously expected to continue, which could become apparent by a long pause, it was annotated as shadowing. If the same speaker continued but the other-repetition was triggered by either assistance appeal or a negotiation move, it was annotated as a response move. When the same speaker continued but the other-repetition did not follow a negotiation move or assistance appeal, e.g. after a question not relating to any resource deficit, it was annotated as other-repetition for gaining time. When other-repetition was used with questioning intonation or mime and was followed by some clarifying response by the other speaker, it was annotated as confirmation-check.

13.2 Sharpening the focus and excluding initial categories

Initially, the way learners started and ended their conversations was also annotated. Learners often used their school language or dialect to discuss how to start a conversation in class even though they could easily do that in English. Beginnings and endings of the task were therefore observed for code choice. However, in the course of the analysis it was found that broader categories such as discussing task-management and any other off-record talk would be more suitable as they could catch more similar instances when learners used the school language for managing the task. Still, the specific focus on the beginning and ending was kept in order to see how this might develop. It was termed 'Start and End' with an indication of the respective quality (e.g. school language or dialect, basic or appropriate). Still, later in the analysis the focus shifted away from meta-cognitive strategies such as managing the task, and therefore, the category 'beginning and ending an interaction' was dropped even though one of the teachers felt that it was important for his learners to be aware that they should be using English from the start of an interaction. It was assumed that using English for off-record talk (Hancock, 1997) would encourage learners to use more English overall. However, using the school language rather than English was usually not a question of lack of resources but rather of whether, in general, English or the school language was used for off-record talk (Færch and Kasper, 1984)(Hancock, 1997).

At first, 'exemplification' and 'message frames' were also used for annotations, however, they seemed too vague for being identified in the interactions and no learner ever mentioned these strategies in the recall interview nor did teachers ever choose them for feedback. It was therefore decided to ignore them for the present analysis. They might be more appropriate at higher levels and in spoken production rather than highly interactive conversations. Similarly, 'message abandonment' and 'avoidance' are particularly problematic when trying to identify these strategies in the interactions. Without any retrospective recall data from the learners, we do not know which topics they actually avoided and can therefore only speculate about this. Other strategies which were dropped in the course of the analysis were 'offering a turn' and 'private speech'. 'Offering turn' was first shifted to 'interacting to learn and communicate' before it was abandoned, and 'private speech' was moved to 'affective strategies' but ultimately also ignored for the purposes of this study.

Another decision to exclude a strategy concerned the use of gestures and mime to provide listener support. In 2EF2 for example, learners take turns to say what they want to do in Scotland. The partner never comments on this but smiles or nods. First, this was annotated as 'listener support gestures and mime'. However, it was found that it was often not clear whether gestures and mime really served as response token and finally almost any use of gesture or mime would have needed to be considered as response. Therefore, this was excluded from the analysis. In a similar vein, it was found that 'indirect assistance appeal' was too vague a category and that in fact many different strategies can be perceived as indirect assistance appeals by the interlocutor. Therefore, that category was excluded and instead more attention was paid to what exactly was attended to as an assistance appeal by the interlocutor.

13.3 Regrouping strategies

Various ways of gaining time were identified in the interactions. What was initially termed 'when you don't know a word' resulted in a collection of different self-help strategies. For expressions such as 'I don't know how to say this in English' first the category 'expressing ignorance' was created but later it was decided to also include this in the category of time-gaining strategies. This is of course a much more elaborate way of gaining time than simply using umming and erring. Depending on how the interlocutor reacted to this expression of ignorance, such instances were annotated as time-gaining devices or assistance appeals. When it was immediately followed by an attempt to express the intended meaning as in Extract 12, the expression of ignorance was annotated as a time-gaining strategy. Whereas when the partner first attended to the trouble or even tried to resolve it before possibly turning to a new topic, it was annotated as assistance appeal.

1CD5

```
076 1D:  [((laughs))]you have to read it;  
077      it's very: (1.1) I don't know how to say it I really like it.  
078 1C:  (0.5)okay;
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Extract 12: 1CD5

Other re-groupings concerned the offering of help in German and 'offering help by giving a choice of possible answers'. They were added to the category 'completion' as they mostly followed an incomplete utterance by the interlocutor.

13.4 Pronunciation

Hesitation markers were used in various ways ranging from [æh] to [eh] to [ah]. For ease of annotation, it was decided to transcribe them as eh and ehm, the closest to how most learners used them. It would have been impossible to say whether a specific token was used with German, Bernese, Italian or English pronunciation and the consistent transcription eased later automatic searches for hesitation markers. Similarly, for very short words such as 'okay' it was not differentiated whether they were L1-based (German) or English. It was decided to attribute all ambiguous short words as belonging to the 'minimal or inaccurate use of the target language' quality rather than the 'school-language based' quality of a strategy (cf. Thesis section 4.1.6).

14 Coding manual

14.1 Interaction strategies

The following provides an example of the final set of interaction strategies, descriptions and coding instructions as added to EXMARaLDA's annotation panel. For every case, an example was added.

14.1.1 *Providing self-help*

14.1.1.1 Time-gaining

Strategy	Description and coding instructions as written for EXMARaLDA's annotation panel	Example
	More elaborate use of the target language: chunks as fillers, self-repetition with changes towards more accurate/elaborate English	
Fillers chunks	Using a string of English words to gain time, e.g. 'Let me see/think'. These can also be expressions of ignorance (e.g. 'I don't know how to say this') if the same speaker continues and this is not used as an assistance appeal. Expressions such as 'I don't know' are only annotated as fillers if they concern missing language knowledge not content knowledge.	1GH7 076 1G: we have ehm: not(0.6)not s not so:(0.7)so:(1.6) I have no idea how to say this,
Other-repetition with implicit other-correction	Non-verbatim repetition of partner's utterance or part of his/her utterance to gain time (excluding reasons related to non-understanding or providing help after assistance appeal) and at the same time using more correct English. Often before an answer to a question is given. Can also be used after the partner has suggested a topic. The speaker then repeats this to gain time before starting to talk about the suggested topic.	2CD11 202 2C: (0.4)you are finished okay; 203 (2.0)okay; 204 (1.5)how wars; 205 2D: (0.7)how it was; 206 (1.0)it was loud; 207 and it was long very;

Self-repetition and replacement of two or more words with a pronoun	e.g. 'the dogs they'	1EF3 058 1F: (0.5)oh; 059 (1.9)yes:::(0.3)e' dogs are(0.8)don't cats can (0.4)ehm(1.5) she's(0.8) can: (0.8)<<p>ah>(0.5)they are(0.8)ehm
Self-repetition of a word and addition of other words	Repeating a word and adding one or more words before the repeated word. The first time the word is uttered it can also just be a part of the word. e.g. 'I eh one thing I say you'. or: 'you do you'. There can be a hesitation marker in between.	2EF2 023 2F: (2.7) an the afternoon, 024 (0.6)eh Wednesday afternoon I swimming in the mere (0.9)the mere is fresh.

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language: single words as fillers, repetition with no changes	
Self-repetition of a chunk	Repeating a string of words (more than one word) immediately after they are said to gain time. If the chunk is repeated for other purposes, e.g. to reinforce an answer it is not annotated as self-repetition. 'I li I like' is annotated as self-repetition of a chunk.	1GH7 076 1G: we have ehm: not(0.6) not s not so:(0.7)so:(1.6)
Fillers single words (e.g. 'well', 'okay')	Using English one word fillers or 'and yes' to gain time, e.g. 'okay' or 'well' before they start speaking. Exclamations such as 'ah' which may replace a whole chunk ('Now I know.') are not annotated as fillers. 'Okay' and 'yes' are annotated as 'fillers well' if the speaker who uttered them continues. 'Okay' often also serves the purpose of indicating topic or speaker change. Even with this additional function it is annotated as filler. 'And yes' is a filler if it is not used for signalling a break down. If 'and yes' is uttered by the same speaker and not followed by a long pause or speaker change, it is annotated as 'filler well'. 'okay' and 'yes' are not annotated as fillers when they are used within an IRF pattern to give feedback to a partner's answer to a question. Ultimately every 'okay' is annotated as either feedback, confirmation in a negotiation move or filler unless it is used for 'I agree'.	1GH5 111 1G: (0.4) okay; 112 ehm::(2.0)sport. 113 (1.0)do you like sport;
Self-repetition of a single word	Repeating a word (including compounds) to gain time. Also annotated as self-repetition of single word if there is a 'filler hmm' in between. 'they' 'when they' is annotated as 'self-repetition of a word with words added'. 'it's it' followed by a pause is annotated as self-repetition of a single word. 'the terrarium the terrarium' is annotated as self-repetition of a chunk. If the word is repeated for other purposes, e.g. to emphasise an utterance, reinforce an answer or to play with the language, it is not annotated as self-repetition. Examples are: 'please please' (emphasising the begging), 'yes, yes' (reinforcing answer). 'all- all inclusive' (association), 'baby penguins' (using exaggerated pronunciation probably because the speaker thinks it sounds funny. These are not annotated as self-repetition.	1GH7 076 1G: we have ehm: not(0.6) not s not so:(0.7)so:(1.6)I have no idea how to say this,

Other-repetition	<p>Repeating partner's word(s) to gain time (excluding reasons related to non-understanding or providing help after assistance appeal or in order to signal that partner is using a non-standard word or phrase). Other-repetition is normally verbatim but the personal pronoun may change. Can also be used after the partner has suggested a topic or asked a question. The speaker then repeats this to gain time before starting to talk about the suggested topic.</p> <p>When other-repetition is used when help is provided following an assistance appeal (e.g. after a single word in German), it is not annotated as other-repetition but as response-other-repetition.</p>	<p>1GH5</p> <p>241 1H: [((laughs))]°°<<laughing>okay,> 242 ts ehmwhy do you read? 243 1G: (1.3)ehm:::(1.3)why; 244 (0.8)eh(1.0)it's makes fun;</p>
Self-repetition of first part of a word	Repeating first part of a word, e.g. 'd do you find...'	<p>1CD9</p> <p>057 2C: many ehm e::h(1.3)sh shopping:(0.6)eh ehm you can:(0.5)not many</p>
Self-repetition of a part of the word (not the beginning)	Repeating part of a word, e.g. 'popula ar'	<p>2AB3</p> <p>062 2B: (1.3)popular popular, 063 (1.3)<<p>it is popula ar,> 064 (0.5)and (1.1)and the the cat is(0.5)cheerful;</p>

	Paralinguistic means	
Using non-verbal means (clapping, gestures, mime)	Using non-verbal means to gain time (clapping, gestures, mime).	2AB11 095 2A: ehm(2.7)((taps on desk twice))pfrrrf°° ecrire ((French for write))nei, ((no))
Lengthenings	Drawling a sound, e.g. 'a::nd'. If this occurs twice in the same word, it is annotated once only. If it occurs in two successive words, it is annotated for each word individually. It is not annotated when it is used to emphasise a word rather than to gain time. e.g. 'no:::'. Therefore, lengthened 'yes', 'no', ehm'. 'okay:::' etc. are not annotated as lengthenings. Drawled sounds in fillers are not annotated as lengthenings.	1GH7 076 1G: we have ehm: not(0.6)not s not so: (0.7)so:(1.6)I have no idea how to say this,
Lengthenings by exhaling	Gaining time by exhaling at the end of a word, e.g. 'know°'	1EF9 246 1F: (0.6)ah okay. 247 ts(1.1)yes, 248 (1.0)and(0.9)I think: °(2.7)the::°(0.9)
Fillers 'uhm'	Using umming and erring to gain time, e.g. ehm ((transcribed in German)), or clicks (ts). When two fillers are used one immediately after the other, they are annotated only once. However, when there are some words or a pause in between, each filler is annotated individually. Audible inhales or exhales are also annotated as 'fillers hmm'. Fillers within a chunk of German are not annotated. 'Mh' can also be used to mean 'are you sure?' or 'I don't believe you.' In such cases - when it replaces a phrase and does not only serve the purpose of gaining time, it is annotated as gestures and mime plus sound. 'Mhm' meaning 'yes' is not annotated. 'Hm' used when deliberating is annotated as filler.	1GH7, 076 1G: we have ehm: not(0.6)not s not so: (0.7)so:(1.6)I have no idea how to say this,

	Use of the school language	
Fillers school language or dialect	Using standard German or German dialect one word fillers or chunks to gain time.	<p>2IJ8</p> <p>065 2J: (0.6)ehm(3.5)ts ke Ahnig; ((no idea))</p> <p>1GH2</p> <p>220 (0.6)home,</p> <p>221 näh [no no not back home so] näh[a' aso ((well)) e' walk]walking äh äh(1.7)</p> <p>222 1H: [e::' but]</p>

14.1.1.2 Self-repair

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language: change towards more accurate/elaborate language	
Self-correction	Making self-initiated corrections of own utterance, related to grammar or pronunciation or word order.	<p>2EF6</p> <p>018 (1.0)I will(0.5)borrowed your no ((pronounced [no])) (0.3)new ((pronounced [new])) bike please;</p> <p>1GH1</p> <p>220 1G: [o on my]test on my test(0.6)John Cena had (comed)(0.4)eh come</p> <p>221 1H: (0.3)to the Test Tow[er;]</p> <p>222 1G: [eh](0.4)comes yes,</p> <p>223 1H: [((laughs))]</p>
Self-correction: replacing a foreignized/German chunk with English	Saying a lexical chunk or part of a chunk first in German or another language/foreignized then in English.	<p>2AB10</p> <p>288 2B: (0.3)mhm, 289 <<p>wär tuet da organiser vo hie bis Neuseeland Austral[ie hie,>] [wär macht es]ticket; (who makes a)) 291 you make the ticket or I make the ticket;</p>
Self-correction word replacement	Replacing a word with a more appropriate word. If the new word is embedded in a lexical chunk of minimally two words, this is annotated as 'self-correction: replacing a foreignized/German chunk with English'. Exceptions are article plus noun: they are annotated as word replacement. e.g. 'the countryside the country e' life'.	<p>2AB4</p> <p>016 2A: I ma I don't eh I make it homeworks,</p>
Self-correction: replacing a foreignized/German word with English	Saying a word first in German or another language/foreignized then in English. The foreignized word is not annotated separately. A self-corrected word is also annotated as self-correction when only part of the German/foreignized word is uttered. e.g. 'twelve u ehm heure'. ('u' for German 'Uhr' ((clock))).	<p>1IJ9</p> <p>381 1J: but the(0.3)contra: is(0.5)he's very:(1.5) smokig. 382 (0.5) [smoky.] 383 1I: [ye]yes(0.4)and the pro of the village are (0.5)sh she have fresh air,</p>

Self-correction: replacing a German/foreignized word with a paraphrase	Saying a word first in German or another language/foreignized then replacing it with a paraphrase.	<p>2CD10</p> <p>134 2D: [(laughs)]</p> <p>135 we need proviant ((laughs)) nei(0.3) [we need] something to eat [and animals]</p>
saying a word first in German/foreignized then in English, attempted only because other speaker then completes or corrects	Saying a word first in German or another language/foreignized then an attempt to say it in English. The other speaker then completes with the English word/phrase and therefore the speaker cannot self-correct but normally confirms the other speaker's completion.	<p>1EF3</p> <p>273 1F: it's: don't a: good idea I think,</p> <p>274 why the dog,</p> <p>275 (0.4)ehm at in the auto,</p> <p>276 (0.4)eh ((laughs))</p> <p>277 1E: in the</p> <p>278 1F: (0.3) [yes;]</p> <p>279 1E: [car,]</p> <p>280 yes,</p> <p>281 1F: in the car;</p> <p>282 (0.3)e' (0.3)she's(0.4)it's [don't beautiful</p>
Self-repetition of a chunk with words added and possibly some minor reformulation	Repeating a string of words immediately after it was said while sometimes adding / replacing some words and / or making minor changes. This is often a signal of online planning. 'you have to put (0.5) you have to cleaning the: blackboard.'	<p>2EF7</p> <p>007 2F: ts(0.5)yes of course (0.4) when: (0.3) you n not learn will learning,</p> <p>008 are you,</p> <p>009 (2.4)your fault;</p> <p>010 it's your fault.</p>

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language: attempted self-repair, no change to more accurate or elaborate language	
Self-correction: signal non-standard, self-repetition	Signalling that one was using a non-standard item by self-repeating it.	<p>11J7</p> <p>159 1J: (0.5)no no the reading corn is 160 is here; 161 1I: no; 162 (2.0) no dort are eh [((laughs))] [<<laughing>dort>] [((laughs))]</p>

14.1.1.3 Lexical compensatory strategies

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language: successful use of the target language	
Alternative word/Approximation	Using an alternative word that shares semantic features with the unknown word as a superordinate or with a related word. These are difficult to identify unless they are stated as such in the stimulated recall interviews or are preceded by an evident search for words and the approximation is not entirely satisfactory.	<p>1GH2</p> <p>292 1H: (1.0)but is a:: little is a little(1.3)okay; 293 a little bit: e:hm(1.0) 294 1G: mh mhm, 296 1G: ((laughs)) 297 1H: ((gestures))((laughs)) 298 1G: little bit stupid; ((for 'exhausting')) 299 1H: y::e::s::,</p> <p>2CD3</p> <p>149 2C: what's your ehm favourite? 150 (1.0)dog class:, ((for 'dog breed')) 151 2D: (0.6)dog class; 152 2C: (0.3)class ehm[aso]aeh(0.8)[Australian shepherd]or(0.6)yeah</p>
All-purpose word in English	Using an English all-purpose word to replace an unknown word, e.g. 'thing'.	<p>2CD8</p> <p>025 2D: ((mime))I want to go to the Staue of Liberty because it's has a beautiful vie:w, 026 it's it is bi:g, 027 (0.5)and we can go into the ehm fire:(0.6) thing there. ((for 'torch'))</p>
Paraphrase	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of something when a specific word is lacking, e.g. '(It is a) sort of / kind of', ... 'and so on', 'stuff like that'.	<p>1CD8</p> <p>011 1D: (1.2)because, 012 (0.6)it's:(0.4)tuah(0.6)I don't know how you say it but:::(0.3)everybody knows it; 013 (0.9)but least(0.7)hear the name; ((for well-known, famous'))</p>

Repetition for emphasis purposes	Intensifying the meaning of a word by repeating it.	<p>1CD2</p> <p>084 1D: [<<p> becau>] (0.8)because, 085 (0.7) there it has a castle; 086 (1.4) that's very very very old; 087 (0.8)it's from the thirty (0.3)eh twelveth century.</p>
Onomatopoeic word	Using a specific sound when a word is lacking, e.g. 'woof woof' for bark. Can also be accompanied by mime.	<p>11J7</p> <p>270 1I: no (0.8)no no no (1.5)we can the handy, 271 (0.8)makes that (0.9)she not bring bring bring, 272 (0.4)make ((laughs))</p>
Reformulation	Reformulating message to express intended meaning by avoiding an unknown word	<p>2CD5</p> <p>156 2D: (1.1)ehm(1.5)what is with:::(1.9)make you music? 157 2C: (0.6)what?</p>

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language: unsuccessful use of target language	
	<i>Pronunciation-related strategies</i>	
Foreignizing school language or dialect	Saying a school language or dialect word with English pronunciation and thus creating a non-existing but English sounding word. May be accompanied by gestures and mime.	2IJ7 035 2J: (0.7)ehm yes; ehm I think(0.6)ehm: es: 036 is(1.0) praktisch ((handy, English pronunciation)) (0.5)for(0.9)ehm:: wikipedia,
Foreignizing first foreign language	Saying a French word with English pronunciation and thus creating a non-existing but English sounding word. May be accompanied by gestures and mime.	1EF3 128 1F: yes comme (0.4)ehm ca e:h we: that's white <<laughing>cat>,
Foreignizing other language spoken at home	Saying a word from a language which is spoken at home with English pronunciation and thus creating a non-existing but English sounding word. May be accompanied by gestures and mime.	1CD4 076 1C: because we can make(0.4)we have(0.8)all materies ((Italian for subjects)) (0.4) homeworks;
Single word in French (first foreign language learnt at school) with foreign language pronunciation	Using a word in French with French pronunciation. This may also be accompanied by mime and gestures.	2CD9 203 2D: [(29.6)]why I have écrit ((French for written)) (0.6)air airbus;

	<i>Form-related strategies</i>	
Grammatical word coinage based on English word	Creating a non-existing English word by applying a correct or supposed English rule to an English word.	<p>2CD9</p> <p>247 2D: (0.8)and in the village, 248 2C: [in the][village,] 249 2D: [ee:'] [a villager]fell down from the: house,</p> <p>1EF5</p> <p>141 1F: (0.9)when the weather is: ehm is(0.6)rainy(0.3)no raining, 142 (0.4) 143 1E: yes, 144 1F: a:nd:(0.8)winding, 145 (0.5) 146 1E: yes,</p>
Grammatical word coinage based on word from another language	Applying a correct or supposed English rule to a school language or dialect/first foreign language word and thus creating a non-existing English word. Sometimes English pronunciation is used to further foreignize the created word.	<p>2CD2,</p> <p>223 2C: (0.6)no, 224 (0.5)I'm broking one hand. ((dialect 'bruche' = 'need'))</p> <p>2CD9</p> <p>348 2D: [and you verbluting,] ((German 'verbluten' = 'bleed to death))</p>
Adapting German form only Foreignizing form only	Using a non-English word with school language or dialect pronunciation but changing its school language or dialect form so that it fits syntactically. The word form remains German.	<p>2CD10,</p> <p>350 2D: [and]we ?ha:ve to ehm passen auf, ((German for 'be careful'))</p> <p>2EF8</p> <p>035 2F: and(0.4)then we can fahr with the taxi to the stadium.</p>

	<i>Literal translation</i>	
Word coinage compound (two English words)	Creating a non-existing English compound word from existing English words.	1EF5 082 1E: ice <<laughing> shoes, >
Word coinage compound (English word and non-English word)	Creating a non-existing English compound word from one existing English word and a foreignized or German word.	1EF5, 086 (1.0)eh the soe shoes of the glace (glace = French for ,ice') (0.4)when we
False friend	Using an existing English word incorrectly for a very similar word in the school language or dialect, e.g. 'Read/game egg' (Bernese 'Egge' for English 'corner') and 'eck' are annotated as false friends.	2AB11 128 2A: (1.0)and (0.5)was another peoples I don't can these peoples; ((German 'kennen' = 'know'))
Other literal translations	Translating word for word a lexical item or a phrase and thus creating a non-existing English expression	1EF5 391 1F: (0.4)yes; 392 the songs a:re cool. 393 1E: (0.5) but <<laughing> he: don't so, > ((German sentence structure: Die Lieder sind cool aber er nicht so.)) 1GH2, 104 1H: [and then,] 105 (0.6)e:h(0.8)we eat(0.4)ehm(0.4)ts(0.4)we (0.8)<<laughing>we eat> the eat, ((German 'das Essen'))

	<i>Origin unclear</i>	
Word coinage origin unclear	Creating a non-existing English word with no obvious rule or origin. One of the reasons may be a completely wrong pronunciation of a word learners vaguely remember.	<p>1EF10</p> <pre> 505 1F: [freet,] 506 (0.4)fr [freets;] ((for 'fruits')) 507 1E: [and,] 508 (1.5)yeah that's food to [eat;]</pre>

	Paralinguistic means	
Gestures and mime	Using non-linguistic strategies, describing concepts nonverbally. This is only annotated as 'gestures and mime' when learners do express an additional meaning with gestures or mime. It is not annotated when gestures or mime accompany words expressing a similar meaning.	1CD3 188 1D: because when they're (0.4)aggressive, 189 the:y ((moves hand miming scratching))will come 190 to you with:(0.4)their hands, (0.7)and will yeah you know it;
Gestures and mime plus sound	Using non-linguistic strategies including sound, describing concepts nonverbally.	1GH9 209 1G: you have a great school eh two great school; 210 yeah very bi:g and many many people it's it's very cool. 211 (0.7)and you you work on the PC, 212 so so td td td td ((mimes typing on a keyboard))
Drawing and speech	Using drawing accompanied by speech.	2AB10 430 2B: ah whe we going to the hiu ((drawing)) [(0.7)] [hjör so so so] [(0.5)][the z]two Ort ((place)) um o of Antarktis; ((draws a map with which he indicates where he wants to go.))
Pointing at text or picture on task sheet and speech	Pointing at the text or some picture on the task sheet or an imagined map and speak.	2CD8, 137 2D: (1.1)here is the ehm(0.2)here is New York, 138 a:nd here is: the:(0.9)((mimes pointing at various points on a map))
Mumbling	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about. This is only annotated when it is very clearly used for masking a resource deficit. Unintelligible words, e.g. due to overlap or background noise are not annotated as 'mumbling'. As opposed to 'own accuracy check' 'mumbling' is often done with a low voice.	1GH8 469 1H: in this tower we go <<dim>xxx xxx in this[xxx>.]

Replacing the word with beep	Replacing the word with 'beep'.	<p>2CD8</p> <p>168 2D: [and ehm he has]build it for mh from(1.3)beep. (('beep' replaces 'year'))</p>
Omitting the word	Omitting a word but continuing to speak as though the word was uttered. Because the partner had used the word in the school language or dialect before, or the context is clear (e.g. object in the classroom they can point to), the message is still clear.	<p>2EF7</p> <p>102 2E: [and a]beamer with eh 1 ((points to the front of the classroom)) I want to look films. ((omits 'screen'))</p>

	Use of the school language: code-switching	
Drawing and school language or dialect	Using a drawing accompanied by school language or dialect speech.	2AB10, 425 2B: [(1.5)] eh das wäre Alternativstrecki; ((alternative route)) ((drawing)) 426 söt me wüsse; ((one should know))
All-purpose word in school language or dialect	Using an all-purpose word in learners' school language or dialect when a specific word is lacking, e.g. Dings.	2CD7 167 2C: (0.4)and(0.5)here so ne Ding ((German for 'thing')) [and](0.3)bookshelf and here sone
Single word in the school language or dialect with school language or dialect pronunciation	Including a word in the school language with school language pronunciation. 'Ja' is not annotated as such. When two words are used in German, which mean roughly the same and they do not form a chunk but one is rather used to replace the other as in self-correction, they are annotated as a single word in German, e.g. 'Geschäft Arbeit'; 'klein wenig'.	2IJ7 026 2I: (2.7)the eat make the: classroom drä e:::h(0.6) dräckig ((German for 'dirty'));
Whole chunks in school language or dialect	Including a string of words in the school language or dialect with school language or dialect pronunciation. When the school language or dialect is used over several turns, it is annotated only once. When it is used as a response within a negotiation move, it is annotated as response. When the same learner repeats the same chunks in German, this is not annotated as self-repetition as longer German utterances are excluded from the analysis.	2IJ5 056 2J: (4.0)wha whan coming:: in the (0.9) TV (0.7) <<p> und uf welem Sänder ((German for 'and on which channel'); >

14.1.2 Supporting the partner without exposing the trouble

14.1.2.1 Confirmation check

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language: chunk-level	
Completion sentence or phrase	<p>Completing partner's unfinished utterance with more than one word.</p> <p>Co-constructions are only annotated as completions when the first speaker either hesitates before the other speaker completes the utterance or when the phrase / sentence of the first speaker isn't finished when the other speaker continues.</p>	<p>1GH10</p> <p>481 1G: (0.4)the water turtle; 482 (0.6)[go] 483 1H: [are swi]mning 484 1G: are swi[mning][y:::']es[it's]</p>
Completion sentence or phrase - no hesitation	<p>As above but no sign of hesitation by the other speaker. This is often a signal that the partner is either not offered enough waiting time or is being interrupted on purpose to reinforce a contradiction.</p>	<p>1IJ8</p> <p>069 1I: [the State]of Liberty (0.3)[ha] 070 1J: [is ve]ry nice yes; 071 1I: no; 072 Sta [te of Li]berty we can, 073 1J: [yes;]</p>
Completion sentence or phrase with preceding other-repetition	<p>Completing partner's unfinished utterance with more than one word by first repeating part of the other speaker's utterance.</p>	<p>2CD9</p> <p>228 2C: in the night you you (0.5)when t[he] 229 2D: [when you]fail out of the::(1.5)from the house down and you klatsch on the boden, ((fall on the floor))</p>
Completion sentence or phrase - no hesitation – with preceding other-repetition	<p>As above but when there is no obvious sign of hesitation. Because of the preceding other-repetition this is not as intrusive as completion without hesitation.</p>	<p>2CD9</p> <p>572 2D: and in the city you have 573 2C: you have a lot of sto[res and](0.8)becau [a] 574 2D: [bad air.]</p>

Completion sentence or phrase - complete clause but rising intonation	Completing partner's utterance by adding more than a single word. This is done when there is a sign of hesitation but when the clause the partner was using was in fact complete. However, the partner is using rising intonation at the end of his utterance thus probably signalling that he/she wants to continue.	<p>1EF6</p> <p>263 1F: you can have my mountain bike for two days, 264 (0.5)</p> <p>265 1E: and you can have(1.6) [my]</p> <p>266 1F: [one]day my your mp drei player, 267 (0.9)and: your rackets;</p>
Completion sentence or phrase - no hesitation - complete sentence but rising intonation	As above but no obvious sign of hesitation.	<p>1EF5</p> <p>681 1E: I listening ehm my mother; 682 (0.6)to the radio ehm(0.4)in the ca[r <<dim>listening,>]</p> <p>683 1F: [ah yes every]m every[ehm](0.4)every time when I are eh at home,</p> <p>684 1E: [yes;]</p> <p>685 yes the radio is [on <<dim>listening>]</p> <p>686 1F: [ehm yes the]radio are on, 687 (0.4)because my brother, 688 (0.8)LOVE MUSic.</p> <p>689 1E: <<laughing>my sis[ter too.>]</p> <p>690 1F: [pop mu]sic(0.9)[and every time]</p>
Completion with integration	<p>Continuing the conversation by integrating the word the partner supposedly lacked into own turn.</p> <p>In contrast to a comprehension check with reformulation or completion, this is not used to check the understanding. The speaker supposes she knows what the partner wanted to say.</p>	<p>1CD6</p> <p>125 1C: (0.8)yes, 126 you give me the mountain bike for one day, 127 and I give you the mp3 player for two day, 128 and I give you ehm ts(0.7)[the the the]the: the:[the] 129 1D: [the tennis racket.] 130 [no]I don't want the headphones I don't want the mp3 player I want the tennis racket.</p> <p>131 1C: ((gestures))<<f>I don't can give you the m the tennis racket.></p>
Completion with implicit correction	Continuing the conversation by integrating the word the partner supposedly lacked and at the same time correcting the partner's utterance.	<p>1CD9</p> <p>701 1C: (0.9)the the work is there, 702 you haven't you have (0.6)</p> <p>703 1D: you don't [have to walk,]</p> <p>704 1C: [m many]work you have to wal e(0.3)to walk</p>

Completion with implicit correction – no hesitation	As above but when there is no sign of hesitation by the partner.	2AB7 205 2B: (0.2)brain genau. 206 ehm(0.4)that is good to the g[eh] 207 2A: [for the]brain yeah 208 2B: to the brain ehm eating and dr(0.4)drink. 209 2A: (0.7)yes.
Taking turn after long pause within clause	Taking the turn after a long pause but continuing with partner's topic.	1EF9 246 1F: (0.6)ah okay. 247 ts(1.1)yes, 248 (1.0)and(0.9)I think:°(2.7)the::°(0.9) 249 1E: I think it's so; 250 (0.7)in ehm the city, 251 you can it have a lot of business; 252 that's the good. 253 but the: not so good good, 254 is(0.4)ehm that, 255 (0.6)
Confirmation check English	Repeating partner's last utterance to ensure you've understood correctly, e.g. 'You mean...?', 'Is that...?'. Usually verbatim repetition or replacement of some nouns with pronouns or a slightly shortened version of partner's utterance. Any other-repetition which serves the purpose of asking for clarification/further information is annotated as confirmation check. In some cases, other-repetition can also be used to express disbelief. Unless this is very obvious, it is still annotated as confirmation check.	1GH9 056 it gives(0.6)it gives (0.5)tra:n, 057 1G: (0.4) a train; 058 1H: yes a train;
Confirmation check English with immediate confirmation by same speaker	Repeating partner's last utterance to ensure you've understood correctly and then confirming that one can follow immediately afterwards.	1EF10 785 1F: [tint](0.3)e'[::h] 786 1E: [all]of that; 787 ehm:: di diary; 788 1F: (0.4) diary; 789 ah;

Confirmation check English with reformulation	Learner A reformulates B's statement (implicit correction) and thus checks if he has understood his partner correctly. If for the reformulation a specific strategy is being used, this is annotated separately, e.g. gestures and mime or paraphrase.	<p>2CD5</p> <p>188 2D: (2.2)ehm(0.4)in one day, 189 (0.8)[five] 190 2C: [ten mi]nei [in one day]ten minutes 191 2D: [in the morning in the] 192 okay; 193 okay; 194 (1.2) 195 five mal on the day, 196 (0.9 197 your drums ten minutes. 198 2C: yes,</p>
Confirmation check English with reformulation and immediate confirmation by same speaker	As above but with immediate confirmation.	<p>2AB11</p> <p>025 2B: and in Bern, 026 (0.9)to Bern, 027 (0.9)has a eh in Bern in a big house, 028 (0.5)<<p>ehm in:>(1.3)in the school to Bern 029 2A: (0.8)yes; 030 (0.8)ah in the Berne(0.4)in the [Berne]was this test yes (0.9)[ehm](0.3)</p>
Confirmation check English with completion	Learner A completes B's statement and thus checks if he has understood his partner correctly. This may include a change of pronouns.	<p>1CD6</p> <p>159 1C: =and the the when they go out mp3 player they make tsch tasch tsch tsch tsch and then the mp3 player ((claps)) 160 1D: it destroyed; 161 1C: yes.</p>

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language: foreignized	
Completion with single word English	Offering partner a word in English he/she seems not to know so that he/she can continue speaking. The word can also be accompanied by an article. Co-constructions are only annotated as completions when the first speaker either hesitates before the other speaker completes the utterance or when the phrase / sentence of the first speaker isn't finished when the other speaker continues.	1GH7 447 1G: (0.4)e so a a little; 448 (0.5)it's[only:]two thousand and twelve metre [long.] 449 1H: [a metre.]
Completion with single word English - no hesitation	As above but when there is no obvious sign of hesitation.	1CD9 423 1C: but e':::[:: two m tw]o fnt [two tim]es of the:: on the::(0.4)the month, 424 1D: [o:r the cow,] 425 [the cow,] 426 mhm 427 1C: this is coming with the::(0.4)e::h f::(0.4)with the::
Completion with single word English with preceding other-repetition	Completing partner's utterance with a single word after repeating (part of) his/her utterance.	1EF9 292 1F: yes you are manager or so[::] 293 1E: [yeah] that is better when you' i'[it's a ci]lty li[fe.] 294 1F: [when you life] 295 [yes,]
Completion with single word English - no hesitation – with preceding other-repetition	As above but when there is no obvious sign of hesitation.	1EF4 101 1E: I think [a little] 102 1F: [yes because]we have 103 1E: we have don['t] 104 1F: [ot]her things to do, 105 1E: yes;

Completion with a foreignized single word	Offering partner a foreignized word he seems not to know so that he/she can continue speaking.	<p>1EF2</p> <p>083 1E: with the: festivals; 084 can see (0.5)the ehm(1.8) 085 1F: dancier- 086 1E: yes and it with:: 087 1F: Dudelsack, 088 [(laughs)] 089 1E: [(laughs)]doudoudum 090 1F: (0.4)yes an:d:(1.0)I don't know I think: (0.5)hm:(1.0)yes;</p>
Confirmation check attempt	Starting a confirmation check and then being interrupted by the other speaker.	<p>2AB2</p> <p>139 2A: Wednesday; 140 2B: (1.8)und 141 2A: you play[ing golf,] 142 2B: [eh (what he]'s a troben;) (0.3) (isch das wulsch;)</p>

	Paralinguistic means	
Completion with gestures, mime and sound	Completing other learner's utterance with gestures and mime plus sound.	1GH11 224 1G: [he comes]to the Test Tower and then he sing a 225 song, (0.4)and 226 1H: <<singing>tä tät rä tä> 227 1G: (0.3)yes,
Completion with gestures and mime	Completing other learner's utterance with gestures and mime.	1CD10 226 1C: [be]cause (0.4)eh when you bring the book, 227 (0.2)you ((mimes holding a book, sticks out his tongue)) 228 1D: you're always going to read and you're like 229 1C: ((drops his head)) 230 1D: fall asleep? 231 1C: (0.4)yes,
Confirmation check mime	Miming partner's last utterance to ensure it has been understood correctly.	1EF6 190 1E: (0.4)then I too can have your mountain bike for two day; 191 1F: (0.3)no. 192 1E: ((looks at partner, shakes head, raises eyebrows)) 193 1F: n:o ((touches her breast with her fist)) 194 [it's] unbelievable. 195 1E: [and]

	Use of the school language	
Completion with a word in the school language or dialect	Offering partner a word in the school language or dialect he seems not to know so that he/she can continue speaking.	<p>2IJ7</p> <p>017 2J: (0.9)why; 018 019 2I: (1.3)((laughs))(1.0)e:h the eat:; 020 (0.5) 021 2J: brösmelet((crumbles (verb)))(laughs) 022 2I: the eat make(0.7) 023 2J: Krümels, ((crumbles (noun)) 024 ((laughs))[(laughs)][(laughs)](laughs))°f:::</p>
Confirmation check German	Repeating or summarizing partner's last utterance in German to ensure speaker has understood correctly.	<p>2IJ10</p> <p>056 2I: what you you must take for th this:(1.3) this ehm (0.9)expedit(0.2)tion; 057 2J: (4.0)<<whispering>hä d Heruse> d Heruseforderige oder was; ((the challenges or what?)) 058 2I: nei was wosch mitnäh;((no what you want to take with you))</p>
Confirmation check German with immediate confirmation by same speaker	As above but with immediate confirmation by the same speaker.	<p>2IJ9</p> <p>057 2I: and it's have (1.2)ehm(0.9)ts(3.2)not(1.1)ws isch d früsch ((fresh)) xxx xxx; 058 2J: (0.5)<<p>was Frösche;> ((what frogs)) 059 (3.0)fresh, 060 2I: [(laughs)] 061 2J: [(laughs)]nei ke Ahnig; ((no no idea))</p>

14.1.2.2 Supportive self-repair

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Anticipated repair example	Pre-empting a possible breakdown due to a perceived deficiency in the partner's linguistic knowledge by providing an example of the trigger, i.e. by integrating the trigger into a phrase or sentence.	<p>2CD9</p> <p>038 2D: <<p>don't have,> 039 2C: (0.5)no ehm= 040 2D: =was wosch wüsse; ((what do you want to know)) 041 2C: (1.9)nid viu; ((not many)) 042 2D: (0.9)viu; ((many)) 043 2C: nid viel ((not many)) 044 2D: (0.4)[nid viu](0.5)aso eh irgendwie zum Bispiu es het nid viu Würschtli oder so. ((well somehow for example there aren't many sausages or like this.)) 045 2C: [nicht viel] 046 (0.3)ja. 047 2D: (0.5)ehm(2.4)not many; 048 2C: (4.1) 049 2D: it's have not many:::(1.1)curry:(0.6) 050 2C: <<laughing>ja[ja ja ja ja]>[[((laughs))]]</p>
Reformulated self-repetition because own previous utterance was misunderstood'	Saying the same using different words because previous utterance was obviously misunderstood by the other speaker.	<p>2IJ10</p> <p>049 2I: (1.3)what you want; 050 (0.8)ehm take on the ship, 051 (0.4)for (0.5)go to (0.4)to ehm (0.5)to the Karibik; 052 2J: (0.3)yes; 053 I want(0.5)go to the Karibik with with a shiff ((ship)) 054 2I: (4.9) 055 2J: ehm 056 2I: what you you must take for th this: (1.3)this ehm (0.9)expedit(0.2)tion;</p>

Explaining in English a lexical chunk which was obviously not understood

Offering help by explaining a previously uttered chunk which was obviously not understood by the partner.

1GH7

135 1G: =and we make food corner.
136 1H: yeah a food;
137 1G: food corner
138 1H: the food for the bear is turtle,
139 and the and the food <<laughing>for the turtle are bear.>
140 ((laughs)) [((laughs))] [((laughs))] [okay;]
141 1G: [no we we will a food corner.]
142 [for] [for]eating.
143 (0.3)**you ca:n: give one dollar,**
144 **and you become burgers;**
145 **chips;**
146 (0.4)**and and all** (0.5) **all stuff.**

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language: self-repetition	
Anticipated repair self-repetition	Pre-empting a possible breakdown due to a perceived deficiency in the partner's linguistic knowledge by providing self-repetition of the word or string of words that the interlocutor anticipates will not be understood.	<p>2IJ2</p> <p>025 2I: (5.0)eh(7.1)what we can make at the Wednesday, 026 (0.7)morning; 027 wha 028 what we can make at the Wednesday morning; 029 what we can make at the Wednesday morning; 030 2J: (0.4)<<whispering>has scho gseit;> ((have said it))</p>
Self-repetition because own previous utterance supposedly was misunderstood	Self-repeating own utterance because previous utterance was supposedly misunderstood by the other speaker.	<p>2CD9</p> <p>500 2C: (0.5)where lives you better in the city or in the village; 501 2D: I want to live in the village. 502 2C: (0.3)no no nid((mime)) 503 2D: yeah in a vill[age] 504 2C: [where] you no [no no no no.] 505 2D: [I don't know.] 506 2C: (0.4)what is b what is better(0.5)to live= 507 2D: that here is a kaff; 508 that hav:e, 509 (0.4)two or five houses.</p>
Self-repetition because own previous utterance was misunderstood	Self-repeating own utterance because previous utterance was obviously misunderstood by the other speaker.	<p>1GH7</p> <p>135 1G: =and we make food corner. 136 1H: yeah a food; 137 1G: food corner 138 1H: the food for the bear is turtle, 139 and the and the food <<laughing>for the turtle are</p>

	Paralinguistic means	
Anticipated repair mime and gestures	Pre-empting a possible breakdown due to a perceived deficiency in the partner's linguistic knowledge by using mime and gestures to illustrate a word that the interlocutor anticipates will not be understood. Targets specific lexical items, perceived as difficult for the listener.	<p>2AB10</p> <p>155 2B: is a big ehm <<p>Herausforderung></p> <p>156 2A: big wave so: ((shows wave with his hand)) [grosse]Wellen ((big waves))</p> <p>157 2B: [ja;]</p> <p>158 yeah;</p>

	Use of the school language	
Anticipated repair translation	Pre-empting a possible breakdown due to a perceived deficiency in the partner's linguistic knowledge by providing a translation / synonym of the word or string of words that the interlocutor anticipates will not be understood. Targets specific lexical items, perceived as difficult for the listener.	<p>2AB4</p> <p>126 2A: [(0.6)]aso ((well)) I I like France but I don't like (0.3)m German.</p> <p>127 Deutsch ((unintelligible))</p> <p>128 2B: ehm:</p>
Translating a chunk which was obviously not understood	offering help by translating a previously uttered lexical chunk which was obviously not understood by the partner.	<p>2IJ4</p> <p>013 2I: =aso ((well)) (0.9)I have say,</p> <p>014 (3.0)why find you,</p> <p>015 (0.4)the homeworks bad.</p> <p>016 2J: (1.1)yes and no.</p> <p>017 2I: (2.5)<<p>wiso fingsch se nid guet.</p> <p>018 ((why do you think they are bad))</p> <p>019 2I: (2.0)wiso. ((why))</p> <p>020 (0.8)u när seisch [du] (0.4)[ja u nei>] ((then you say yes and no))</p>

14.1.2.3 Implicit other-correction

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Other-correction English implicit	<p>Repeating what the partner has just said in more target-like English by integrating this into ongoing talk, providing a more target-like reformulation of what the partner has just said.</p> <p>Unlike with 'active response', the speaker continues him-/herself. However, if he/she does not, the speaker who was corrected takes up the corrected word or phrase to continue.</p>	<p>1GH7</p> <p>433 1H: ts(0.3)ah bu:t for e::h ts reading, 434 (0.5)corner we don't have a s[[<p>a space>.] 435 1G: [no we don't]have (any) space for a reading corner.</p> <p>436 1H: ((laughs)) ((laughs)) [((laughs))] 437 1G: [a temple;] 438 a temple is nice but a reading corner-</p>
Shadowing with other-correction	<p>Repeating the other speaker's utterance and thus showing that one is following and at the same time correcting the partner's utterance</p>	<p>1EF3</p> <p>397 1E: (0.6)for me too. 398 they too much people, 399 (0.7) 400 1F: yes too much autos, 401 1E: yes cars,</p>

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language	
Translating a foreignized word or phrase with a false friend	Translating a German or foreignized word or phrase the previous speaker has used but using a false friend for this.	<p>1EF5</p> <p>062 1E: (1.6)why I don't can give the: ehm ball, 063 (0.3)in the:((pause of 1.0 seconds: draws circles in the air)) 064 k korb ((draws circles in the air)). 065 1F: (0.2)yes; 066 1E: and that's my problem; 067 ((laughs)) 068 1F: in the chat;= 069 1E: =and I like to: ehm(0.4)skiing,</p>
Signalling that the partner is using non-standard English	Signalling that the partner was using a non-standard form or word.	<p>2CD8</p> <p>285 2C: who wor da; 286 2D: (0.9)((laughs))((puts his head on the desk))[(laughs)](0.3)yes; 287 2C: [who war on the party;]</p>

14.1.3 Providing listener support

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language: chunk of English or more elaborate word than 'yes' or 'okay'	
Active response phrase	Using more elaborate comments to show interest, provide active response or evaluative feedback, may be accompanied by mime and gestures (e.g. a smile). Only counted as active response if the previous speaker continues. This can be preceded by other-repetition.	1GH7 323 1G: from the black[board yes.] 324 1H: [<<p>yeah.>] 325 °ts okay that's very good, 326 1G: (0.4) that sounds nice yes, 327 1H: okay the rules, 328 okay ts (0.3)eh in the classroom ts
Active response: confirmation of comprehension (words other than okay, yes)	Interlocutor confirms he/she follows by saying other words than 'okay' or 'yes' without taking the next turn.	2CD11 187 2C: a are [you]are you fin[ish;] 188 2D: [there] 189 [that thing here;] 190 2C: yeah yes I know it 191 2D: (0.5) 192 2C: <<p>I know;> 193 2D: (0.9) 194 2C: okay; 195 (2.0) [next question;]
Active response phrase with preceding other-repetition	Other-repetition followed by active response phrase.	1EF5 175 1E: (0.5)ehm yes; 176 I make(0.9)s:even hours in the week; 177 1F: (0.4) seven hours; 178 (1.2) that's unbelievable. 179 1E: ((laughs)) (0.4)abe it's don't so eh in the beginning you don't want to have seven hours,

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language: single word, other-repetition, foreignized	
Backchannelling okay, yes	Interlocutor confirms he/she follows by saying 'okay', 'yes' or 'oh', 'wuo' and similar interjections but without taking the next turn. If the speaker saying 'yes' or 'okay' continues, such expressions often serve the purpose of gaining time and are therefore annotated as 'fillers well'.	1IJ5 165 1J: (0.4)every day. 166 (0.9)[then]I playing: football Mo and Monday and(0.6)<<pp>was heisst Zyschti> ((what does Tuesday mean)) 167 1I: [<<p> yeah ; >]
Active response single word English	Using a single word other than the ones under 'backchannelling' to show interest, may be accompanied by mime and gestures. This is only annotated as active response if the previous speaker continues.	2EF8 105 2E: [(0.4)]and then we go back in the hotel. 106 2F: (0.8) nice . 107 2E: (1.2)mir si fertig.
Active response interjection with preceding other-repetition	Other-repetition preceded by some exclamation, e.g. 'exciting', 'oh'.	2CD5 150 2C: (0.4)e::hm::: po:p(0.5)or::(0.9)techno 151 2D: interesting. pop.
Active response single word English with following other-repetition	Other-repetition followed by some exclamation.	1EF10 311 1E: New Zealand; 312 1F: (0.6) New Zealand oh ; 313 1E: (0.3)aha;
Shadowing	Repeating partner's last utterance to show that one is following. Other speaker continues after the repetition. Can also be used before one continues with own turn but only when a long pause (longer than 0.5 follows). Not after assistance appeal (> response-other-repetition) or any other question when other-repetition serves the purpose of gaining time. Other-repetition which is caused by non-understanding is annotated as 'confirmation check'. Shadowing can also be used to tease the partner or show disbelief.	1GH8 279 1H: [but](0.9)fire; 280 (1.1)oh that's not good. 281 1G: (0.7)yes ehe 282 1H: fire in a tower; 283 1G: in a tower ; 284 1H: (0.7)no:.

	Paralinguistic means	
Active response mime and laughter	<p>Interlocutor reacts to an utterance with mime/laughter without taking the next turn or with pause after nod/laugh longer than 0.4 seconds. If an active response/evaluative feedback phrase is accompanied by laughter/mime, only the phrase is annotated. However, if it is followed by a 'higher quality' listener support token, such as 'listener support phrase', all separate tokens are annotated.</p> <p>Using sound and non-linguistic strategies, e.g. 'mh' with frown to show one is not entirely happy with a suggestion. This is annotated as active response/evaluative feedback only when the other speaker continues.</p>	<p>2EF7</p> <p>015 2E: yes; 016 I thought we can put a drink and food dropper in the classroom, 017 2F: ((gasp)) 018 2E: (1.0)((laughs))</p>
	Use of the school language	
Active response/evaluative feedback phrase (or single word) school language or dialect	Using German to show interest providing active response/evaluative feedback, may be accompanied by mime and gestures. The previous speaker continues after the response.	<p>2CD3</p> <p>042 2C: (0.5)I have one, 043 (0.4)a and I have one dog and two cats. 044 2D: (0.4)((mime)) 045 2C: <<p>auso> ehm= 046 2D: =lecke:r. 047 ((laughs)) 048 2C: okay; 049 okay;</p>

14.1.4 Supporting the partner while exposing the trouble

14.1.4.1 Offering help

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Offering help in English	Offering help by using English. Often following an extended filler (chunk) or a long pause. If this follows an assistance appeal, it's annotated as response not as offering help.	<p>1 IJ11</p> <p>210 1J: mach mau 211 1I: please wait, 212 (0.9)please wait, 213 1J: (0.6)can I help you; 214 1I: (0.4)no; 215 1J: (0.4)okay, 216 then ask a question; 217 1I: yes;</p>
Offering help by giving a choice of possible answers	Offering help by giving a choice of possible answers after the partner was obviously not able to start or continue his/her utterance.	<p>1CD5</p> <p>028 1D: what do you think of sport, 029 (1.4) 030 1C: ehm- 031 (0.9) 032 ((shrugs)) 033 1D: is it good or bad- 034 1C: (0.6)is good,</p>
Offering help by explicitly suggesting a word or phrase	Offering help by explicitly suggesting a word or phrase embedded in a phrase which expresses the offering of help.	<p>1CD7</p> <p>276 1C: we can eat e::h(0.7)[a:n ap]ple in the classroom but not (0.3)not chips; 277 1D: [we just,] 278 (0.5)o:[::kay;] 279 1C: [because chips]e::h make, 280 (0.5)or eh(0.4)not so eh ehm we 281 1D: you may say[even dirty,] 282 1C: [I think] 283 1D: <<laughing>ehe></p>

Offering help by suggesting a word or phrase before the other learner has started his/her utterance	Offering help by suggesting a word or phrase before the other learner started speaking.	<p>2IJ8</p> <p>006 2J: (0.4)2I 007 2I: ehm (0.7) 008 2J: <<pp>ehm>(2.5)<<whispering>what's> 009 2I: what, (0.4)want you for a <<p>aso>take for (0.5)ehm(3.3)s(0.7)<<pp>eh xxx xxx>(0.7)sight,</p>
	Use of the school language	
Offering help in German	Offering help, e.g. was bruchsch für nes wort? Often following an extended filler (chunk) or a long pause to signal that one lacks a word (e.g. I don't know how to say.) If this follows an assistance appeal, it's annotated as response.	<p>2CD9</p> <p>038 2D: <<p>don't have,> 039 2C: (0.5)no ehm= 040 2D: =was wosch wüsse; ((what do you want to know)) 041 2C: (1.9)nid viu; ((not much)) 042 2D: (0.9)viu; ((much)) 043 2C: nid viel ((not much))</p>

14.1.4.2 Comprehension check

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Comprehension check English	Asking the partner if he/she has understood in English, e.g. 'Do you understand?' If a comprehension check is used not to negotiate understanding but for other purposes, e.g. to reinforce what one has said, it is not annotated as comprehension check. e.g. 'you understand?' meaning: 'don't dare contradicting!'	1EF9 256 1F: that(0.5)ehm=[in the ci]ty, 257 1E: [=you are,] 258 1F: (0.4)don't[have a lot] 259 1E: [ja it's too loud] 260 1F: [too loud,] 261 1E: [it's too]loud, too: e' s stormy, 262 too eh ph ^o chaos. 263 1F: (0.4)[yes::]and too much people, 264 1E: [dyou understand me?] 265 yes;
	Use of the school language	
Comprehension check in German	In German asking the partner if he/she has understood.	2AB10 039 2B: the eard 040 2A: ((gestures))[mhm,] 041 2B: [lu da;] ((look)) 042 2A: [(3.0) [(0.7)][(1.0)] 043 2B: [(3.0) [<<pp>xxx xxx>>][(1.0)]nee i chas nid (zeichne) ((no I can't draw it)) ou[(6.6)] tschegggsches ((do you understand)) [world]travel; 044 2A: [(6.6)] 045 [aha] 046 world travel; 047 2B: ja

14.1.4.3 Explicit other-correction

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Reminding the partner to speak English	Asking the partner to switch from German to English.	<p>11J7</p> <p>112 1J: (0.9)ehm I say you (0.5)ts(0.6)ts(0.3)in German what's the:(1.2)ts(0.5)ehm the Ding ((thing)) is what we do; 113 [mir müesse mache,] ((we have to do)) 114 1I: [speak English]speak Eng[lish; 115 1J: xxx xxx [clap]you rmouth; 116 (0.4)du weisch scho was mer müesse mache oder, ((you know what we have to do don't you)) 117 1I: ja;</p>
Translating a foreignized word or phrase	Translating a German or foreignized word or phrase the previous speaker has used.	<p>1EF5</p> <p>555 1F: (0.5)bu:t in the herbst, ((autumn)) 556 557 1F: (0.5)ehm(0.3) 558 1E: autumn. 559 1F: eh <<laughing>autumn>°°I go::(0.4)riding, 560 1E: (1.2)ah yes,</p> <p>2CD9</p> <p>325 2D: [I think]I ehm have to go to the Krankenhaus, ((hospital)) 326 ehm((laughs)) 327 2C: hospital [hos]pital 328 2D: [hospital] 329 (0.5)I'm tired.</p>
Other-correction English explicit	Correcting the other speaker in English: pronunciation, word choice, grammar, word order, ...	<p>2AB8</p> <p>303 2B: the airport. ((pronounced airport)) (...) 305 2A: (0.5) airport.</p>

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language	
Signalling that the partner is using non-standard English: other-repetition	Signalling that the partner was using a non-standard form or word by repeating partner's word / phrase. This can also be used when the other speaker has already self-corrected.	<p>1GH10</p> <p>255 1G: [and]ehm is is good, 256 ehm you ehm you ehm(1.3) 257 you go and search a ship, 258 1G: (0.5)and I search chickens 259 and a swor<<laughing>d,> 260 1H: [((laughs))] 261 1G: [((laughs))]is that good; 262 1H: you search a sword; 263 (0.9)and I <<laughing>search> a ship, 264 (0.5)[oh shi:p;] ((puts his hand on his front, looking for something)) 265 1G: [((laughs))] 266 1H: nei;= ((no)) 267 1G: =yes,</p>
Signalling that the partner is using non-standard English	Signalling that the partner was using a non-standard form or word.	<p>2CD8</p> <p>285 2C: who wor da; 286 2D: (0.9) ((laughs)) ((puts his head on the desk)) [((laughs))] (0.3)yes; 287 2C: [who war on the party;]</p>

	Paralinguistic means	
Other-correction gestures and mime	Signalling to the partner that he/she is using a non-standard form or word or misusing a word by using gestures and mime.	<p>1EF10</p> <p>830 1E: ye:s we need organismus; 831 1F: ((curls her lips)) 832 1E: ((laughs)) [((laughs))] 833 1F: [((laughs))]yes;</p>
	Use of the school language	
Other-correction German	Correcting the other speaker in German.	<p>2IJ9</p> <p>011 2J: [<<whispering>di wei du weisch scho]du weisch scho, 012 dass du jitz grad hesch gseit du hesch es grosses Dorf> ((you know you've just said that you had a big village)) 013 2I: (0.9) 014 2J: <<whispering>village heisst Dorf;> ((means village)) 015 2I: mhm(0.6)<<p>äh a big village>(0.4)ja 016 2J: ((laughs))</p> <p>2AB5</p> <p>139 2A: (0.4)this a pla plane plane. 140 (0.4)plane= 141 2B: =flying 142 2A: plane 143 2B: nid ((not)) play 144 2A: plane ist Flugzeug. ((is plane)) 145 (1.5)ye[s,] 146 2B: [(pla]ne) (0.4)I [got play::]</p>

14.1.5 Asking the partner for help while exposing the trouble

14.1.5.1 Assistance appeal

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Assistance appeal (appropriate English)	Asking for help in appropriate English.	<p>1GH9</p> <p>412 1G: (1.3)and what's ono eh what's als[o]the 413 1H: [eh] 414 it's not so clean; 415 1G: yes it's ehm how do you say this; 416 1H: dirty; 417 1G: yes; 418 dirty;</p>
Assistance appeal (hesitation and expressing ignorance in English)	Asking for help by first hesitating and then expressing in English that one does not know how to continue.	<p>1EF4</p> <p>356 1E: [we can speak in Engl]no no we can speaking English so good, 357 we are(0.7) [<<p>I forget<<] 358 1F: [(laughs)]profis; 359 1E: yes;</p>
Assistance appeal (inappropriate English)	Asking for help in inappropriate English.	<p>1IJ9</p> <p>191 1J: (0.7)but the eh(1.2)but the:: (0.4)ts(0.5)what does(0.4)Bauer ((farmer)) in English, 192 in English, 193 1I: (0.8)oh that's a good question. 194 (1.3)ehm(2.7) 195 1J: help me please help.</p>

	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language	
Own accuracy check	Learner indication of some degree of uncertainty, expressed with words or with questioning intonation, about a self-produced form. As opposed to 'mumbling', speakers do not try to hide their uncertainty by e.g. using low voice.	1EF4 562 1F: [reading]riding with the [horse,] 563 1E: [riding.] 564 1F: (0.8)and I like it;
Assistance appeal (foreignized second foreign language)	Asking for help in foreignized French	1EF2 160 1F: [comment di]t:(0.8)what:(0.8)eh 161 1E: eh(0.7)all so [water]sports; 162 1F: [yeah;]
Assistance appeal (foreignized, single word)	Asking for help by saying the word or phrase one lacks in foreignized German or French. If the speaker uttering the foreignized word continues or uses continuing intonation and thus integrates it into ongoing talk rather than signalling she/he needs help, it is annotated as 'foreignizing German'.	2CD9 317 2D: =why he see (0.9)why [he]see out of the fenster, ((window)) 318 2C: [is] 319 2D: (1.8)fenster, ((window)) 320 ((laughs)) 321 2C: window window 322 2D: why he see out of the window, (0.6)and think oh he klatsch on the boden. ((fall on the floor)) 323

	Paralinguistic means	
Assistance appeal (gestures and mime)	Asking for help through gestures and mime, e.g. by pointing at a word on the paper. Only annotate hesitation supported by gestures and mime as assistance appeal when they are followed by provision of help. All other cases are annotated as completion.	1EF5 577 1F: a::nd:(0.5)music; 578 ehm(1.4)what, 579 (0.4)because do you like music. 580 which ehm cu eh which ehm(0.6) ((points at partner's paper with her pencil)) 581 1E: expressions; 582 1F: yes do you feel,

	Use of the school language	
Assistance appeal (school language or dialect or dialect, single word)	Asking for help by saying the word or phrase one lacks in German. If the German or foreignized words are uttered as though they were simply integrated into ongoing talk but the other speaker then provides help and if after the words in German there is no more English by the same speaker, such instances are annotated as assistance appeals. If the speaker uttering the German word continues and integrates the word into ongoing talk rather than signalling he/she needs help, it is annotated as 'single word in German'.	<p>2CD7</p> <p>130 2D: Sack, 131 2C: (0.4)((laughs)) 132 2D: ((laughs)) 133 2C: sack 134 2D: (0.8)oh yes;</p>
Assistance appeal (school language or dialect, phrase or sentence)	Asking for help with a German phrase or sentence. At times an utterance can ask for help with content rather than language. In those cases, it is not annotated as assistance appeal.	<p>2IJ3</p> <p>072 2J: <<p>ws heisst spile> ((what does play mean)) 073 2I: (0.4)<<p>play(0.5) playing> 074 2J: (0.6)I ca:: the ca::ts: ehm is my favourite with(0.5)sie played(0.3)with a: laser pointer.</p>
Own accuracy check (school language or dialect)	Expressing uncertainty about an uttered word or phrase and thus indirectly asking the partner for support.	<p>1IJ8b</p> <p>209 1I: (0.3)we we go i in ain a (0.9)lift, 210 <<whispering>lift isch Änglisch gloub;> ((lift is English I think)) 211 1J: (0.7)no; 212 (1.6)lift is not Änglisch 213 1I: lift lift lift lift lift, 214 (0.4)we go in the elevator or lift, 215 1J: elevato[r is good;]</p>
Assistance appeal (school language, interpreted as such by partner)	Utterance which is interpreted as assistance appeal by the other learner but which was probably not intended as such.	<p>2AB4</p> <p>057 2A: (0.5) homeworks, 058 English speaking [with]eh the: [teacher;] 059 2B: [like] 060 [was ((what)) like;] 061 2A: (0.8)like; 062 (0.7)wie wie ist ((how is)) like</p>

14.1.5.2 Clarification request

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Clarification request English	Asking for more information because the partner's last utterance is not fully understood. Clarification requests may also be used to express disbelief. Unless such instances are clearly not meant to sort out trouble in understanding, they are annotated as clarification requests.	2CD4 008 2D: (0.4)((laughs))(4.8)wie viel Zeit ((how much time)) for ensti for ein have then; 009 2C: (0.4) what? 010 2D: (1.1)this(0.4)this sentence ehm(0.7)I use twenty: minutes(0.4)circa(0.8)for my homework,
Clarification request English with immediate answer by the same speaker	As above but with immediate answer by the same speaker.	1EF8 679 you eat: (1.3)a hatsch(0.4)from a sheep. 680 1E: (0.6) what? 681 (0.4) no no no [no no no no: normal.]
Clarification request English, partner not finished	Asking for more information because partner hasn't finished his last utterance and is obviously lacking some resources. This is being used instead of completion. It rather marks the partner's lack of resources than that it helps to continue the conversation.	1IJ7 247 1I: eh no for for (1.1)f for(1.5)for (1.1)look in the internet, 248 (0.6)we can(1.1)we can(4.1)[we can] 249 1J: [what?] 250 (0.2) 251 <<laughing> what can we?> ((laughs)) 252 1I: we don't for (0.4)we don't forbidden the mobile 253 phone for(1.5)the school;
Clarification request English: expressing non-understanding	Expressing non-understanding and thus triggering further explanation by the interlocutor.	1GH5 051 1H: (1.1)eh:m(0.5)when do you: sho:w TV or <<dim>mo movies,> 052 1G: (0.2)e:h I don't understand; 053 1H: (0.4) 054 when do you show ehm ts 055 1G: y youtube videos; 056 1H: (0.5)ehm= 057 1G: or T[V,]

	Paralinguistic means	
Clarification request silence and mime	Asking for more information about partner's last utterance because it is not fully understood by e.g. staring at partner.	2EF3 067 2E: a:nd(0.6)yeah (0.5)ehm I like dogs; 068 because you can play with them:. 069 (0.8)and I like Weimaraner; 070 2F: ((leans back as though he wants to say 'what is that?')) 071 2E: and because that is a cool (0.4)'n big and they (0.5)(clove) when: the door's (0.5)open; 072 (0.5)they run outside;
Clarification request silence and mime with immediate answer by the same speaker	As above but with immediate answer by the same speaker.	2CD2 053 2D: (0.3)then we can can Bewohner; ((inhabitant)) 054 (0.9)fragen ((ask, pronounced freigen))((laughs)) 055 2C: ((looks into the air probably trying to figure out what his partner meant))ok[yeah yeah]yeah
Clarification request hm?	Asking for more information about partner's last utterance because it is not fully understood by saying hm? (German or English). When 'he?' is followed immediately by a confirmation check, only the confirmation check is annotated.	1IJ10 008 2I: (1.3)(ts chr) ehm the(2.5)<<p>ws heisst Herausforderung;> ((what does challenge mean)) 009 2J: (0.4) hm? 010 2I: <<p>Herausforderungen;> ((challenges)) 011 2J: (0.3)was? ((what)) 012 2I: Herausforderungen; ((challenges)) 013 2J: (1.6)<<p>Herausforderungen;> ((challenges)) 014 2I: ((laughs))ehm(4.0)ts(0.9)xxx xxx((mumbles))(0.8)it was a big waves, 015 s ehm(0.5)storms and icebergs; 016 (1.0)and (0.7)I want avoid storms iceberg and big waves,

	Use of the school language	
Clarification request German	Asking for more information in German, e.g. 'was'.	1IJ10 008 2I: (1.3)(ts chr) ehm the(2.5)<<p>ws heisst Herausforderung;> ((what does challenge mean)) 009 2J: (0.4)hm? 010 2I: <<p>Herausforderungen;> ((challenges)) 011 2J: (0.3) was? ((what)) 012 2I: Herausforderungen; ((challenges)) 013 2J: (1.6)<<p>Herausforderungen;> ((challenges)) 014 2I: ((laughs))ehm(4.0)ts(0.9)xxx xxx((mumbles))(0.8)it was a big waves, 015 s ehm(0.5)storms and icebergs; 016 (1.0)and (0.7)I want avoid storms iceberg and big waves,
Clarification request German with immediate answer by the same speaker	As above but with immediate answer by the same speaker.	2CD9 013 2C: yes I sta[rt]°°°h okay; 014 2D: [okay;] 015 2C: (0.4)the ehm(0.4)in a°°° in a(1.5) 016 2D: I'm tired; 017 2C: ehm 018 2D: ((laughs)) 019 2C: <<pp>he what<<p> was? > 020 (0.8)<<p> yes ; 021 yes ;>

14.1.5.3 Repetition request and exemplification request

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Repetition request full sentence	Requesting repetition when partner's last utterance is not fully understood.	<p>2IJ9</p> <p>005 2J: (0.3)ehm(0.4)eh okay ehm ts I have a little village (0.4)ehm(2.4)and you,</p> <p>006 2I: (2.5)I hav:e it not understand;</p> <p>007 can you repeat,</p> <p>008 2J: (0.5)ehm I have a little village;</p> <p>009 2I: (0.9)ah I have a (0.5)big village,</p>
	Minimal or inaccurate use of the target language	
Repetition request English not full sentence	Requesting repetition when partner's last utterance is not fully understood but not with a full sentence.	<p>1GH3</p> <p>171 1G: (0.6)he?</p> <p>172 <<p>repeat;></p> <p>173 1H: eh when you are eh old,</p> <p>174 1G: yes,</p> <p>175 1H: (0.4)eh I think eh(0.3)äh then you are not,</p>
	Use of the school language	
Repetition request German	Requesting repetition in German when partner's last utterance is not fully understood.	<p>2AB8</p> <p>120 2B: e' the the Stat,</p> <p>121 (0.9)<<p>ws no äinisch> ((what again.))</p> <p>122 2A: what did you d do on the Stat of Liberty.</p>

	More elaborate or accurate use of the target language	
Exemplification request English	Asking for an example in English.	<p>1EF5</p> <p>351 1E: what's rabbi can you: ex</p> <p>352 1F: (1.4)eh what?</p> <p>353 1E: what's [(0.3)]a rabbi <<p>we call> type <<dim>of music that you have say>;</p> <p>354 1F: [<<laughing>he>]</p> <p>355 (0.4)ah reggae that'[s::]ehm::(0.4)the Americans(0.9)ehm(0.5)e:h love this to sing,</p> <p>356 1E: [<<p>yes>]</p>
	Use of the school language	
Exemplification request, partly German	Asking for an example partly in the school language and partly in English.	<p>2IJ4</p> <p>055 2I: (0.6)play homework,</p> <p>056 (0.3)eh what have you e::h(1.0)ah Bispiu? ((example))</p> <p>057 2J: ((laughs))(0.7)pfh°°(1.8)no.</p> <p>058 2I: (1.5)why have you not a Bispiu. ((example))</p> <p>059 2J: ((laughs)) [((gestures))] (1.6) <<soundless>xxx xxx>(1.7)ehm(2.4)</p> <p>060 2I: [((laughs))]</p>

14.2 Annotating interaction strategies: some general issues

- Ensure every word or phrase is annotated once only.
- 'ja' is not annotated as single word in German.
- Hesitation markers are transcribed according to German notation and spelling.
- Gestures and mime are only annotated when they are used in place of words.
- If learners self-correct a word/phrase which could have been annotated as a strategy only annotate the second attempt plus self-correction.
 - And wore and was in a Dorf.
 - only annotate 'was'

Self-repetition: When learners self-repeat because of overlap this is not annotated as self-repetition because the purpose is not to gain time but rather to be understood. 'I li I like' is annotated as self-repetition of a chunk.

Self-repetitions of 'yes' and 'no':

- are not annotated as self-repetition
- Negotiation moves:
- In general, every turn was coded as potential carrier of a function within a negotiation move.
- Interaction strategies as part of negotiation moves:
 - Laughter is mostly not counted as extra turn within negotiation moves unless it replaced silence or mime and the next turn was by the other speaker again.
 - Hesitation markers occurring within a response move are annotated separately.

Lengthenings:

- Lengthenings were only annotated as such when the pronunciation of a syllable took longer than the surrounding talk.

Foreignizing:

- If a word is simply mispronounced, it is not annotated, even though this might be due to the fact that the word is the same in German and English.
- Some German words are very close to English and therefore foreignizing might happen unconsciously. Such cases are still annotated as foreignizing when from the accompanying talk we can assume that the learner is using a German word with English pronunciation.
- Changing pronunciation: If a word is simply mispronounced, it is not annotated as foreignizing, even though this might be due to the fact that the word is the same in German and in English.

14.3 Annotating pauses

What is a pause:

- Filled pauses (hesitation marker, gestures and mime) are not coded as pauses.
- Unfilled pauses of 0.4 seconds and longer are coded. Shorter pauses are not considered for coding.
- Pauses used as rhetoric devices rather than real pauses are also included. First, it is not always possible to distinguish them clearly from resource-deficit related pauses, second, learners would probably have used some pauses anyways and the impact on the overall value for fluency would not be changed. E.g. 1GH6, 2:59: Even though the pauses were included in this interaction, the following interaction has lower fluency scores than this one.
- Pauses before and after a long passage in the school language are included in the count. Within a German passage the pauses are ignored.

Clause-boundary or mid-clause pause:

- Pauses **between two clauses** – subordinate-clause, sub-clause or main clause – are coded as **clause-boundary** pause, even if the second clause is a verbatim repetition or a reworded version of the first clause (self-correction).
- Pauses within a **main clause** and a **sub-clause** or a **phrase** 'which can be elaborated to a full clause by means of recovery of ellipted elements from the context of the discourse or situation', (Foster et al., 2000, p.366) or a 'minor utterance' (Foster et al., 2000, p.366) are coded as **mid-clause** pauses.
- Pauses after **initial hesitation mark** (e.g. ehm, okay), **exclamation** (e.g. ah) or **'yes' / 'no'** are annotated as **clause-boundary** pauses. 'Yes' or 'no' is considered an ellipted one word element. Pauses in-between two **initial 'yes' / 'no'** are also annotated as **clause-boundary** pauses.
- Pauses **after a false start** are annotated as **mid-clause** pauses if the false start is not a complete clause, even if the pause is followed by a full clause.
- If a **speaker pauses within a clause because of overlap** but after the pause continues with a full clause, the pause is coded as **clause-boundary** clause.
- Pauses **before a completion** are coded as **mid-clause** pauses.
- Pauses **after an assistance appeal** are coded as **clause-boundary** pauses.

Attributing the pause to the current or the next speaker:

- **Clause-boundary** pauses are attributed to the **next** speaker.
- **Clause-boundary** pauses are attributed to the **current** speaker when it is clear from the eye gaze or other mime and gestures that the current speaker does not intend to cede the floor but wants to add a next clause.
- **Mid-clause** pauses are attributed to the **current** speaker.
- Pauses **before a completion** are attributed to the **current** speaker.
- Pauses **after a completion** are attributed to the **next** speaker.
- Pauses after an **assistance appeal** are attributed to the **next** speaker.
- Pauses after **initial hesitation mark** (e.g. ehm, okay), **exclamation** (e.g. ah) or **'yes' / 'no'** are attributed to the same speaker.

15 Sample transcript with annotations and stimulated recall interview inserted in Partitur Editor

[2]

	16 [05:20.6]	17 [05:22.2]
1G [v]	ehm do you like homework?	
1G [body]		
1H [v]		(0.3)
1H [body]		
1G [interaction_strategy]	2a2 fillers hmm1a2 start appropriate	
1G [non-speaking_time]		
1H [non-speaking_time]		
1G [AS-unit]	x	

[3]

	18 [05:22.5]	19 [05:23.1*]	20 [05:24.8]
1H [v]	eh	((laughs)) eh	<<laughing>fifty-fifty>
1H [interaction_strategy]	1a2 start appropriate	2a2 fillers hmm	2a2 fillers hmm 3c1 paraphrase
[v]	<i>laughter as filled pause</i>		<i>SR: R: Du lachst dich da. 1H: I ha nid gwüssst, ob i jetzt söu säge no yes so oder fifty-fifty. Zersch hani müesse überlege.</i>
1H [non-speaking_time]		x	
1H [AS-unit]			x

[4]

	..	21 [05:26.4]	22 [05:26.7]	23 [05:27.7]	24 [05:28.3*]
1G [v]			((laughs))	((laughs))	
1H [v]			((laughs))	<<laughing>and you,>	
1H [interaction_strategy]				7c2 offering turn in English	
[v]	<i>1G: Das isch sehr luschtig. Egau obs luschtig isch oder nid, mir lache würklech sehr viu.</i>				
1G [non-speaking_time]			x		x
1H [non-speaking_time]		x			
1H [AS-unit]			x		

[5]

	..	25 [05:29.0]	26 [05:29.5]
1G [v]	<<laughing>no::>	ehm ye:s I I don't like eh ehm nei I don't like homework. ehm	
1G [body]		<i>flat palm back and forth</i>	
1H [v]	((laughs))	((laughs))	
1G [interaction_strategy]		2a2 fillers hmm 3e1 gestures and mime plus sound	2e1 self-repetition of a single word 2a2 fillers hmm 2a3 fillers
1H [non-speaking_time]	x	x	
1G [AS-unit]		x	

[6]

		27 [05:36.2]	28 [05:36.8]	29 [05:37.2]	30 [05:37.7]
1G [v]		(0.6)	to	(0.5)	to which time you do
1G [body]					
1H [v]					
1G [interaction_strategy]	German2e3 self-repetition of a chunk with words added and minor reformulation 2a2 fillers hmm				2e1 self-repetition of a
1H [non-speaking_time]					
1G [clause-boundary]		x			
1G [mid-clause]				x	
1G [AS-unit]					x

[7]

		31 [05:40.4]	32 [05:41.8]
1G [v]	you make ehm the	(1.4)	the homework;
1H [v]			
1G [interaction_strategy]	single word 2e3x self-repetition of a word with words added 2a2 fillers hmm		2e1 self-repetition of a single word
[v]			
1G [mid-clause]		x	
1H [clause-boundary]			
1G [AS-unit]			

(...)

[11]

	..	36 [05:47.6]	37 [05:48.9]	38 [05:50.0]	39 [05:51.9]	40 [05:52.5]	41 [05:53.3]	42 [05:55.1]
1G [v]		(1.3)	m:::	eh how many time do you	(0.7)	ehm::	(1.8)	<<p>do you>
1G [body]		<i>looks at his paper</i>						
1G [interaction_strategy]			2a2 fillers hmm	2a2 fillers hmm	2e2 self-repetition of a chunk	2a2 fillers hmm		2e2 self-repetition of a
[v]		<i>das meint. ...</i>						
1G [mid-clause]		x			x		x	

[12]

	..	43 [05:55.8]	44 [05:56.5*]	45 [05:58.0]	46 [05:58.6]	47 [05:59.2]
1G [v]						
1H [v]		((laughs))	<<laughing>	I don't know>	((laughs))	(0.6) because we ha::ve e:h all all days we have a
1G [interaction_strategy]		chunk4e	Mumbling			
1H [interaction_strategy]						2a1 lengthenings 2a2 fillers hmm 2e1 self-repetition of a
1H [non-speaking_time]		x		x		
1H [clause-boundary]					x	
1H [AS-unit]			x			
1H [sub-clause]					x	

[13]

	..	48 [06:04.5]
1G [v]		yes yes. I fing ehm: ehm even other ehm so
1H [v]		other homework,
1G [interaction_strategy]		3d1a1 foreignizing German 2a2 fillers hmm 2a2 fillers hmm 2f self-
1H [interaction_strategy]		single word 2e3 self-repetition of a chunk with words added and minor reformulation
[v]		<i>SR: R: Du seisch da yes, yes. 1G: Ja, i ha wahrschinlech chli viu Wörter</i>
1G [AS-unit]		x
1H [sub-clause]		

[14]

	..	49 [06:14.4]	50 [06:14.8]
1G [v]	sometim:es ehm twenty minutes sometimes w one hour,		ehm
1H [v]		(0.4)	yes.
1G [interaction_strategy]	repetition of first part of a word	2a1 lengthenings 2a2 fillers hmm3c1 paraphrase 2f self-repetition of first part of a word	2a2 fillers hmm
1H [interaction_strategy]			7a1b active response:
[v]	<i>verschlückt, wöu i chli närvös bi gsi.</i>		
1H [clause-boundary]		x	
1G [AS-unit]			

[15]

	..	51 [06:15.3]	52 [06:15.5]	53 [06:16.1]	54 [06:16.5]	55 [06:17.3]	56 [06:18.1]	57 [06:20.5]
1G [v]		(0.2)	yes.	(0.4)	it's:	(even) another		
1H [v]						((laughs))	<<laughing>oder sometime one minute.>((laughs))	
1G [interaction_strategy]			4f and yeah		2a1 lengthenings			
1H [interaction_strategy]	backchannelling						3d1a1 foreignizing German	
1H [non-speaking_time]						x		x
1G [clause-boundary]			x					
1G [AS-unit]					x			
1H [AS-unit]							x	

16 Pruning the texts

16.1 All measurements

- Exclude passages when learners are writing, drawing, getting ready for the task or waiting for the teacher.
- Exclude passages from the analysis with more than two words in German (apart from proper names).
- Exclude all 'syllables, words or phrases that were subsequently repeated, reformulated, or replaced': reformulations, replacements (Mehnert, 1998, p.90)
- Repetition not indicating disfluency but used for rhetorical effect is not being pruned, e.g. very, very.
- Unintelligible single words are included as 'xxx'.
- Exclude hesitation markers (ehm, uh) but not any complete English word which serves the purpose of gaining time, e.g. 'yes' or 'okay' or longer chunks for gaining time.
- 'Ja' is replaced by yeah as it is never certain whether the word is meant to be German or English.
- Assistance appeal and other-correction:
 - The final version of an utterance produced with the assistance of the peer is included and attributed to the speaker who was seeking help. Initial incorrect versions are excluded.
 - Chunks used for seeking help are attributed to the speaker who is seeking help. Other-repetitions and confirmations after having received help before reformulating own utterance are also attributed as AS-unit to the speaker.

16.2 Syntactical complexity measures

- 'I don't know' as a time-gaining device inserted into a clause is counted as a separate AS-unit.
- All one-word utterances are ignored.
- If single words (e.g. 'okay') are used as fillers within a reformulation, they are ignored. The following and combinations of these words are excluded: Oh, Yes, Yeah, No, Nei, Näi, Ah, Aha, Okay (not when used within a chunk, e.g. 'That's okay', 'It's okay'.), Aso.
- Co-constructed clauses:
 - The incomplete part is attributed as an AS-unit to the first speaker, if there is a sign of hesitation (pause of 0.4 or longer). The clause is excluded if we can assume that the speaker was interrupted and therefore could not finish.
 - If one speaker starts a clause and then the second speaker completes this but first repeats the first speaker's part of the clause, the complete clause is attributed as an AS-unit to the second speaker.
- Exclude 'hello', good-morning, good-bye, ciao, ...
- Exclude units which consist of only one word which is repeated several times or a single word in German which is then translated into English.
- Message abandonment because of interruption or overlap is ignored.

- Initial okay/yes/no is not attributed to the following clause when it is followed by a pause of 0.4 seconds or longer.
- Echo responses or verbatim other-repetitions are not excluded. This in contrast to Foster's recommendations for a level two analysis (Foster et al., 2000).
- Self-repetitions:
 - Self-repetitions after the other speaker has had a turn are not excluded unless it is very clear, that they are part of a reformulation of the message. Self-repetitions after a confirmation check are not ignored but counted as a new AS-unit.
 - However:
 - If it is not clear whether two sub-clausal units belong to the same AS-units, the length of the pause is decisive. If it is 0.4 seconds or longer, the two are counted separately.
 - Imperatives which are self-repeated verbatim are excluded.
 - If a noun is repeated many times (more than twice), e.g.
A: please.
B: no.
A: please.
B: no.
The third and following instances are excluded from the analysis for syntactical complexity.
- 'And you' at the end of an utterance is counted as separate AS-unit. It is interpreted as a sub-clausal version of 'And what do you think? 'What did you do?'

16.3 Fluency measures

Echo responses which are verbatim are included as their exclusion might distort the speech rate.

16.4 Lexical complexity measures

In addition to the above the following are excluded:

- proper names
- names of countries and cities were included
- words in German
- non-standard words, foreignized words.
- unintelligible single words 'xxx'.

The following frequently used words were replaced in all the interactions by the standard forms. The machine can not take them into consideration and an automatic exclusion might disadvantage those higher level learners who use the words correctly several times (lower range of lexis because the key term is included): homeworks, sheeps, churches, sandwiches.

16.5 Sample transcript as exported from Partitur Editor

The analysis was based on the full transcript in the Partitur Editor. The following section contains a sample transcript as exported from EXMARaLDA's Partitur Editor (Schmidt and Wörner, 2014). These transcripts contain some features which – for reasons of time – were not corrected manually.

- Gestures and mime were not transcribed in the same tier as spoken words. In the tier for spoken words only a placeholder was added (gestures/mime). More precise descriptions of gestures and mime could therefore not be exported into the following transcripts but were inserted manually in the extracts chosen for the thesis.
- When learners were writing or being disturbed by another learner, this was noted as pauses and annotated separately in the Partitur Editor and excluded from the measure for time on-task. In the following transcripts such pauses appear as overlapping pauses.
- EXMARaLDA automatically exports extra lines when tiers which do not belong to a speaker contain some information. Therefore, the exported transcripts sometimes contained empty lines. For the same reasons, a new line may start within a turn.

```
010 1G: ehm do you like homework?
011 1H: (0.3)eh
012 ((laughs (1.8)))eh <<laughing>fifty-fifty>
013 ((laughs (0.4)))
014 [<<laughing>and you,>]
015 1G: [((laughs (1.0)))]((laughs (0.6))) <<laughing>no::>
016 1H: ((laughs))((laughs))
017 1G: ehm ye:s I I don't like eh ehm nei I don't like homework.
018 ehm (0.6)to(0.5)
019 to which time you do you make ehm the(1.4)the homework;
020 1H: (2.0)aha.
021 how many time
022 1G: ah how many time
023 (1.3)m:::eh how many time do you(0.7)ehm::(1.8)<<p>do you>
024 1H: ((laughs)) <<laughing> I don't know>((laughs))
025 (0.6)because we ha::ve e:h all all days we have a other homework,
026 1G: yes yes.
027 I fing ehm: ehm even other ehm so sometim:es ehm twenty minutes
sometimes w one hour,
028 1H: (0.4)[yes.]
029 1G: [ehm](0.2)yes.
030 (0.4)it's: [(even) another]
031 1H: [((laughs))]<<laughing>oder sometime one minute.>
032 1G: [<<laughing>yes.> ]
033 1H: [((laughs))][((laughs))]
034 1G: [((laughs))]ehm
035 1H: e::hm ts w which homewo:rk d eh do you like to make;
036 1G: (0.5)ehm[I ]like homeworks like a presentation,
037
038 1H: [((laughs))]
039 aha=
040 1G: =or eh' yes.
041 1H: <<laughing>ah power point,>
042 [((laughs))]
043 1G: [a power point presentation or](0.3)ehm I don't ehm:(1.3)can say this
[in]German ehm(0.5)
044 1H:
[(corre)]
045 eh
046 1G: don't know what it is in:(0.4)English.
047 1H: e: [:h ]I like fo eh to learn(0.5)learning words,
048 1G: [sorry.=]
049 1H: eh a:nd(0.5) test[s]
```

16.6 Sample pruned texts

In the following example of a pruned text, every line contains one clause. Subordinate clauses are indented.

Incomplete parts of co-constructed clauses are printed in bold preceded by dots.

When a speaker is interrupted, the clause is printed in bold followed by dots.

Message abandonments are printed in bold and italics.

Printed in blue are words or phrases which were excluded for lexical complexity measures.

The two examples are taken from the transcripts presented in Appendix 16.5.

1G4

Do you like homework?

No.

Yes, I don't like homework.

To which time do you make the homework?

How many time?

How many time do you?

Yes, yes, I **find** even other.

So sometimes twenty minutes, sometimes one hour.

Yes.

It's even another.

Yes, it's even another.

I like homeworks like a presentation or **yes** power point presentation or.

I don't can say this in German.

Don't know

what it is in English, sorry.

1H4

Fifty-fifty.

And you?

How many time.

I don't know.

because all days we have a other homework.

Yes.

Oder sometime one minute.

Which homework do you like to make?

Ah power point.

xxx

I like

learning words and tests.

17 Excerpts from written paper: Measuring speaking performance of low-level learners

'Speaking performance has been measured in various ways and for different purposes (Housen et al., 2012). This paper investigates how low-level learners' speaking performance in the context of Swiss state education can be measured for research purposes. Various existing measures have been applied to four sample task-based interactions. Based on this, a range of measures is proposed which can be used when some quantitative information on the quality of low-level learners' language is needed. In addition, a limited range of measures is suggested for research projects focusing on other aspects than mere quality of speaking performance.

(...)

The following provides an overview of different measures and also illustrates possible overlap.

	Fluency	Accuracy	Range	Coherence	Interaction
External ratings (profile only)					
CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001, p.28f)	fluent and spontaneous expression tempo pauses, false starts, reformulations	grammatical control of language grammatical accuracy grammatical structures and 'routines' sentence patterns	range of language repertoire of words and phrases	linking words and groups of words, elements cohesive devices	discourse functions, getting or keeping the floor, relating own contribution to those of other speakers initiate, maintain and end conversation help discussion along invite others ask and answer questions
<i>Lingualevel</i> (Lenz and Studer, 2008)	as above	as above	as above	Partly included in 'range'	as above
Internal measures					
Cognitive approaches in task-based research (e.g. Skehan, 2014a)	speed flow breakdown: silent and non-silent pausing repair	error-free clauses errors per 100 words length accuracy error gravity	Lexical complexity Lexical diversity Lexical density Lexical sophistication Syntactical complexity number of words per clauses Syntactical complexity: degree of subordination range of structural use		
Cognitive-interactionist approaches (e.g. Long, 1996) (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997)	Interactional moves (negotiation of meaning, modified output) Conversational feedback (explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, ...)				
Sociocultural approaches in task-based research (van Lier and Matsuo, 2000) (Galaczi, 2014)					Symmetry Topic development moves, listener support, turn-taking management

(...)

Based on the literature review above, the following measures are proposed for assessing low-level learners' speaking performance:

Area	Variable	Description	Studies	Tools and Procedures
Fluency: internal				
Speed	Pruned speech rate ¹⁹	Number of words (excluding hesitation markers, repetitions, self-corrections, false starts, one-word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses) per minute ignoring passages when learners are writing, laughing or speaking German (longer than two words)	(Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005)	Manually prune text, calculate number of pruned words number of pruned words divided by (overall speaking time minus writing/German) in seconds, multiplied by 60
	Unpruned speech rate	Number of words per minute ignoring passages when learners are writing, laughing or speaking German (longer than two words)		number of unpruned words divided by (overall speaking time minus writing/German) in seconds, multiplied by 60 export one tier from EXMARaLDA, remove passages when learner is writing or laughing, automatically remove numbers, brackets, etc., calculate word number
Flow: breakdown fluency	Mid-clause silence total	The total length of pauses ²⁰ in the middle of a clause per 100 words (raw number of words or pruned number of words). ²¹	(Bui Hiu Yuet, 2014)	In EXMARaLDA annotate pauses as being mid- or end-clause, calculate annotated time, divide by pruned/unpruned number of words, multiply by 100
	Mid-clause pause length	The average length of pauses in the middle of a clause.	(Wang, 2014)	In EXMARaLDA annotate pauses as being mid- or end-clause, calculate annotated time for mid-clause pauses, divide by number of mid-clause pauses (count segments in EXMARaLDA)

¹⁹ **Bold:** Measures, which according to research findings can be expected to be most useful.

²⁰ Pauses longer than 0.4 second were included (for reasons see Skehan, 2014a, p.19).

²¹ Number of pauses and the total amount of silence distinguishing between intra-clause and clause boundary pauses as they might have different effects on fluency for native and non-native speakers (Davies, 2003).

	Mid-clause pause number	Number of pauses in the middle of a turn per one hundred words (pruned or unpruned). A pause operationalized as any break of 0.4 second or longer.	(Foster and Skehan, 1996; Wang and Skehan, 2014)	In EXMARaLDA annotate pauses as being mid- or end-clause, automatically calculate number of mid-clause pauses, divide by pruned/unpruned number of words multiplied by 100
	Clause-boundary silence total	The total length of pauses at the end of a clause per one hundred words.	(Bui Hiu Yuet, 2014)	In EXMARaLDA annotate pauses as being mid- or end-clause, calculate annotated time for clause-boundary pauses, divide by pruned number of words, multiply by 100
	Clause-boundary pause length	The average length of pauses at the end of a clause.	(Wang, 2014)	In EXMARaLDA annotate pauses as being mid- or end-clause, calculate annotated time for clause-boundary pauses, divide by number of clause-boundary pauses
	Clause-boundary-pause number	Number of pauses at the end of a clause per one hundred words (pruned or unpruned).	(Skehan and Foster, 2005)	In EXMARaLDA calculate number of clause-boundary pauses, divide by pruned number of words multiplied by 100
Composite measure: flow	Phonation time ratio	Percentage of time spent speaking as a percentage proportion of the time taken to produce the speech sample	(Towell et al., 1996; Kormos and Dénes, 2004)	In EXMARaLDA calculate annotated time, deduct mid-clause silence total and clause-boundary silence total, divide by annotated time, multiply by 100
Fluency: external				
Expert rating	Overall fluency	<i>Lingualevel</i> scales for fluency	(Lenz and Studer, 2008)	Teachers rate learners' performance according to <i>Lingualevel</i> scales (fluency)

Area	Variable	Description	Studies	Tools and Procedures
Accuracy: internal				
Global measure	Length accuracy score	‘To compute this measure, all clauses are ranked by length, so that all clauses of two, three, ... twelve words are brought together and the proportion of each clause length used without error is computed. A criterion is set (say 70% correct use) and then the maximum length which reaches this is taken to be the clause length accuracy score or LAC.’		Manually exclude false starts, repetitions, self-corrections, one word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses from text. Identify correct and incorrect AS-units Manually count number of words per AS-unit Manually the number of correct AS-units per word length
Local measure	Ratio correct verbs	Correct use of verb in terms of tense, person, aspect and lexical choice.		Code every verb as either correct or incorrect, calculate number of verbs per total of verbs used
Accuracy: external				
Expert rating	Overall accuracy	<i>Lingualevel</i> scales for accuracy		Teachers rate learners’ performance according to <i>Lingualevel</i> scales (accuracy)

Area	Variable	Description	Studies	Tools and Procedures
Interaction: internal				
Topic development	Initiation	Speaker initiates a new topic	(Galaczi, 2014)	All the interaction measures can be annotated in EXMARaLDA
	Extension: 'other' topic	Speaker extends on an other-initiated topic.		
	Extension: 'own' topic	Speaker extends on an own-initiated topic.		
	Minimal extension	Speaker extends minimally on a given topic, e.g. <i>yes</i> .		
	Echoing previous turn	Speaker echoes previous turn.		
Speaker selection and turn-taking	No-gap-no-overlap	Speaker starts turn with no gap nor overlap to previous turn.		
	Following a pause	Speaker starts turn after a pause.		
	Following a latch or overlap	Speaker starts turn with latch or overlap.		
Listener support	Backchannelling	Speaker uses backchannelling, e.g. <i>aha, hmm</i> .		
	Confirmations of comprehension	Speaker confirms comprehension, e.g. <i>right, yeah exactly</i> .		
	Absence of listener support	No listener support.		
Interaction: external				
Expert rating	Overall interaction	<i>Lingualevel</i> scales for complexity		Teachers rate learners' performance according to <i>Lingualevel</i> scales (interaction)

Area	Variable	Description	Studies	Tools and Procedures
Complexity: internal				
Propositional	Overall	Total number of moves		Calculate the total of initiations, extensions and minimal extensions and standardize
Syntactical	Overall (words per AS-unit)	Average number of words (false starts, repetitions, self-corrections, one word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses excluded) in all AS units.	utterances instead of AS, similarly to my study it also deals with low-level learners	Number of pruned words divided by number of AS-units
	Subordination (clauses per AS-unit)	Clauses per AS unit (one word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses excluded). ²²		In EXMARaLDA annotate start of AS-unit and any subordinate clause Calculate number of AS-unit and subordinate clause Total number of subordinate clauses plus AS-units divided by total AS units
	Elaboration (words per clause)	Average number of words (false starts, repetitions, self-corrections, one word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses excluded) in all clauses (number of AS units plus number of subordinate clauses and infinites).	(e.g. Bui Hiu Yuet, 2014)	Annotate AS-units and sub-clauses, calculate number of AS-units and sub-clauses Number of pruned words divided by number of AS-units and sub-clauses
lexical	Lexical diversity: D	VOCD provides a measure of lexical density corrected for text length and is described in more detail by Malvern and Richards (Malvern et al., 2004).	(Malvern and Richards, 2002) (McCarthy and Jarvis, 2010; Nitta and Nakatsuhara, 2014, p.154)	Manually prune text Calculate MTL D with Cohmetrix (McNamara et al., 2014) or Text

²² The AS-unit is an utterance consisting of an independent clause together with any subordinate clauses associated with it (Foster et al., 2000).

				<p>inspector (Text Inspector, 2016)</p> <p>Calculate VOCD with Cohmetrix or D_tools (Meara, n.d.) or Text inspector (Text Inspector, 2016)</p>
	Lexical density	ratio of content words to total words	Hardly reported in studies.	<p>Calculate number of content words with Cohmetrix (Cambridge University Press, no date) or Text Inspector (Text Inspector, 2016)</p>
	Lexical sophistication, Lambda	Lambda: the extent to which learners access less frequent words: 'A text is divided into ten-word chunks, and then the number of infrequent words used in each ten-word chunk is calculated', (Cambridge University Press, no date)		<p>Use one learner's text excluding false starts, repetitions, self-corrections, one word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses.</p> <p>Calculate Lambda with VocabProfile (Cobb, n.d.; Heatley et al., 2002)</p>
	Lexical sophistication, compositionality	Mean number of syllables per word		<p>Calculate with Cohmetrix (McNamara et al. 2014)</p>
Complexity: external				
Expert rating	Overall complexity	Lingualevel scales for complexity		<p>Teachers rate learners' performance according to Lingualevel scales (range)</p>

(...)

17.1 Fluency

Fluency is of a complex and multifaceted nature and therefore various techniques have been used to measure it (McCarthy, 2010). Researchers often distinguish between speed (rate of delivery), breakdown (pausing behaviour), and repair (frequency of self-corrections and repetitions) fluency, using different measures for each one of them (for an overview see Segalowitz, 2010). Skehan (2014b, p.18f) suggests that we should group the different aspects of fluency into flow of speech (breakdown and repair fluency) and speed of speech (speed fluency) and use as a further category composite measures such as phonation time.

Fluency, however 'is not a simple question of identifying features which are physically present in a speaker's productions; there is also the issue of how those features are *perceived* by a listener', (Taylor, 2011, p.82). Some disfluency markers might be perceived as minor interruptions whereas others can be more obtrusive. Bosker et al. (2012) for example, found that all three aspects (speed, breakdown and repair) are involved in fluency perception by native speakers but that speed and breakdown fluency are most strongly related to human ratings.

Kormos and Dénes (2004) found that speech rate, the mean length of runs and pace, i.e. speed fluency correlated best with teacher's fluency scores. Hilton (2014) draws similar conclusion from her data in that temporal fluency measurements (speed fluency) 'appear to be a good way of obtaining objective indicators of 'ease of processing'' (Hilton, 2014, p.45). Wang and Skehan (2014, p.169) however, on the basis of a factor analysis claim that speed fluency factors do not emerge as most salient fluency indicators but that the repair fluency measure 'number of false starts per 100 words' does. It is therefore not very clear which measures can best capture learners' fluency.

The finding in some studies that repair fluency seems least able to predict expert ratings for fluency may be attributed to the fact that repairs (i.e. hesitations, reformulations, etc.) can also be perceived as an interaction strategy to hold the floor or trigger co-constructions, which at low levels may impact positively on perceived fluency. It is therefore suggested to exclude repair fluency measures when working with the given data set.

Findings concerning breakdown fluency are mixed. Researchers have found marked differences in the way different pausing behaviours may distort the perceived flow of speech. Hilton (2014) found that mid-clause pauses impacted negatively on fluency and therefore claims that 'the proportion of clause-internal hesitations is a sensitive indicator of fluency level', (Hilton, 2014, p.45). Others found similar differences between clause boundary and mid-clause hesitations (Segalowitz, 2010; Davies, 2003; Wang and Skehan, 2014, p.169).

Lambert and Kormos (2014) warn not to take fluency measures as a direct reflection of language development. There are many other variables at play such as speech rate in learners' L1, personal styles or the fact that at some point speech rate does not increase any more due to comprehensibility (Lambert and Kormos, 2014, p.610). However, in the beginnings of learning a new language, fluency levels may still be too low to be distorted by such effects.

In order to measure speed and breakdown fluency, one can apply various ways of measurement. Speed fluency can be measured by either counting syllables, stressed words or words per minute. Low level learners' speech is interspersed with pauses, hesitations, drawls. In addition, stress patterns are often very inconsistent or even not recognisable. It seems therefore more appropriate to count words rather than stressed words. Syllables would also be an option (e.g. Riggerbach, 1990). Counting words rather than syllables would only impact the results if some learners used many long words whereas others only used short ones. However, low level learners' lexical knowledge is normally within the range of the first 1000 words and we can therefore assume that no learner will make use of many very long words. As the number of words can also be used for other measures (accuracy, syntactical and lexical complexity) it is

therefore suggested – for practical reasons – to use a word count rather than syllable count with the given data set.

Next, there is the question whether one should work with pruned or unpruned text, i.e. excluding repetitions, reformulations, etc. from the word count. Using unpruned speech may sound more economic than laboriously pruning what low level learners have said. However, pruned speech seems to differentiate better between groups (Yuan and Ellis, 2003) and a pruned text can also be used for measuring lexical complexity. For these reasons, it is suggested to use both pruned and unpruned text to be able to compare the results.

When measuring breakdown fluency, one has to consider the different types of pauses: they can be filled with hesitation markers or words which do not contribute to the meaning of the ongoing speech (e.g. well) (Skehan, 2014b) but they can also be silent. But even when silent – especially at low levels – pauses might be filled with gestures and mime. In fact, Götz (2013, p.70) claims that nonverbal fluency (gestures, facial expressions and body language) might have an important function in low-level learners' speech. Nonverbal fluency she adds, can enhance the productive and perceptive fluency of non-native speakers. 'Particularly when it comes to communication between at least two people, kinesics have effects on both speaking and listening behaviour, i.e. on productive as well as perceptive fluency', (Götz, 2013, p.70). When assessing low level learners' speech production, pauses filled with gestures and mime should therefore not be considered as 'unfilled'.

If number of pauses is indeed an indication of learners' proficiency, it remains open what counts as a pause in low level learners' interactions. De Jong & Bosker (2013) suggest using a cut-off point of 230ms for unfilled pauses as this was found to correlate highly between the number of silent pauses and measures of proficiency (measured as vocabulary proficiency). However, when relating measures of L2 fluency to perceived fluency they found that for mean duration of silent pauses the correlation did not change when the threshold level was changed to 400ms. Raters seem to take into account only longer pauses (>400 ms) (de Jong and Bosker, 2013). This means that for cases when – as with this study – range of vocabulary is measured separately and the fluency measure is used to reflect how learners would be judged for their fluency, a higher cut-off point (400 ms) seems to be sufficient.

In addition to the above aspects of fluency, some researchers have also used composite measures such as mean length of run (number of utterances abandoned before completion followed by a reformulation per 100 words) (Skehan and Foster, 2005) or phonation time (percentage of time spent speaking as a percentage proportion of the time taken to produce the speech sample) (Towell et al., 1996; Kormos and Dénes, 2004). The first seems rather inappropriate for the present data as learners hardly ever produce complete utterances and often co-construct their speech. Thus incomplete utterances would have to be attributed to both learners.

Phonation time ratio however, might be a promising measure as first it was found to correlate with teachers' fluency ratings (Kormos and Dénes, 2004) and second, it can be calculated rather easily from existing transcripts. Another advantage of including phonation time ratio is the fact that it summarises various measures related to silent pausing (mid-clause and clause-boundary pauses) and considers non-silent pauses as 'productive'. The latter might be especially worthwhile with the present data set as filled pauses help low level learners gain time while still keeping the floor. In sum, phonation time ratio's multifaceted nature might make this a very simple but still valid measure for the present data set.

(...)

17.2 Complexity

L2 complexity is of an equally multidimensional and multilayered nature as fluency. It may encompass dimensions such as discourse-interactional, propositional and linguistic complexity (Bulté and Housen, 2012). Discourse-interactional complexity is manifested in the 'number and type of turn changes that learners initiate and the interactional moves and participation roles that they engage in' (Bulté and Housen, 2012, p.25). Discourse-interactional complexity will be ignored here as the turn-taking will be analysed as part of "interaction".

17.2.1 *Propositional complexity*

Propositional complexity considers the 'number of information or idea units which a speaker/writer encodes in a given language task to convey a given message content' (Bulté and Housen, 2012, p.24). Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) propose measuring propositional complexity by counting the number of idea units. However, depending on how learners interpret and complete the task, the number of idea units which are needed to fully 'conceptualize' the content vary and thus scores are no longer comparable. An alternative might be to measure propositional complexity by counting the number of topic-initiations and/or development moves. By so doing, it is assumed that the higher the number of initiation and development moves the more extended the encoding of ideas is. Thus an interaction score would measure the proportion of development moves to initiation moves whereas propositional complexity measures the total number of moves.

17.2.2 *Linguistic complexity*

To date, linguistic complexity has received most attention in research. For some time, it has mainly been operationalised as syntactical complexity. In recent years, studies have also considered lexical complexity. Bulté and Housen (2012) subdivide linguistic complexity into syntactical diversity (elaboration, range, and breadth) and sophistication (depth/degree of structural complexity) and lexical density, diversity, compositionality and sophistication. Various techniques have been used for measuring aspects of both syntactical and lexical complexity (for an overview see Bulté and Housen, 2012). Most of the measures used are of a generic nature and tap into more than one source of complexity (Bulté and Housen, 2012, p.36). Bulté and Housen (2012, p.37) convincingly show that none of the existing measures is unproblematic. Subordination measures for example, only focus on syntactic complexity on the sentential level and ignore complexity on clausal or phrasal level. In addition, they seem less effective at higher levels of proficiency (Norris and Ortega, 2009).

Norris and Ortega (2009) therefore propose to use measures which involve different aspects of global complexity, e.g. 'overall complexity (e.g. mean length of T-unit), complexity by subordination (e.g. mean number of clauses per T-unit), and complexity by subclausal or phrasal elaboration (e.g. mean length of clause)' (Norris and Ortega, 2009, p.574) and to complement these by local measures of complexity such as structural variety and sophistication (e.g. frequency of passive forms) or morphological measures (e.g. variety of past tense form). The two length measures – length of unit and length of clause – can capture complexity 'in the sense of structural substance or compositionality (...)' and 'tap into different sources of complexity – phrasal, clausal and sentential,' (Bulté and Housen, 2012, p.36). Wang and Skehan (2014) subjected different linguistic complexity measures to a factor analysis and found that the 'highest typical loading were (...) the measure of subordination per AS-unit' (Wang and Skehan, 2014, p.169).

In order to calculate a subordination or length score, some syntactical unit is needed which can serve as a basis for measuring the proportion of sub-clauses to main

clauses or the length of a unit. Foster and her colleagues (2000) convincingly argue for the use of the Analysis of Speech-Unit (AS-unit) rather than any of the other units used in research (e.g. T- or C-unit) for analysing spoken data. The AS-unit is defined as 'a single speaker's utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clausal unit, together with any sub-ordinate clause(s) associated with either' (Foster et al., 2000, p.365). The main advantage of this unit is that it can address highly interactional data including co-constructions and elliptic utterances. Foster and her colleagues also define three levels for a principled omission of data. For the present data set, it is suggested to apply level two (suitable for highly interactional data) and exclude one-word minor utterances and verbatim echo responses. Such short utterances might otherwise 'distort the perception of the nature of the performance' (Foster et al., 2000, p.370) or language produced by one learner may be attributed to the other.

Local measures of linguistic complexity seem not to be appropriate measures to analyse the present data. Low level learners may produce not enough syntactical varieties or if they do produce them, they might be used inappropriately. Learners might for example use the past form instead of present because that is the only form they can recall under time pressure. In such cases, the use of past is probably not a sign of more complex speech. It is therefore suggested to limit the analysis of the present data to measures of overall complexity (number of words per AS-unit), sentential-subordination complexity (number of subordination clauses and verb infinites per AS-unit) and subclausal or phrasal elaboration (number of words per clause (AS-unit plus subordination clauses/verb infinites)).

17.2.3 Lexical complexity

Lexical complexity has also been measured in different ways (Bulté and Housen, 2012). The different measures cover one of the following three aspects: lexical diversity, lexical density or lexical sophistication (Skehan, 2014b). Lexical diversity has mostly been measured by some kind of type token ratio (TTR) which is corrected for text length, e.g. the *Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity* (McCarthy and Jarvis, 2010; Nitta and Nakatsuhara, 2014, p.154). There are some online tools available for measuring lexical diversity. Cohmetrix (McNamara et al., 2005) for example, includes two types of indices of lexical diversity which correct for text length: 'MTLD is calculated as the mean length of sequential word strings in a text that maintain a given TTR value. The index produced by vocd is calculated through a computational procedure that fits TTR random samples with ideal TTR curves', (McNamara et al., 2014, p.67).

Lexical density indicates the ratio of content words to total words. Here again, online tools are available. Cohmetrix (McNamara et al., 2005), measures the relative frequency of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. In order to calculate a lexical density ratio, a total of these measures can be multiplied by the total of words and divided by 1000.

Skehan and Foster (2012) suggest that any measure of lexical diversity should be complemented by some indication of text external measure, i.e. the indication if learners only access easy words or also access more difficult ones. In order to have some indication of what a difficult or easy word is, frequency is often used as a surrogate for difficulty, i.e. it is assumed that the less frequent a word the more difficult it is (Skehan, 2014a, p.22). VocabProfile on the Lextutor Website (Cobb, n.d.; Heatley et al., 2002) provides some indication of lexical sophistication based on COCA (Davies, n.d.). The procedure used for this is described as follows: 'The frequency of each word is looked up and added to a running total, which is then divided by the number of words in the text, producing an average frequency', (Cobb, n.d.; Heatley et al., 2002). Alternatively, VocabProfile can also average the raw frequencies of all the individual words and thus provide a single number which summarizes the frequency characteristics of a whole text.

Online tools however, cannot handle detailed transcripts of highly interactional data as these contain too many signs unknown to the machine. Before learners' interactions can be analysed automatically, the texts have to be rewritten without

indications of intonation or pauses. For the present data set, it is suggested to rewrite every learner's utterances manually and calculate lexical diversity and lexical density with Cohmetrix (McNamara et al., 2005) and lexical sophistication with VocabProfile (Cobb, n.d.; Heatley et al., 2002).
(...)

17.3 Evaluation

Measuring learners' speaking proficiency is a very laborious and rather problematic undertaking as the few worked examples have shown. If one is interested in learners' overall speaking proficiency and for each aspect of speaking proficiency a cumulative measure should be calculated, less laborious criterion-referenced judgments might yield similarly precise and informative results. If however, one is interested in more precise results and investigates the impact of an intervention on distinctive features of learners' talk, applying various detailed measures might be worth-while.

Having said that though, once the results of such a detailed coding are presented in a table or bar chart, they probably look more precise than they actually are. Much depends on what decisions are taken when coding the transcripts. Some of the measures seem to be quite clear whereas others need to be defined further before they can be applied. Still, when working with low-level learners' data, there will probably always be ambiguous cases. It is the art of communication at low levels to mean many different things with very limited resources. It is only with the help of the video and due to the fact that the interactions are transcribed in detail that some of the cases could be clarified.

Even if coding is done with care, it is not clear if the way the different aspects of proficiency are operationalized truly reflects proficiency. Fluency for example, is at least in part influenced by L1 fluency and personality traits and does not necessarily reflect developmental stages only (Lambert and Kormos, 2014, p.610). In addition, when working with low-level learners' data, the role of prefabricated chunks and their contribution to accuracy, fluency and complexity has to be considered. In the early stages of language acquisition, learners often use prefabricated chunks as unanalysed wholes which give the impression that learners are able to produce more fluent, complex and accurate language than they would if they could not juxtapose formulaic sequences as single units (Myles, 2012).

Another issue which has to be considered, is the fact that some measures may be related. Fluency and interaction measures for example, do overlap in that both take into account clause-boundary pauses. In order not to overrate one phenomenon, it could be argued that clause boundary pauses should be considered as part of interaction, thus reflecting the joint responsibility for these pauses, and only mid-clause pauses as part of fluency. Finally, any aspect of speaking performance can only partially be captured with the above measures and should be complemented with a qualitative investigation into the way learners are using language.

Recommended measures

Measuring all the different aspects of speaking performance is probably not feasible for any study and even if one attempts at getting precise results, pragmatic decisions have to be made as to which measures should be included. What is more, using too many different measures for one aspect of proficiency may confound the results. It is therefore probably advisable to use fewer but more reliable measures.

In order to assess learners' speaking performance a useful limited range of measures might be speech rate, phonation time, mid-clause and clause-boundary pause number, a length accuracy score and complexity measures of subordination and lexical diversity (VOCD and MTLTD) thus covering fluency, accuracy and complexity. Interaction is ignored as the given codes seem too unreliable and a qualitative analysis can probably better catch its quality.

However, if measuring speaking performance is only a minor additional part of a research project, the above range of measures is probably too laborious. It is therefore suggested to ignore accuracy and focus on complexity and fluency only. First, the only reliable measurement for accuracy is extremely laborious and second in the early stages of language learning accuracy seems to play a less important role as it is mainly determined by the use of prefabricated chunks. In the classroom, the focus is probably more on what learners can say with limited resources than the correctness of what they are saying.

A minimally laborious option for measuring learners' proficiency could be to calculate an unpruned speech rate and phonation time for fluency and a subordination score for complexity. This way, manually measuring individual length of correct and incorrect AS-units and pruning the text would not be necessary. Literature and the application to the present data have shown that these measures may yield quite precise scores for learners' fluency and complexity. Limiting the measurement of learners' proficiency to these few measures may provide a detailed profile of individual learners' performance and may be subtle enough to also catch the effect of an intervention'. (Reber, 2016).

18 Effect of task on strategy use, time on-task and modifications: Descriptives

	time	Providing self-help	Supporting the partner without exposing	Listener support	Supporting the partner while exposing the trouble	Asking the partner for help	Shared time on-task	Time in English per speaker	Modifications
N	2	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
	3	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	4	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	5	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	6	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	7	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
	8	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	9	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	10	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
	11	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Missing	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7		2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
8		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10		2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
11		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	time	Providing self-help	Supporting the partner without exposing	Listener support	Supporting the partner while exposing the trouble	Asking the partner for help	Shared time on-task	Time in English per speaker	Modifications
Mean	2	140	11.4	7.42	1.30	5.85	352	158	2.22
	3	154	9.18	11.0	1.10	6.66	480	223	4.77
	4	136	11.5	8.29	1.63	5.01	424	189	4.32
	5	150	8.58	9.94	1.67	6.36	565	263	3.89
	6	108	8.26	5.76	0.438	3.54	433	205	1.72
	7	161	11.8	9.92	2.04	7.25	485	228	6.44
	8	129	7.52	10.9	2.21	5.85	653	304	3.92
	9	154	11.5	10.6	2.11	6.27	805	395	5.59
	10	138	11.9	10.0	3.10	6.98	761	367	5.88
	11	147	11.3	9.79	3.07	6.96	437	210	7.62
	Median	2	138	10.2	5.86	0.00	3.99	369	164
3		145	4.07	9.63	0.00	5.47	487	203	4.05
4		122	9.97	7.82	0.00	3.36	405	177	2.81
5		138	6.88	9.91	1.10	3.48	522	253	3.23
6		101	6.84	4.11	0.00	2.92	382	169	0.706
7		157	8.56	6.28	0.00	6.01	556	230	4.48
8		102	6.75	9.55	1.15	3.38	592	254	2.78
9		142	7.44	6.69	1.05	5.13	779	399	4.23
10		117	8.25	10.4	1.80	4.10	782	314	5.80
11		142	7.67	10.00	0.00	5.54	431	197	8.53
Mode		2	60.7 ^a	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	129 ^a	57.0 ^a
	3	49.3 ^a	0.00	0.00 ^a	0.00	4.77 ^a	162 ^a	41.3 ^a	0.00
	4	59.8 ^a	0.00	0.00 ^a	0.00	0.00	158 ^a	70.1 ^a	0.00
	5	82.7 ^a	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	181 ^a	78.7 ^a	0.00
	6	29.4 ^a	0.00 ^a	0.00	0.00	0.00	251 ^a	99.2 ^a	0.00

	time	Providing self-help	Supporting the partner without exposing	Listener support	Supporting the partner while exposing the trouble	Asking the partner for help	Shared time on-task	Time in English per speaker	Modifications
	7	189	0.00 ^a	0.00	0.00	5.21 ^a	274 ^a	107 ^a	0.00
	8	60.8 ^a	0.00 ^a	0.00	0.00	0.00	313 ^a	101 ^a	0.00
	9	84.6 ^a	17.5	0.00	0.00	0.00 ^a	276 ^a	115 ^a	0.00
	10	55.7 ^a	0.00 ^a	0.00 ^a	0.00	3.98	234 ^a	88.7 ^a	0.00
	11	58.7 ^a	0.00 ^a	0.00	0.00	0.00	251 ^a	109 ^a	0.00 ^a
Sum	2	1966	160	104	18.3	81.9	4922	2216	31.1
	3	2465	147	176	17.7	106	7687	3562	76.4
	4	2179	184	133	26.1	80.2	6781	3029	69.0
	5	2396	137	159	26.7	102	9046	4212	62.3
	6	1735	132	92.2	7.00	56.6	6933	3284	27.5
	7	2248	166	139	28.6	102	6789	3185	90.2
	8	2064	120	175	35.3	93.5	10450	4858	62.8
	9	2459	184	169	33.7	100	12875	6320	89.4
	10	1934	167	140	43.4	97.8	10659	5145	82.3
	11	2347	180	157	49.0	111	6991	3359	122
Minimum	2	60.7	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	129	57.0	0.00
	3	49.3	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	162	41.3	0.00
	4	59.8	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	158	70.1	0.00
	5	82.7	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	181	78.7	0.00
	6	29.4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	251	99.2	0.00
	7	36.4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	274	107	0.00
	8	60.8	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	313	101	0.00
	9	84.6	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	276	115	0.00
	10	55.7	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	234	88.7	0.00
	11	58.7	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	251	109	0.00

	time	Providing self-help	Supporting the partner without exposing	Listener support	Supporting the partner while exposing the trouble	Asking the partner for help	Shared time on-task	Time in English per speaker	Modifications
Maximum	2	255	39.8	21.7	5.43	33.5	570	286	10.5
	3	311	35.4	31.9	7.87	15.9	940	526	16.2
	4	279	49.0	18.8	7.46	14.9	691	369	20.0
	5	256	43.2	26.9	9.64	36.0	1338	773	11.7
	6	208	22.2	18.1	3.57	11.3	708	400	9.03
	7	278	42.7	27.8	6.94	28.5	683	355	26.1
	8	309	28.7	35.2	15.2	35.5	1229	649	11.8
	9	307	53.6	61.9	7.25	23.4	1242	774	17.5
	10	386	44.8	20.5	8.49	18.7	1419	693	11.5
	11	301	29.5	21.5	19.0	27.1	652	370	16.0

^a More than one mode exists, only the first is reported.

19 Feedback provided to the learners

ID	time	Providing self-help				Supporting the partner without exposing the trouble	Listener support			Asking the partner for help		
		Using time-gaining devices		Lexical compensatory strategies			Confirmation check	Listener support phrase	Listener support single word	Shadowing	Assistance appeal	Clarification request
English chunks as fillers	English one-word fillers	Para-phrase	Gestures and mime									
1C	5	x	x				x				x	x
1D	5			x			x	x	x		x	
1E	6			x			x					
1E	7											
1F	6	x								x		
1G	7	x					x					
1H	7						x	x			x	
1I	4	x	x				x					
1J	4	x	x			x	x					x
2A	4			x						x ²³		
2B	4			x						x		
2C	5	x										
2D	5								x			x
2E	6											
2F	6			x	x							
2I	5	x					x					
2J	5			x								
Totals (class1/class2)		7 (5/2)	3 (3/0)	6 (2/4)	1 (0/1)	1 (1/0)	8 (7/1)	2 (2/0)	2 (1/1)	3 (1/2)	3 (3/0)	3 (2/1)
Totals		17				1	12			9		

Table 4: Feedback provided on interaction strategies

²³ 2A and 2B were both told to use English for assistance appeals.

ID	preparation	start and end	turn-taking in general	time on-task	linguistic items
1C			Have a natural conversation, not an interview: support the partner more		
1D			Have a natural conversation, not an interview: support the partner more		
1E					
1E			offer the partner more thinking time		
1F					
1G					increase quality of language for any strategy
1H					
1I					
1J					
2A		end in English			
2B		start			
2C	prepare	start			who-where
2D	prepare		offer turn		
2E	prepare	use rhyme to decide who has to start		ask follow-up question, elaborate on topic and provide longer answers challenge: don't be the first group to finish	
2F	prepare	use rhyme to decide who has to start		challenge: don't be the first group to finish	
2I		end			why-because
2J		start	offer turn		why-because
Totals (class1/class2)	4 (0/4)	7 (0/7)	5 (3/2)	2 (0/2)	4 (1/3)
Totals overall	4	7	5	2	4

Table 5: Other feedback provided

20 Frequencies of strategy use by learner

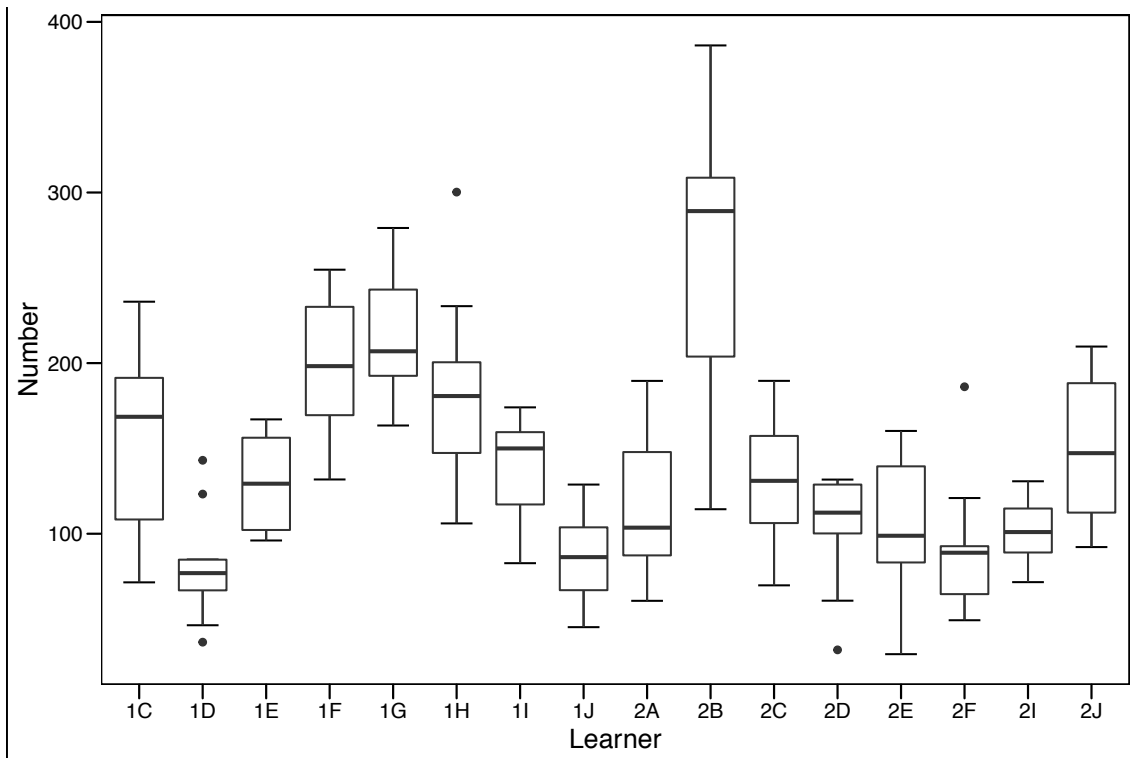


Figure 2: Frequency with which self-help is provided by individual learners

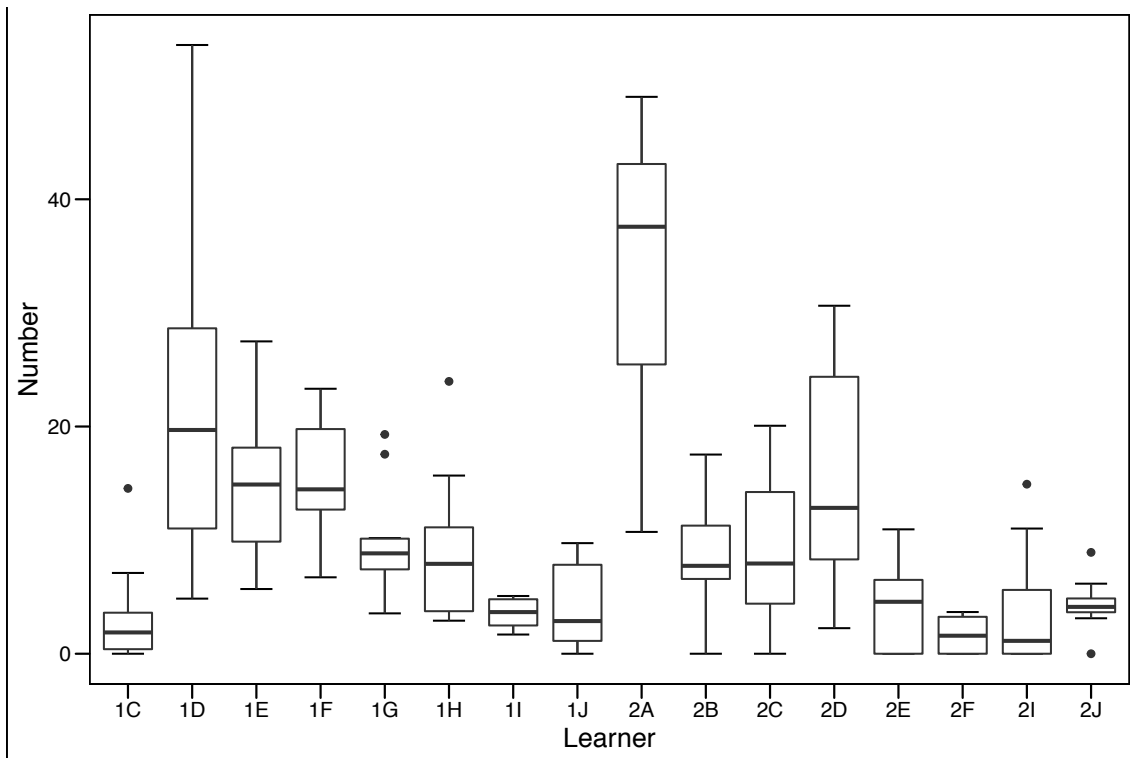


Figure 3: Frequency with which the partner is supported without exposing the trouble

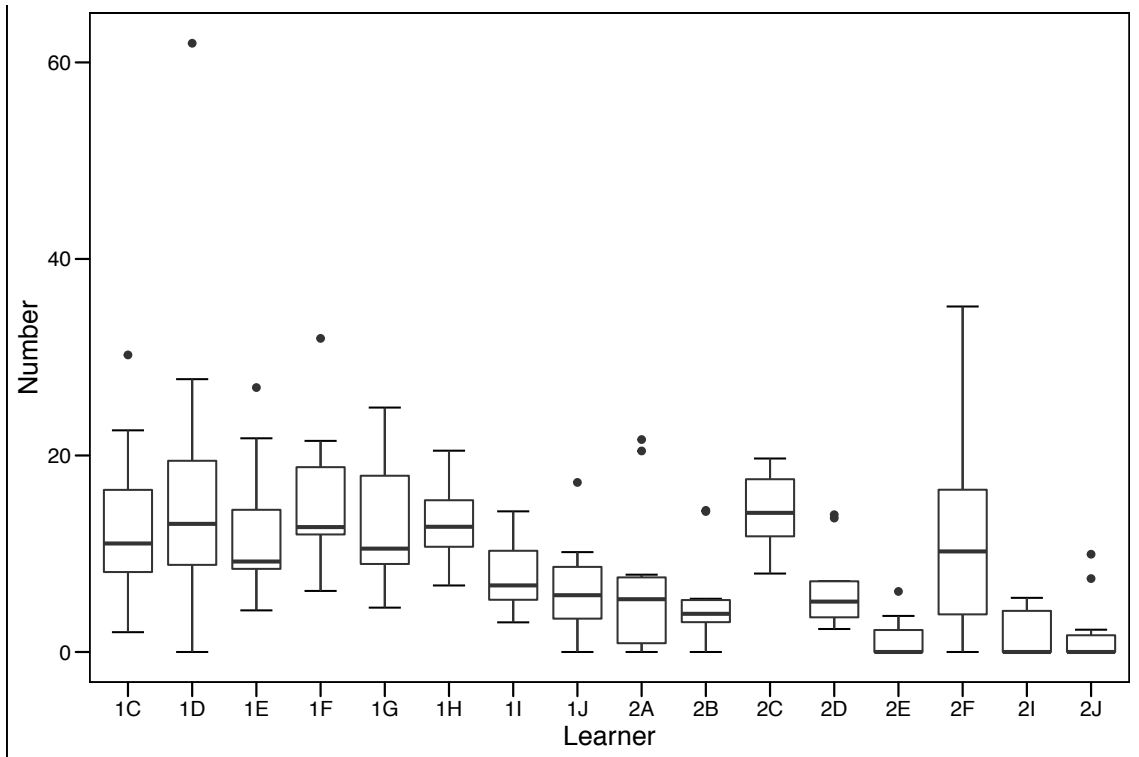


Figure 4: Frequency with which listener support is provided

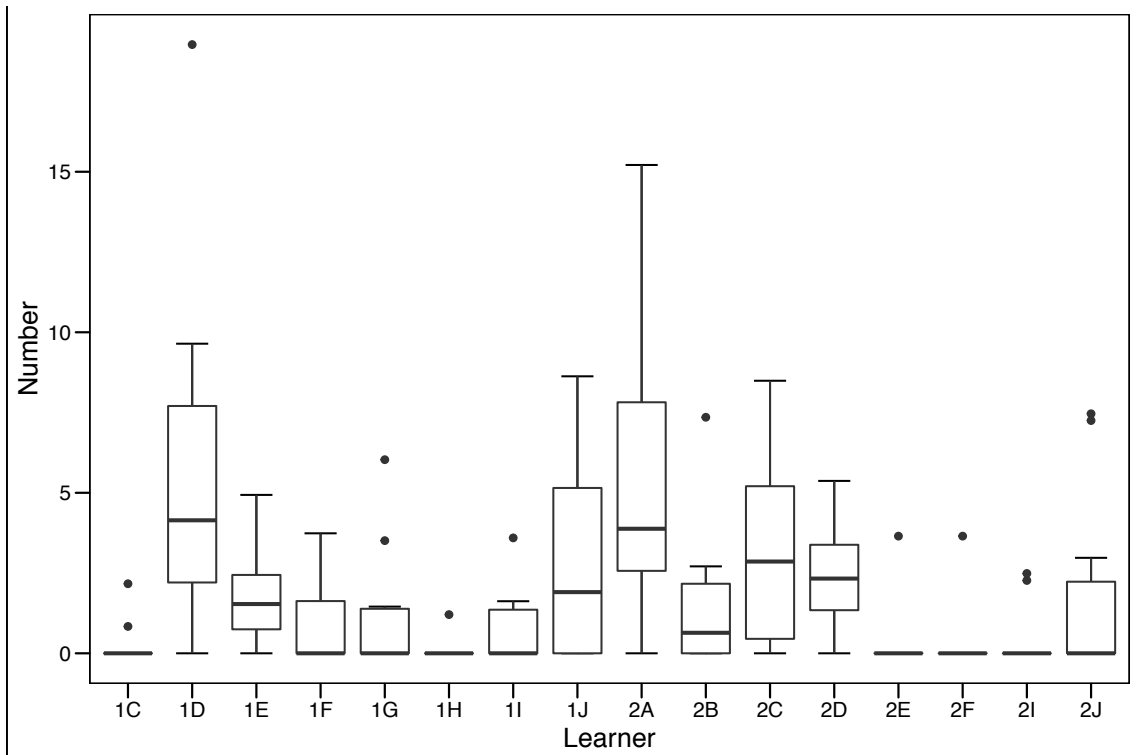


Figure 5: Frequency with which the partner is supported while exposing the trouble

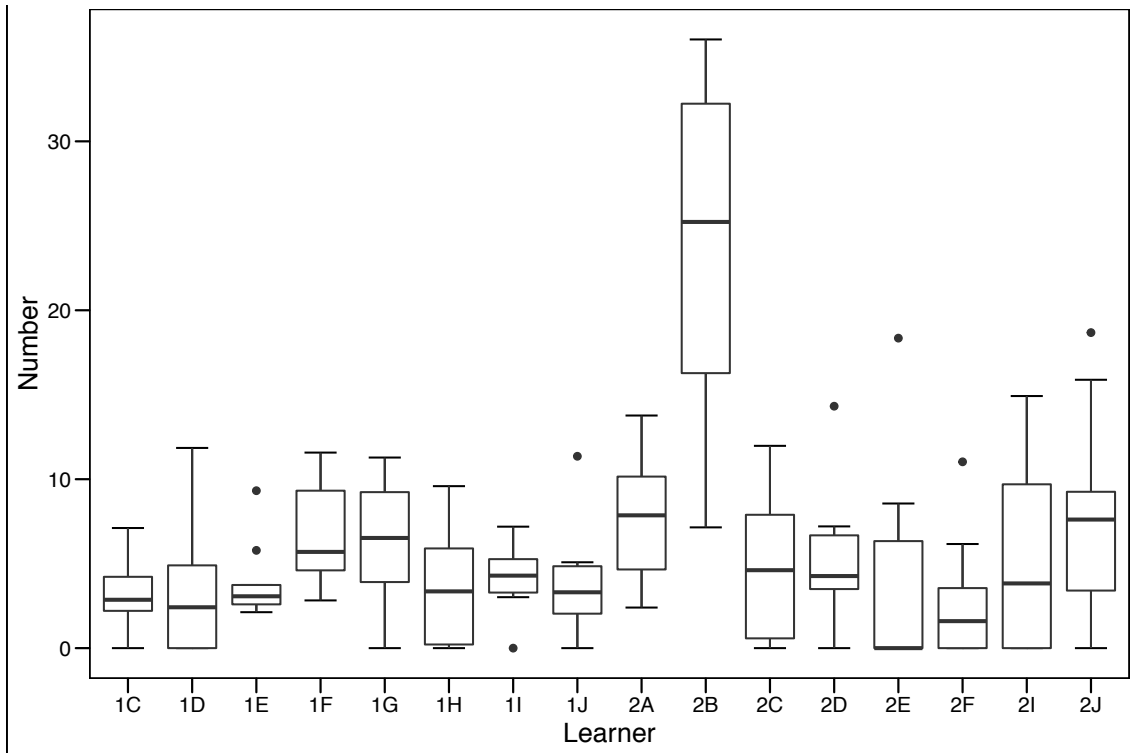


Figure 6: Frequency with which the partner is asked for help

21 Shared time on-task and time in English per speaker

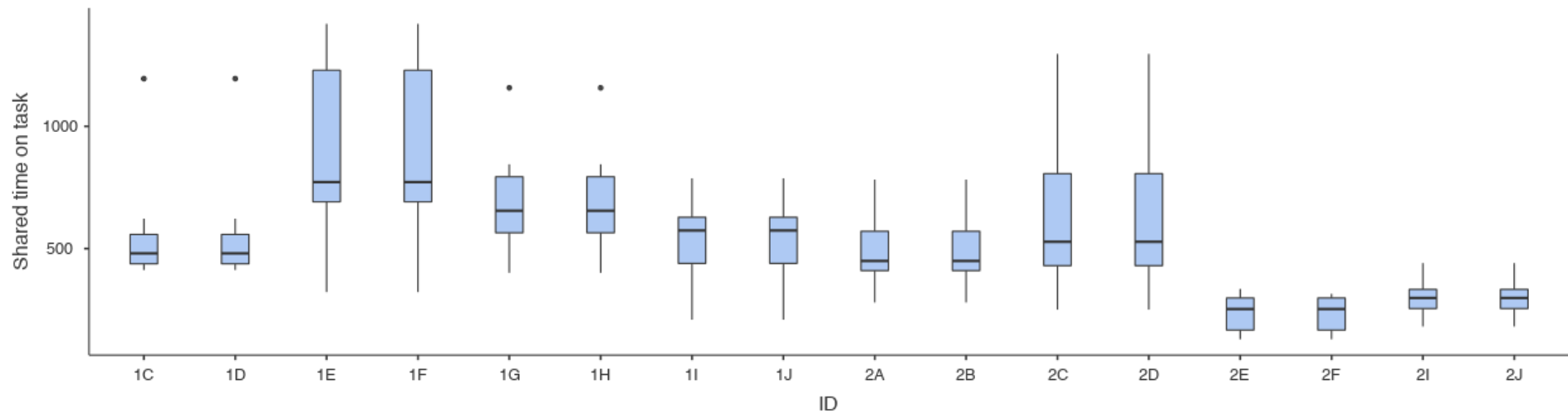


Figure 7: Time learners spend on task measured per pair of learners in all the interactions

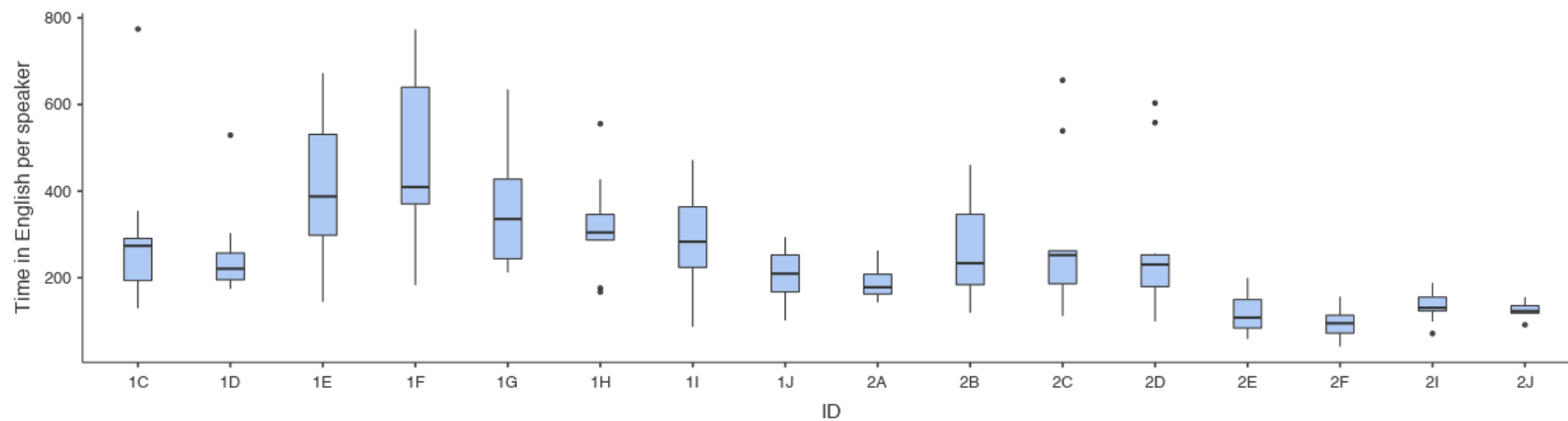


Figure 8: Time learners spend talking English in all the interactions

22 Changes in strategy use over time and effect of the feedback

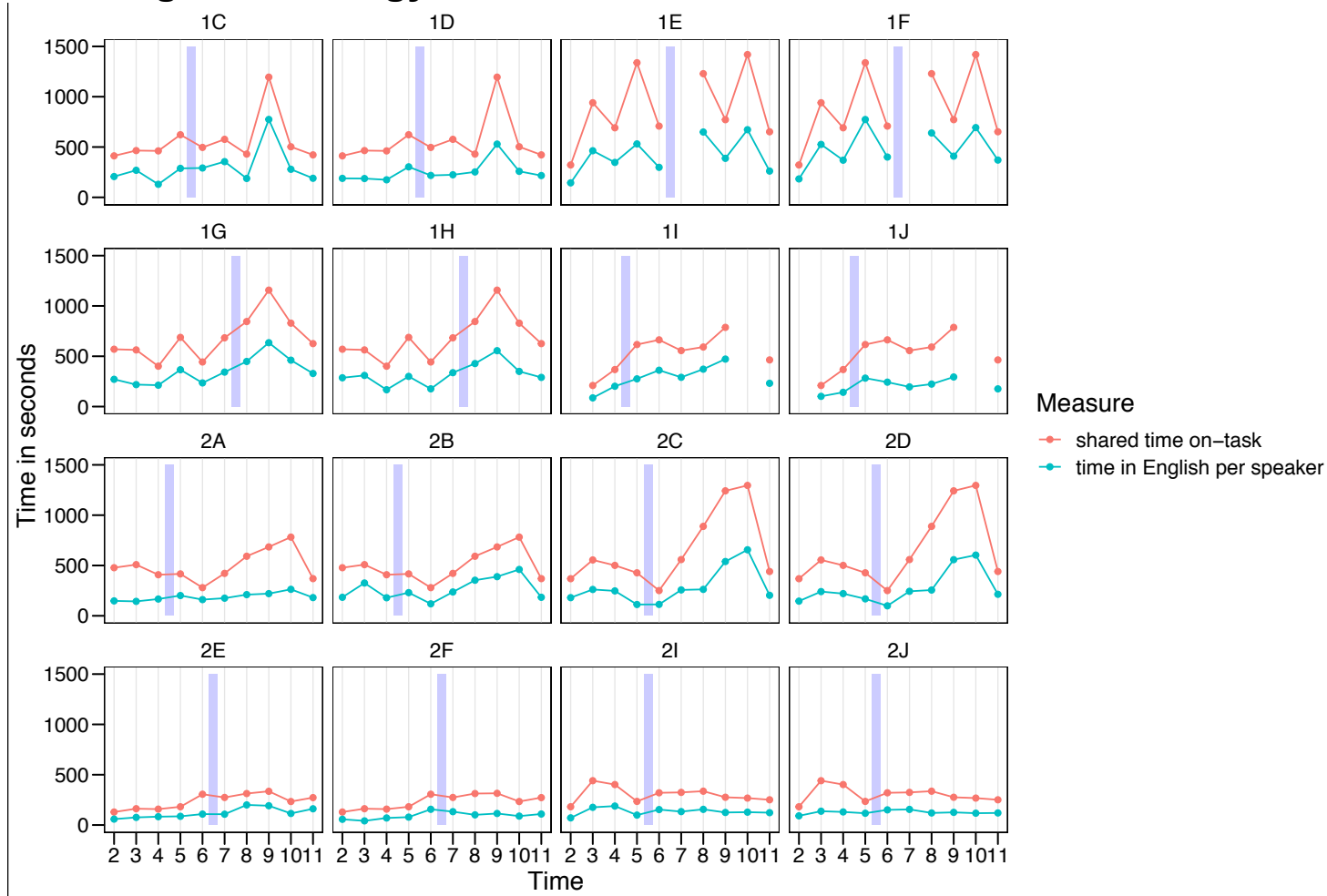


Figure 9: Development of time learners spend on-task, and development of time individual learners spend talking English (Time in seconds), measured at ten different points in time (Time), purple bar = point of feedback

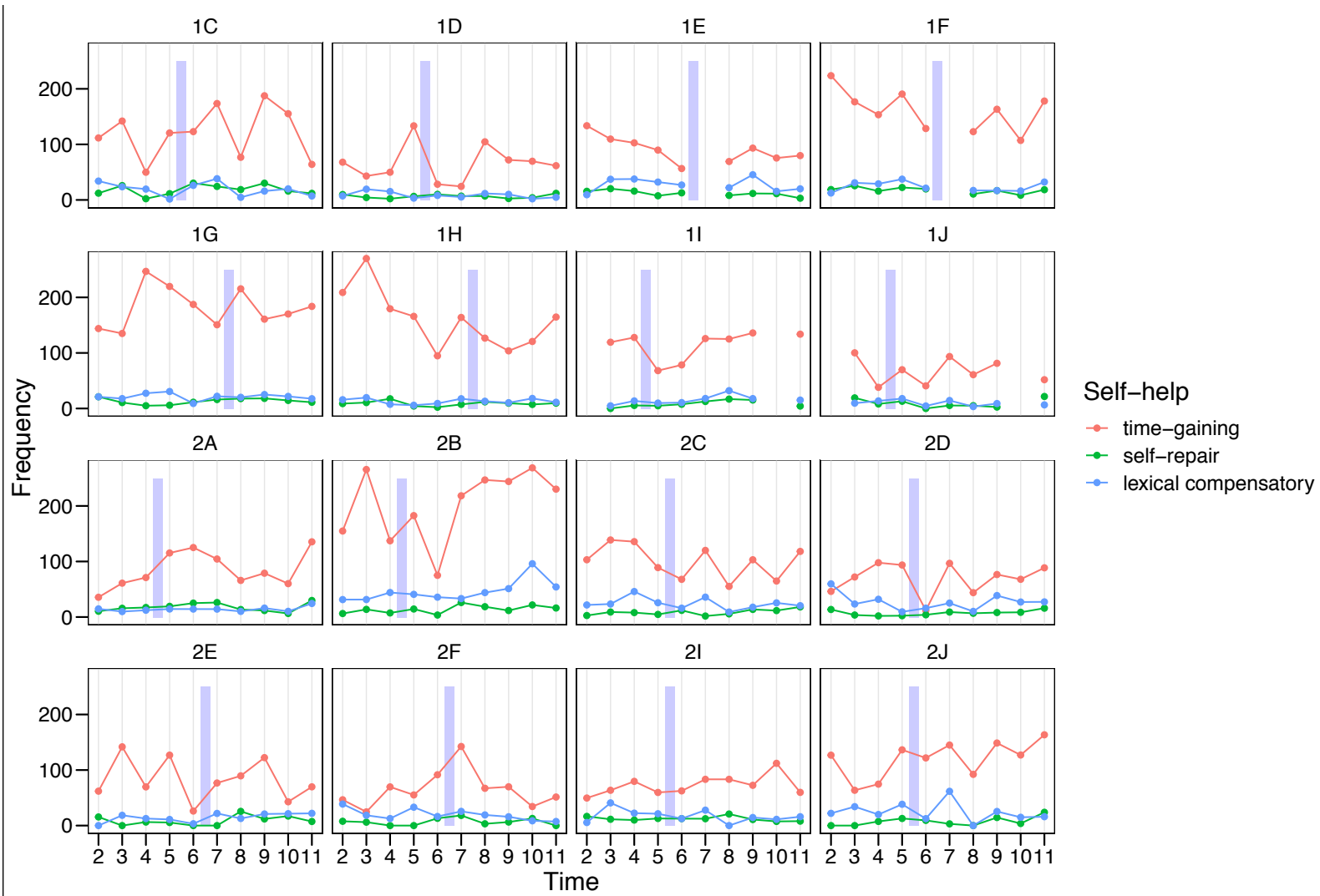


Figure 10: Development of frequency with which self-help is provided, measured at 10 different points in time, purple bar = feedback

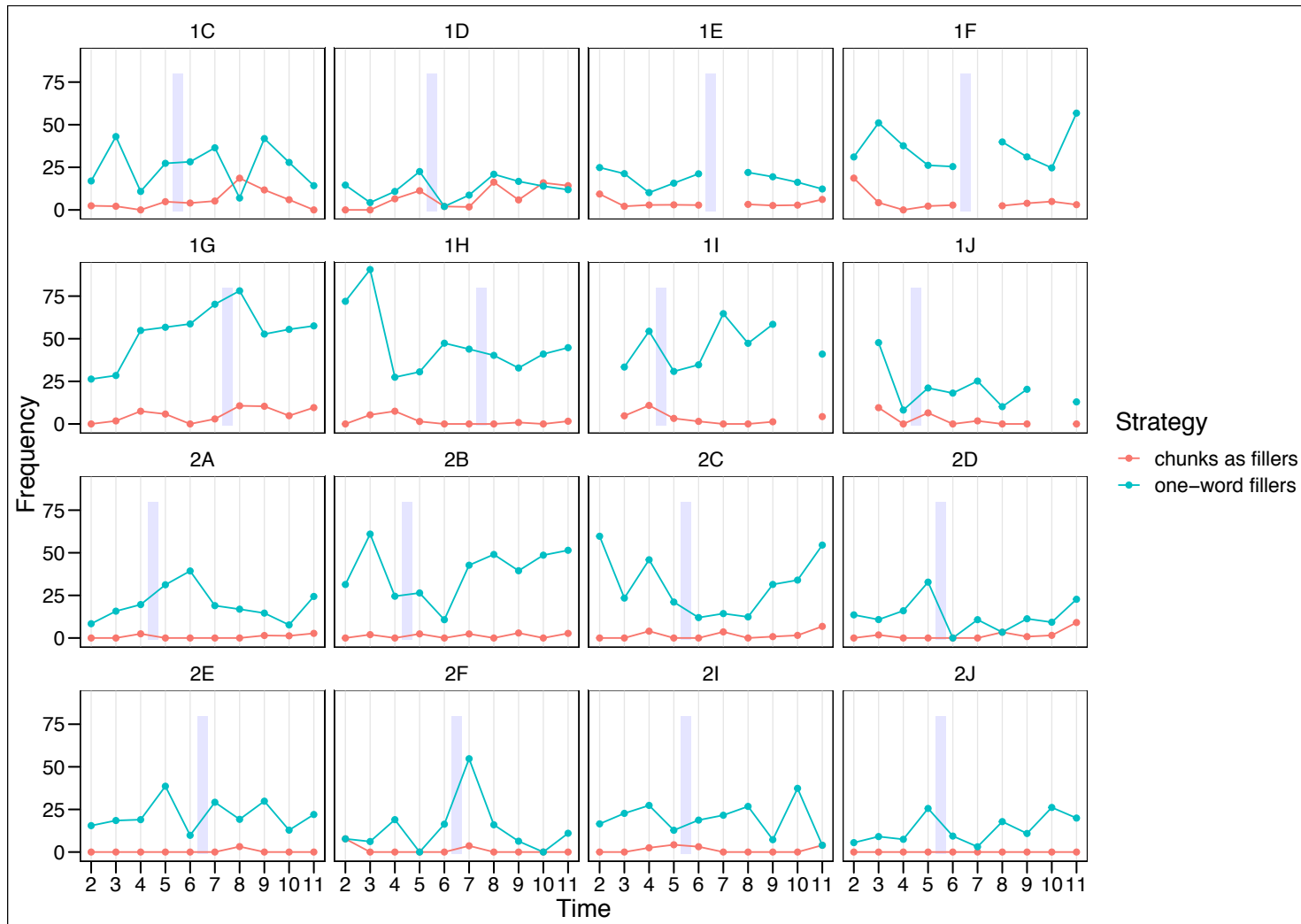


Figure 11: Development of frequency with which time-gaining strategies are used, measured at ten different points in time, purple bar = feedback

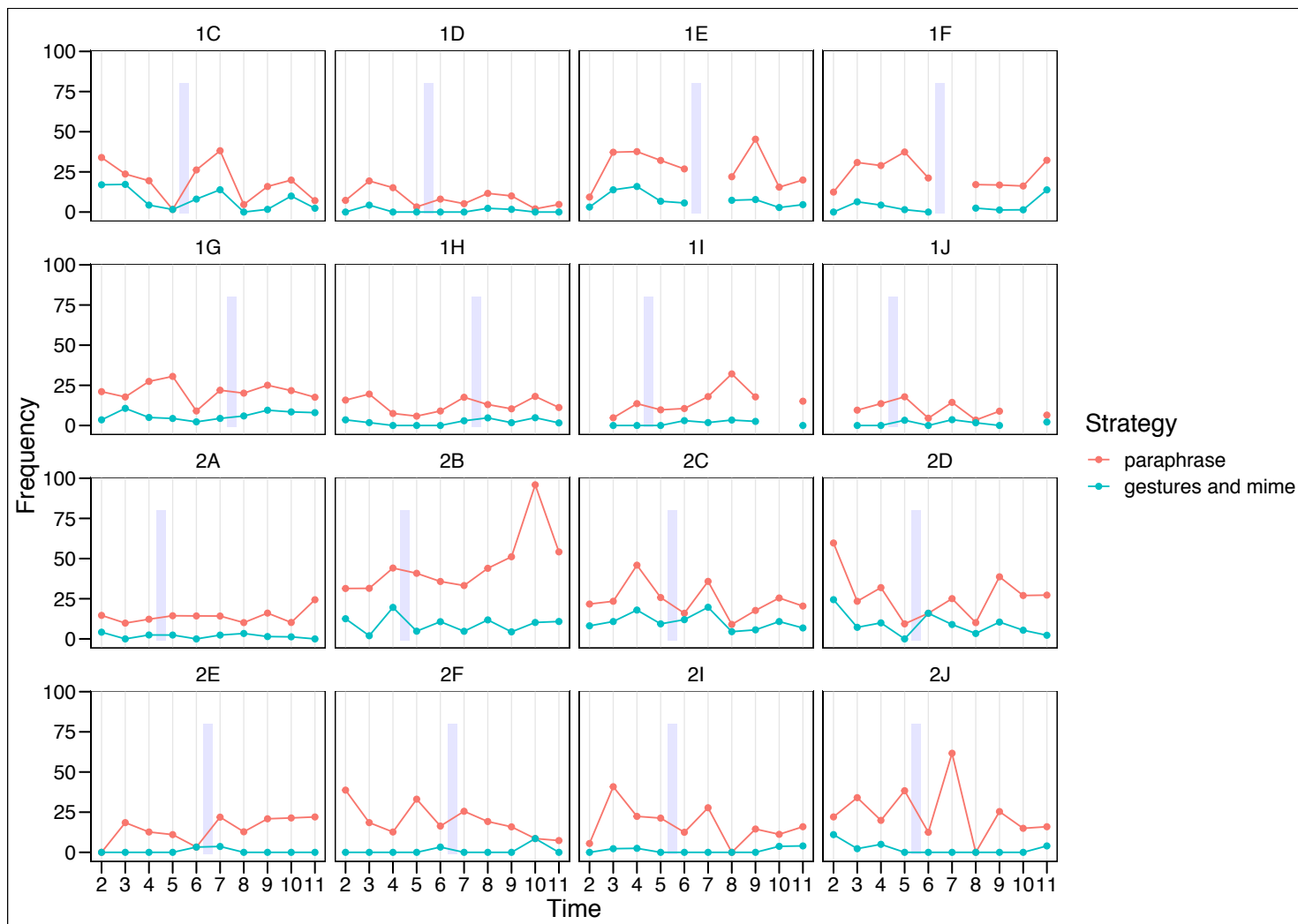


Figure 12: Development of frequency with which lexical compensatory strategies are used, measured at ten different points in time, purple bar = feedback

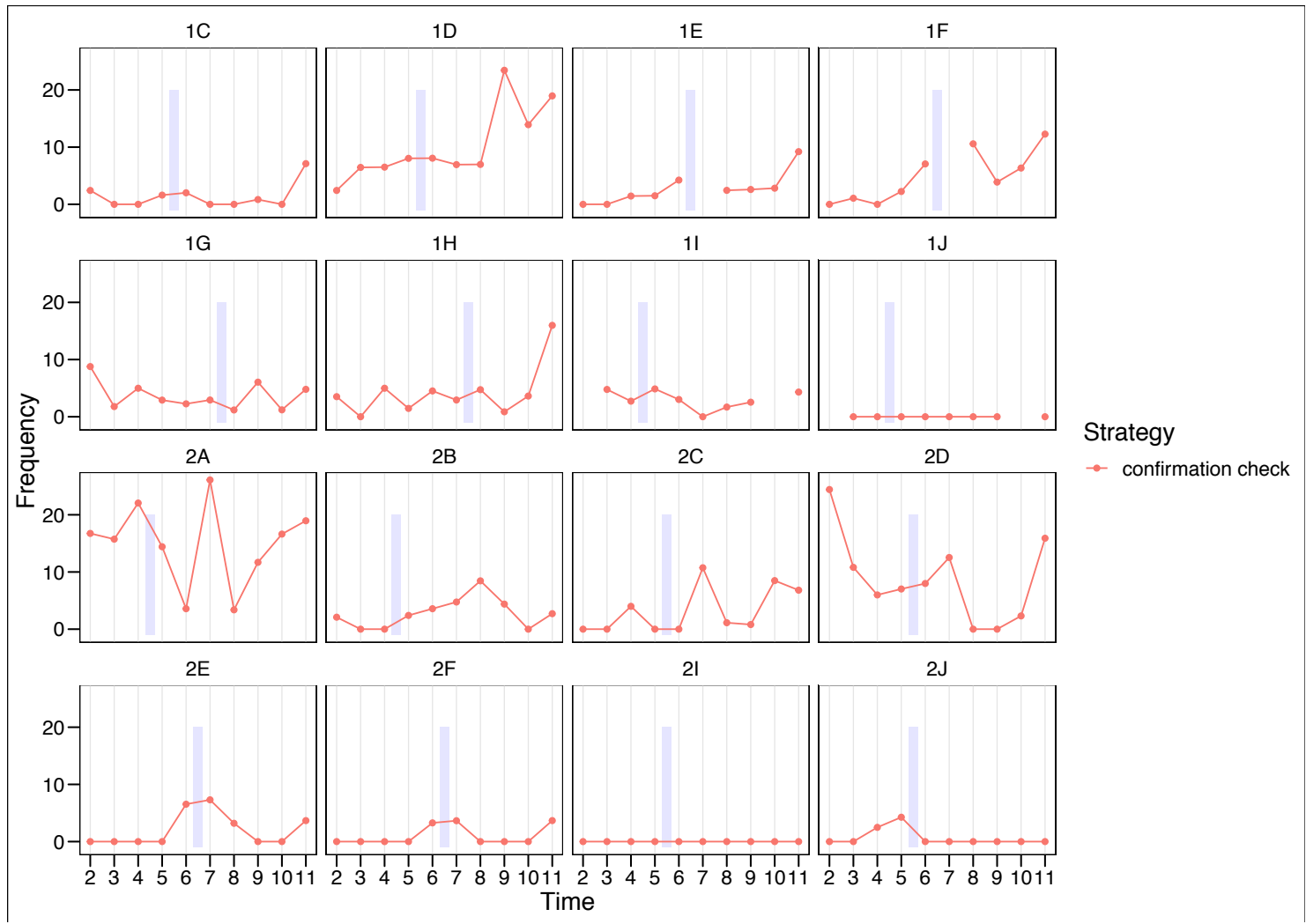


Figure 13: Development of frequency with which confirmation checks are used, measured at ten different points in time, purple bar = feedback

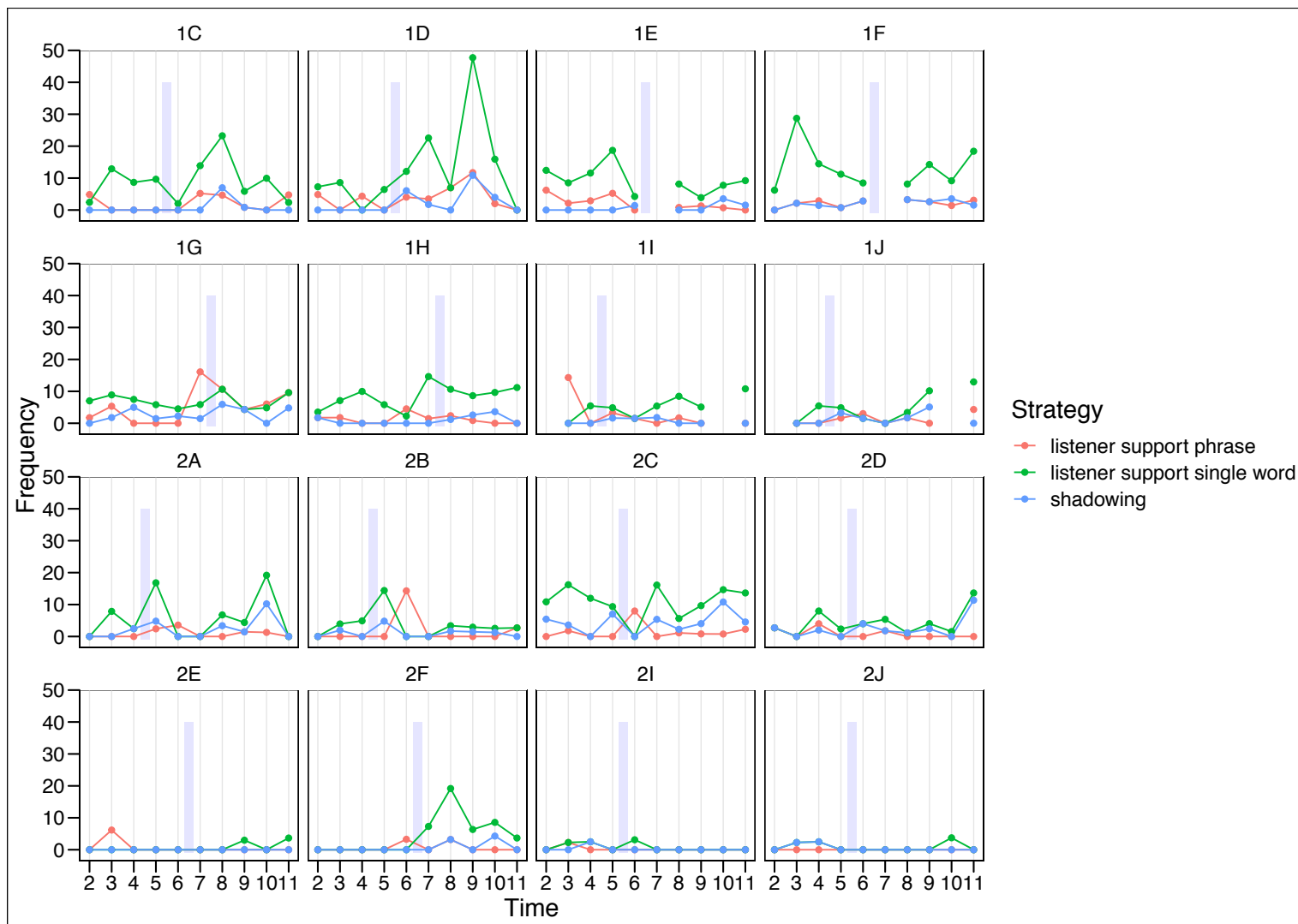


Figure 14: Development of frequency with which listener support is provided, measured at ten different points in time, purple bar = feedback

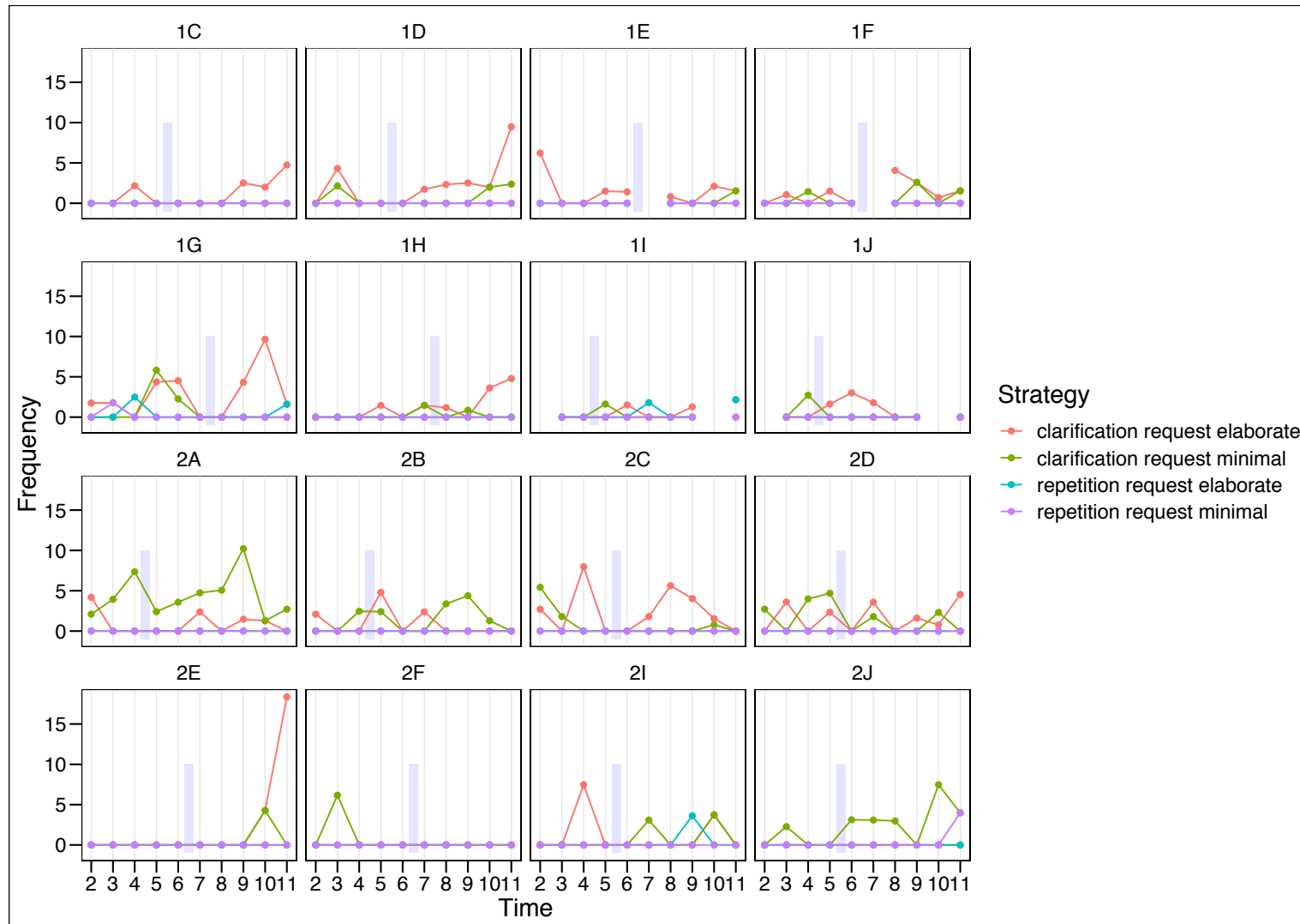


Figure 15: Development of frequency with which the partner is asked for help, measured at ten different points in time, purple bar = feedback

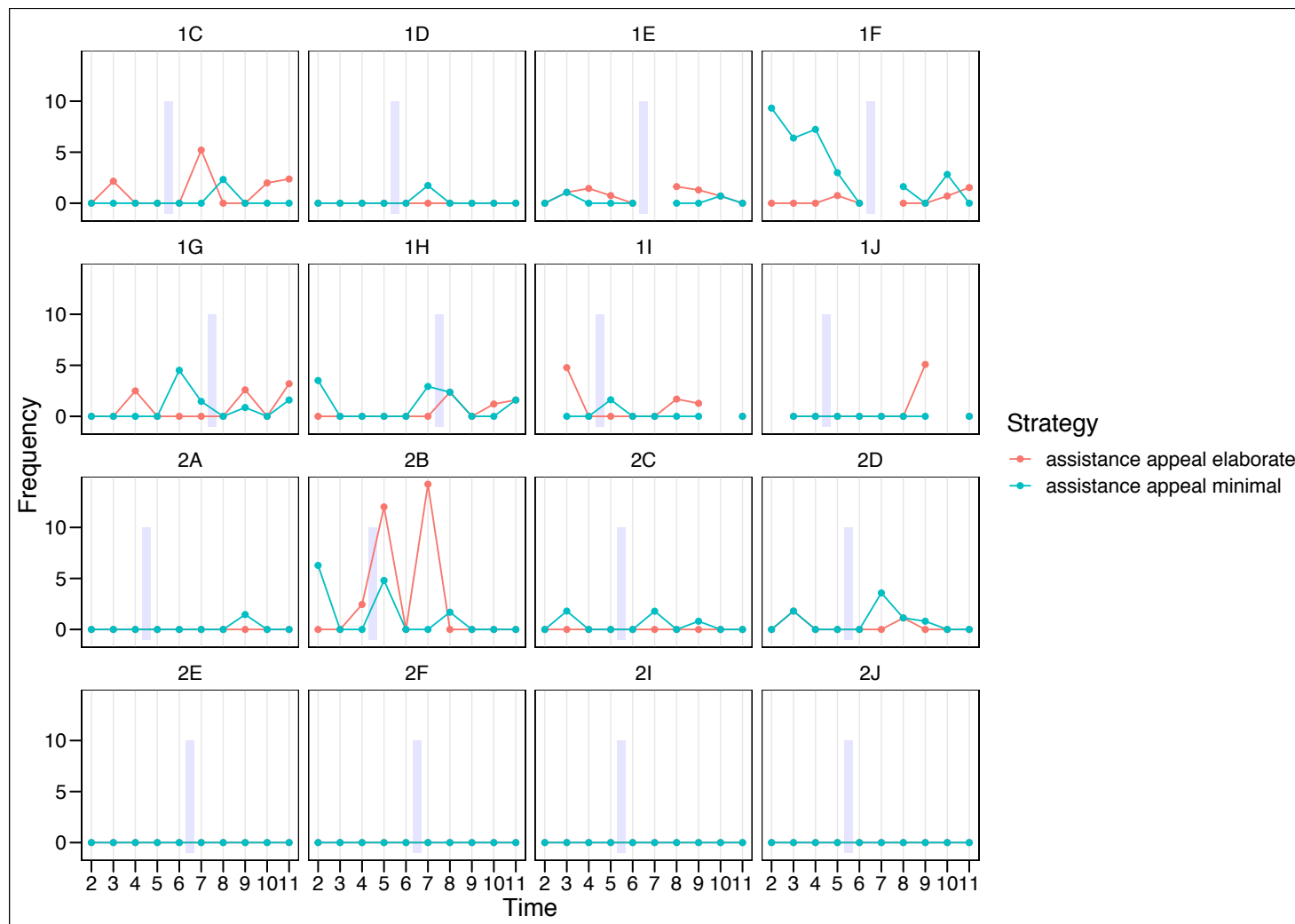


Figure 16: Development of frequency with which learners ask for help by drawing on more or less elaborate language, measured at ten different points in time, purple bar = feedback

23 Changes in other features targeted with the feedback

23.1 Beginning and ending the interaction in English

2B was encouraged to start the interaction in English and 2A to also end the conversations in English rather than German. From interaction 5, they sometimes still first checked in German whether the videorecorder was running but otherwise, they did use English to start the interaction and 2A always used English to end it, whereas 2B still used German to end the task (cf. Extract 13).

007 2B: (0.5) **let's schtart?**
008 2A: **let's start.**
009 2B: (1.1) ehm
(...)
227 2B: (3.6) <<pp>ehm ja fertig;>
228 2A: ehm **I think we are finish.**

Extract 13: 2AB5

In the very last interaction, 2B also used English to end the conversation, but he was only able to do so after an assistance appeal (cf. Extract 14).

183 2A: [(0.4)]wie viu isches
187 2B: (0.3)mhm,
188 (0.8)**dänn wär fertig;**
189 2A: [(6.0)][(6.3)][(0.8)]
190 2B: [(6.0)][(6.3)][(0.8)]**fe ehm fertig ehm nei xxx xxx xxx**
191 2A: **and**
192 2B: **was isch fertig <<laughing>es isch fertig>**
193 2A: **finish**
194 2B: **finish::eh ja jetzt hanis gwusst;**
195 **finish**[(0.8)][(1.2)]good-
196 2A: [(0.8)][((laughs))](2.4)
197 2B: **bye**

Extract 14: 2AB11

Learner 2C was asked to start the interactions in English, which he did from interaction 6 (Extract 15).

2CD6

005 2C: [it's on] [(0.4)] **[can I]start?**
006 2D:
[(0.4)] [xxx]
007 yes you [can start,]
008 2C: [of course] <<whispering>yes,>

Extract 15: 2CD6

Similarly, 2J was told to start the conversation in English and 2I to use English for ending it. From then on, 2J only used English to start the interaction. 2I used English in interaction 6 but German in interactions 7 and 8. For the remaining interactions, however, he used English again.

003 2J: (0.4) [ehm]eh°° you ber you ready,
004 2I: [=you begin.]
005 (0.5) yes:.
006 2J: (0.7) ehm (2.8)
007 is okay when I begin?
008 2I: (0.5) yes it's okay.
(...)

087 2J: (1.8)fini:::sh::
088 (0.6)are you finish?
089 2I: (0.4)yes are you finish?
090 2J: yes,

Extract 16: 2IJ6

080 2J: (1.5)((laughs))
081 2I: (0.3)<<pp>fertig.>

Extract 17: 2IJ7

059 2J: ehm(1.2)you're finish?
060 2I: (0.4)yes,
061 2J: (0.6)<<p>okay;>

Extract 18: 2IJ11

23.2 Giving the turn to the partner

Teacher 2 suggested to 2I and 2J that they should give the turn to the other speaker when they did not know what to say next, for example by using 'what do you think?'. This seems to have had some effect on them. In Extract 19, 2J is looking for the word 'bathing'.

031 ehm(1.5)okay;
032 2J: **what**(0.5)**do you:: mean** with(0.6)wä **with the handy in the classroom;**
033 2I: (1.5)I think we h we can the(0.6)the handy need for a
(1.0)for a(1.1)for a work.
034 (1.6)what do you mean?
035 2J: (0.7)ehm yes;
036 ehm I think(0.6)ehm: es: is(1.0)praktisch(
0.5)for(0.9)ehm:: wikipedia,
037 (0.6)((laughs))ehm=

Extract 19: 2IJ7

In 2IJ10SR, 2J said that in line 039 of Extract 20, he wanted to add 'bathing' but did not know how to say this and therefore he abandoned his message and gave the turn to his partner to say 'anything'. He uses German for giving the turn to the partner (line 040) even though he must have known the English equivalent 'you'. Similarly, 2I did give the turn to the partner at various occasions in subsequent interactions, however, he often used a more sophisticated form to do so: 'what do you mean'.

036 (1.2)
037 2J: ehm <<whispering>ws heisst bade;>
038 2I: (0.7)((gestures))(0.3)<<p>swimming;>
039 2J: (0.5)ehm it's is nice to swimming and
040 (6.1)**du;** ((you))
041 2I: (2.4)ehm (1.7)I I think we go to the Karibik,

Extract 20: 2IJ10

065 2I: (0.3)((laughs))
066 2J: (1.4)ehm(5.3)what
067 (0.9)**what do you mean;**
068 2I: (3.5)over what,
069 2J: (0.5)he?
070 2I: (0.3)<<pp>xxx>(1.3)of eh what do you xxxxxx ;

071 2J: (0.9)ehm (0.5)to the (0.4)expe expedition;

Extract 21: 2IJ10

2IJ7

033 2I: (1.5)I think we h we can the(0.6)the handy need for a
(1.0)for a(1.1)for a work.

034 (1.6)what do you mean?

Extract 22: 2IJ7

2D also received the instruction to offer the turn to his partner. However, 2D cannot be observed doing this in subsequent interactions. However, due to the collaborative nature of their talk, it is questionable whether this instruction was in fact needed. They equally shared turns and supported each other without abruptly giving the turn to the other speaker.

23.3 Using specific words or phrases

In the feedback, 2C was reminded of the difference between 'who' and 'where', two words which are often confused by German speakers. As can be seen from the Extracts 23 – 25, he did indeed use it correctly from then on. In the last interaction though, he used 'where' for 'was'.

443 2C: okay;
444 [ok]
445 2D: [things]that we ha:ve t[o:]
446 2C: [who:](0.9)nei=
447 2D: =schrei[ben]
448 2C: [where]live better in a city or in a(0.4)village;
(...)
496 2C: (0.7)where live better;
497 2D: (1.4)
498 2C: think;
499 2D: (0.3)what?
500 2C: (0.5)where lives you better in the city or in the village;
501 2D: I want to live in the village.
502 2C: (0.3)no no nid((shakes his head, probably looking for words))
503 2D: yeah in a vill[age]
504 2C: [where]you no [no no no no.]
505 2D: [I don't know.]
506 2C: (0.4)what is b what is better(0.5)to live=
507 2D: that here is a kaff;
508 that hav:e,
509 (0.4)two or five houses.
(...)
536 2D: [I was in America and we wore and was in a Dorf there was one]Mc
Donald and five houses.
537 (0.6)only that.
538 2C: wait wait wait listen to me.
539 (1.6)the question is **where** live better;
540 in a city or in the land.
541 or on on the (0.5)village.
542 (0.8)not,
543 (1.2)**who** you live.
544 2D: (0.7)°°h(0.6)yeah hm yes,
545 h°°(1.8)in the caff I [not live good but]in a in Village ((name of
a village)) I live good.
546 2C: [no no no no]
547 2D: [but]
548 2C: [that hie is a]village.
549 2D: [in a]
550 2C: [that is a]village
551 2D: in a big city;
552 2C: °°h[a land i]
553 2D: [I live]good.
554 2C: of the land.
555 2D: (2.3)
556 2C: land,
557 [or villages]

Extract 23: 2CD9

020 2C: yeah(1.0)**where** are we going;
021 (0.6)I will go to South America,
022 (1.1)because there are [a lot of]
(...)
058 2C: <<p>**where** are you go;>
059 2D: I want go to the South Pole.
060 2C: <<p>oh>

Extract 24: 2CD10

262 2C: (0.9)<<pp>aha>(0.4)<<ppp>aha>(2.0)<<p>okay;>
263 (1.8)wh **who: where** da;
264 2D: (0.4)you have to write this;
265 2C: (0.5)ou ou ou(0.5)[<<p>(sorry)>]
266 2D: [(laughs)](laughs))
267 2C: <<p>ou sorry,>
268 2D: [(0.6)][here is house and reggae,]
269 2C: [(0.6)][(1.5)][(33.1)] [okay;]
270 2D: [(33.1)] [(0.6)]then [it was]loud and long;
271 2C: [who whe]
272 oh yes;
273 loud and long[(7.1)]okay;
274 2D: [(7.1)]
275 2C: are you drunk;
276 2D: (0.6)
277 2C: are you was drunk;
278 2D: (0.3)yes,
(...)
262 2C: (0.9)<<pp>aha>(0.4)<<ppp>aha>(2.0)<<p>okay;>
263 (1.8)wh **who: where** da;
264 2D: (0.4)you have to write this;
(...)
285 2C: **who wor** da;
286 2D: (0.9)((laughs))[(laughs)](0.3)yes;
287 2C: [**who war** on the party;]
288 2D: ehm(0.8)many people from the class,
289 2C: [okay,]

Extract 25: 2CD11

Similarly, we can see that 2J started using 'why' and 'because' correctly instead of only using 'why' after the feedback.

2IJ8

011 2J: (1.3)ehm(1.7)°°ehm(0.9)ehm I want going(0.5)of statue (1.2)statue
of:(0.3)liberty;
012 (2.6)and you,
013 2I: (1.1)ehm (0.4)I want to the (0.7)I want go (0.3)to the (0.4)Empire
State Building;
014 2J: (0.9)**why** your sight interesting;
015 2I: (0.9)°°h(0.7)eh
016 2J: ((laughs))
017
018 2I: (3.5)I fi (0.3)I thin (0.4)i'(0.6)ehm (1.4)the s (0.6)eh i fi
(0.7)this: skyscraper(0.3)cool;
019 (1.2)and (0.3)**why**,
020 (0.3)you want;
021 (1.3)go to the (0.9)to the ehm (1.5)Statue of (0.5)Statue (0.4)of a
Liberty,
022 2J: (2.1)[ehm]
023 2I: [**why** is yo]ur sight interesting,
024 2J: (2.3)the Staute of Liberty(0.4)ehm (1.3)it's for me interesting
(0.5)**why** ehm (5.0)**why** the Liberty;
025 2I: (1.3)I fi (0.8)I want going to the (1.2)Empire State Building,
026 (0.7)**because** it have (0.3)<<pp>aso>(0.4)<<p>its have> (1.0)a great
history;
027 2J: (0.8)okay,
028 ehm (2.4)is this a fact;

Extract 26: 2IJ8

008 2I: (1.3) (ts chr) ehm the(2.5) <<p>ws heisst Herausforderung;>
 009 2J: (0.4) hm?
 010 2I: <<p>Herausforderungen;>
 011 2J: (0.3) was?
 012 2I: Herausforderungen;
 013 2J: (1.6) <<p>Herausforderungen;>
 014 2I: ((laughs)) ehm(4.0) ts(0.9) xxx xxx((mumbles)) (0.8) it was a big waves,
 015 s ehm(0.5) storms and icebergs;
 016 (1.0) and (0.7) I want avoid storms iceberg and big waves,
 017 (0.4) **because**,
 018 (0.7) we: sinking;
 019 2J: (1.1) ehm (2.0) mir sötte aber jitz diskutiere wo häre und so;
 020
 021 2I: hm?
 022 2J: <<p>mir müesse itz no über d Sach diskutiere;>
 023 2I: (0.9) <<p>ja;>
 024 2J: (0.7) <p>ehm> d°h(0.5) I think ehm the Kar
 025
 026 2J: I think the Karibik ehm is: better ehm(2.3) becaus::e(0.6) it's
 has(0.5) ehm ts a nic:e,
 027 (1.0) ehm Klima;
 028 2I: (1.7) I think South Pole is (0.7) is nice **because** it have a (0.6) a lot
 of penguins;
 029 2J: ((mime)) <<whispering> Schrotflinte;>
 030
 031 2J: ((laughs)) ehm °h(1.2)
 032 2I: the Karibik,
 033 (0.5) has(1.0) nein a(0.7) has: ehm (1.4) not (0.7) <<p>not a>(0.8) lot of
 animals;
 034 [(3.7)]
 035 2J: [(3.7)] I think ehm(0.7) Karibik is (0.7) nice ehm **because**,
 036 (1.2)
 037 2J: ehm <<whispering> ws heisst bade;>
 038 2I: (0.7) ((gestures)) (0.3) <<p>swimming;>
 039 2J: (0.5) ehm it's is nice to swimming and
 040 (6.1) du;

Extract 27: 2I/10

23.4 Offer the partner more thinking time

1E was asked to permit her partner more waiting time so that she could contribute more to the interaction. The time both learners spend talking in English is very similar after the feedback to how it was before (Figure 17). However, after the intervention, 1F uses many more mid-clause pauses than 1E (Figure 18). This might be one of the effects of 1E waiting longer when 1F is formulating her contributions. Another effect of 1E granting 1F more thinking time, could be the fact that 1F increases the pause length after the instruction, not immediately but gradually (Figure 19). However, the same is true for 1E, so this might rather be the effect of the task than 1E's behaviour.

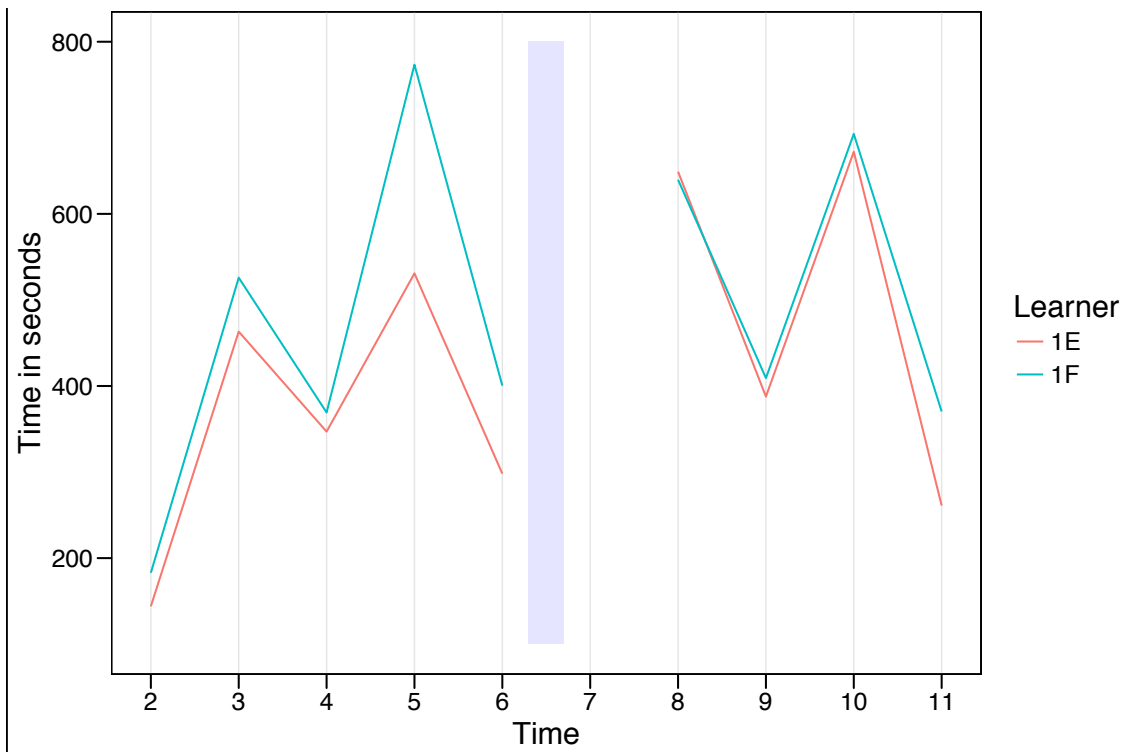


Figure 17: Time in English per speaker for 1E and 1F

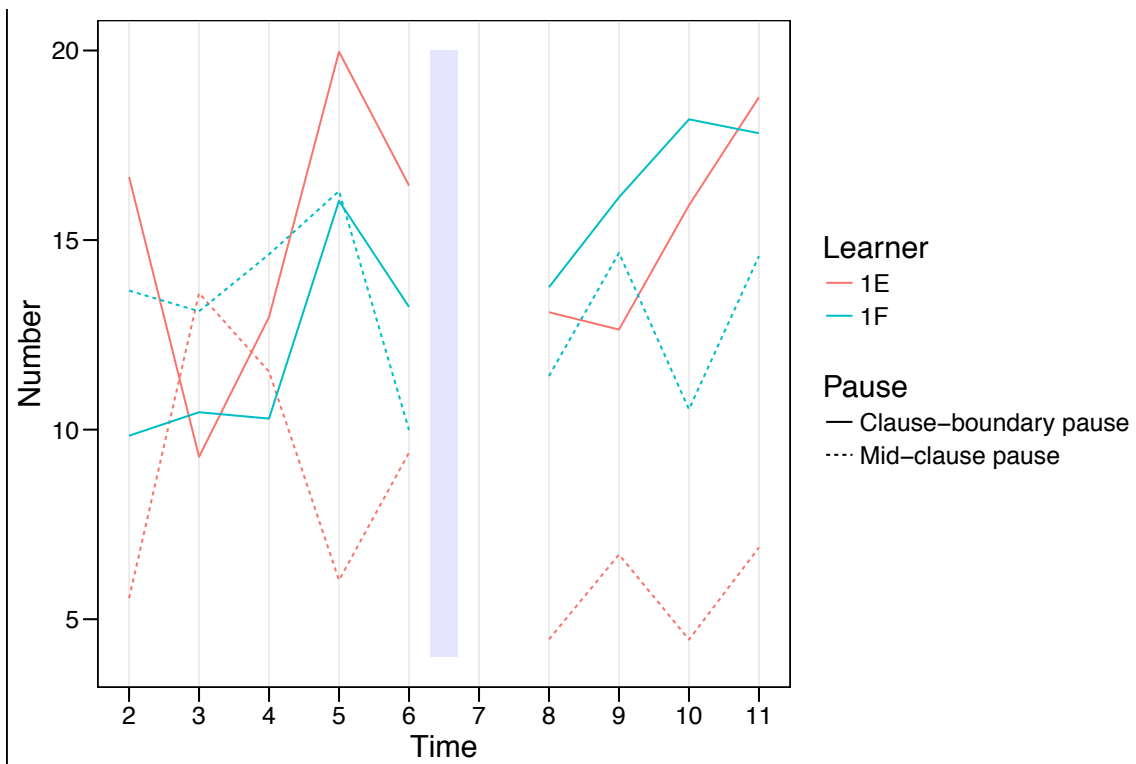


Figure 18: Number of clause-boundary and mid-clause pauses for 1E and 1F

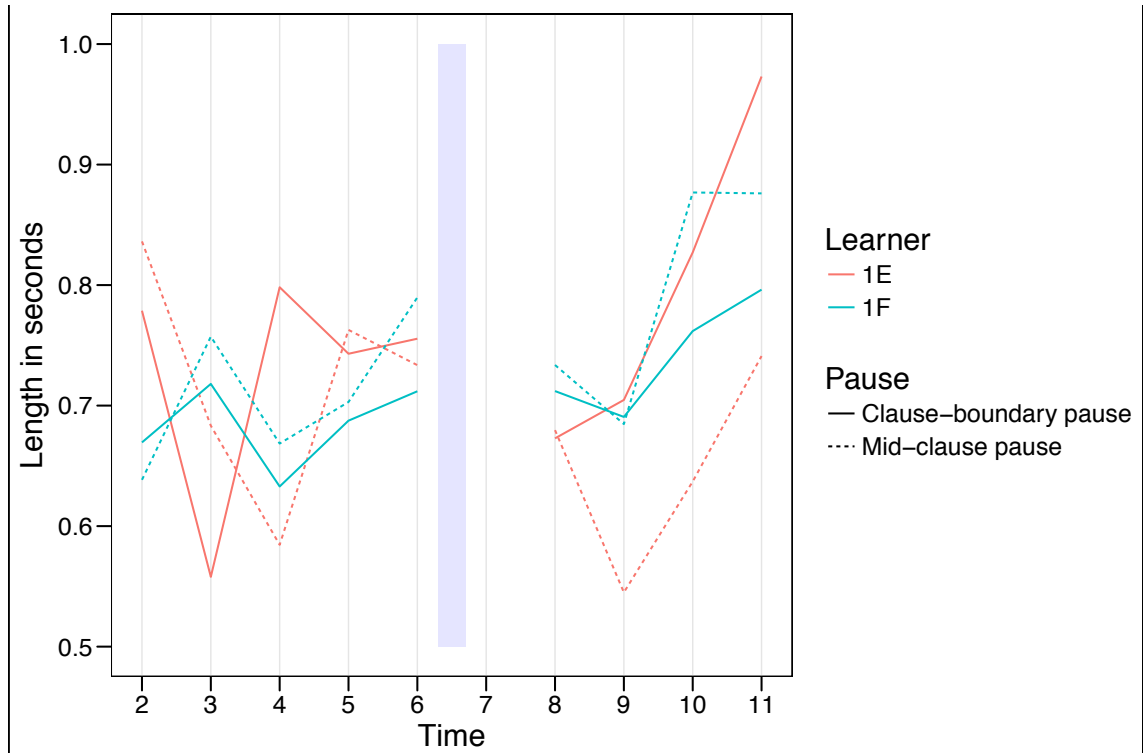


Figure 19: Pause length for 1E and 1F

24 Proficiency score

24.1 Proficiency scores: totals of all the learners

	ID	Subordination score	Average length of AS-unit	Speech rate	Phonation time	MTLD	Word level
N	154	154	154	154	154	154	154
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.15	5.41	80.4	71.2	23.8	30.1
Std. error mean		0.0114	0.0970	2.07	0.899	0.495	0.870
Median		1.12	5.28	83.3	74.0	25.0	29.6
Minimum		1.00	3.00	16.2	41.6	11.1	12.1
Maximum		1.75	11.0	136	90.3	35.5	52.7
25th percentile		1.05	4.66	62.3	63.9	19.0	21.8
50th percentile		1.12	5.28	83.3	74.0	25.0	29.6
75th percentile		1.20	6.00	101	80.0	28.6	38.6

Table 6: Descriptives of proficiency scores: totals of all the learners

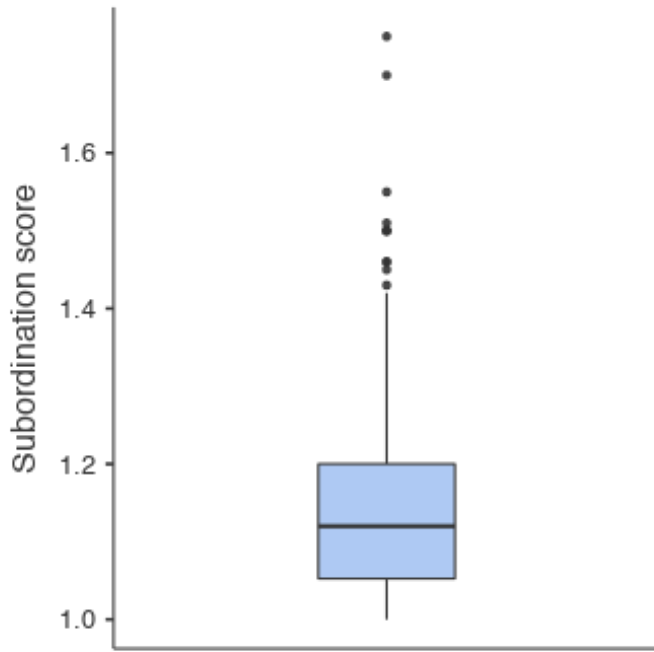


Figure 20: Subordination score for all learners in all the interactions

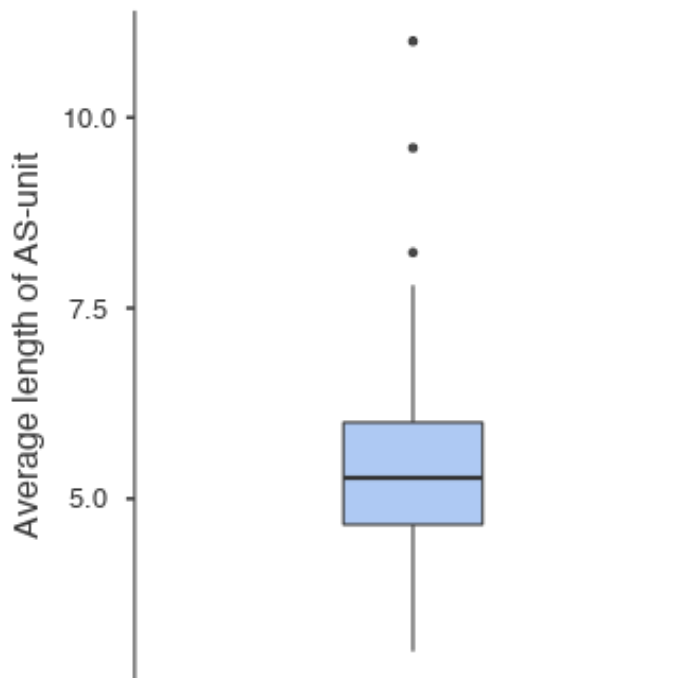


Figure 21: Average length of AS-unit by all learners in all the interactions

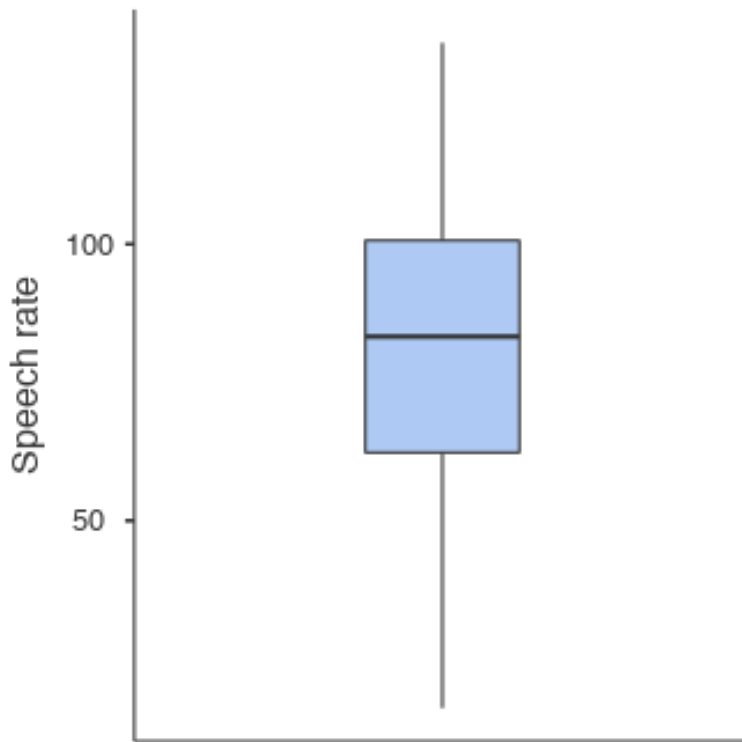


Figure 22: Speech rate for all learners in all the interactions

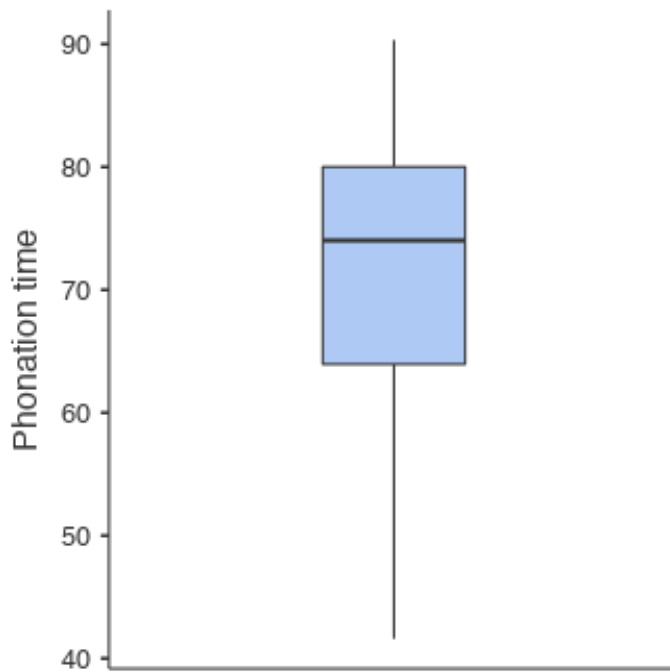


Figure 23: Phonation time ratio for all learners in all the interactions

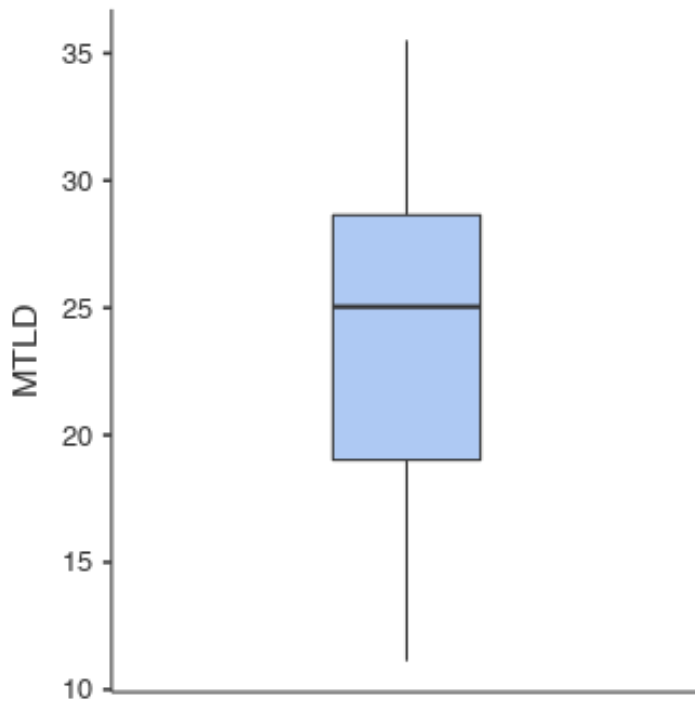


Figure 24: MTL D for all learners in all the interactions

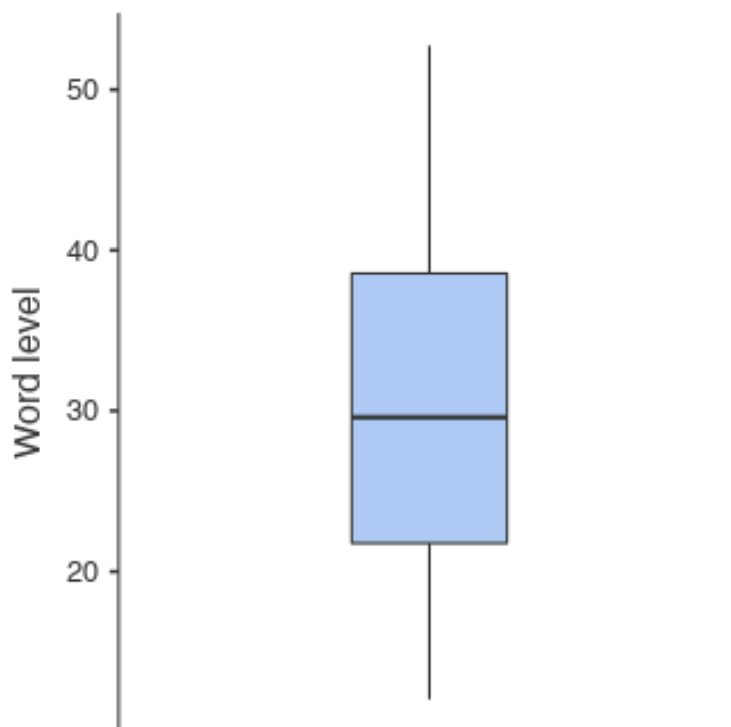


Figure 25: Word level for all learners in all the interactions

24.2 Proficiency scores per individual learner

	ID	Speech rate	Phonation time ratio	Subordination score	Average length AS-unit	MTLD	Word level
N	160	160	160	160	160	160	160
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.04	2.04	2.04	2.02	2.02	2.04
Median		2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Minimum		1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum		3	3	3	3	3	3

	ID	Proficiency score (max. = 18)	Proficiency score (max. = 3)	Fluency score	Syntactical complexity score	Lexical complexity score
N	160	154	160	160	160	160
Missing	0	6	0	0	0	0
Mean		12.0	2.02	2.04	2.03	2.03
Median		12.0	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Minimum		7	1	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		17	3	3.00	3.00	3.00

Table 7: Descriptives of proficiency scores per individual learner

Time	ID	Speech rate	Phonation time ratio	Subordination score	Average length AS-unit	MTLD	Word level	Proficiency score 18	Proficiency score 3	Fluency score	Syntactical complexity score	Lexical complexity score
2	1C	2	2	3	2	2	2	13	2	2	2.5	2
2	1D	3	2	3	3	3	2	16	3	2.5	3	2.5
2	1E	3	3	2	2	3	2	15	3	3	2	2.5
2	1F	2	3	2	2	2	2	13	2	2.5	2	2
2	1G	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	2	2	2	2
2	1H	2	2	3	2	2	1	12	2	2	2.5	1.5
2	1I	3	3	3	3	3	3	NA	3	3	3	3
2	1J	3	3	3	3	3	3	NA	3	3	3	3
2	2A	2	3	1	2	1	2	11	2	2.5	1.5	1.5
2	2B	1	2	1	1	1	2	8	1	1.5	1	1.5
2	2C	2	2	2	1	1	2	10	2	2	1.5	1.5
2	2D	2	2	2	1	2	2	11	2	2	1.5	2
2	2E	2	3	3	2	3	1	14	2	2.5	2.5	2
2	2F	1	1	3	2	2	1	10	2	1	2.5	1.5
2	2I	2	1	2	3	1	1	10	2	1.5	2.5	1
2	2J	1	1	3	3	2	1	11	2	1	3	1.5
3	1C	2	2	3	3	2	2	14	2	2	3	2
3	1D	3	2	2	2	3	2	14	2	2.5	2	2.5
3	1E	3	3	3	3	3	2	17	3	3	3	2.5
3	1F	2	3	3	2	2	2	14	2	2.5	2.5	2
3	1G	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	2	2	2	2
3	1H	2	2	3	3	2	1	13	2	2	3	1.5
3	1I	1	1	2	2	2	1	9	1	1	2	1.5
3	1J	1	1	3	3	2	1	11	2	1	3	1.5
3	2A	2	3	2	2	1	2	12	2	2.5	2	1.5
3	2B	1	2	1	2	1	2	9	1	1.5	1.5	1.5
3	2C	1	2	2	1	1	2	9	1	1.5	1.5	1.5
3	2D	1	1	2	2	2	2	10	2	1	2	2
3	2E	2	2	3	3	3	1	14	2	2	3	2
3	2F	2	2	2	3	2	1	12	2	2	2.5	1.5
3	2I	1	1	3	3	1	1	10	2	1	3	1
3	2J	1	1	2	2	2	1	9	1	1	2	1.5
4	1C	2	2	2	1	2	2	11	2	2	1.5	2
4	1D	2	2	3	2	3	2	14	2	2	2.5	2.5
4	1E	3	3	3	2	3	2	16	3	3	2.5	2.5

4	1F	2	3	2	2	2	2	13	2	2.5	2	2
4	1G	2	3	2	1	2	2	12	2	2.5	1.5	2
4	1H	2	3	2	1	2	1	11	2	2.5	1.5	1.5
4	1I	1	1	2	1	2	1	8	1	1	1.5	1.5
4	1J	2	1	3	2	2	1	11	2	1.5	2.5	1.5
4	2A	2	2	2	2	1	2	11	2	2	2	1.5
4	2B	1	1	1	1	1	2	7	1	1	1	1.5
4	2C	2	2	2	1	1	2	10	2	2	1.5	1.5
4	2D	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	2	2	2	2
4	2E	2	2	3	3	3	1	14	2	2	3	2
4	2F	1	1	2	1	2	1	8	1	1	1.5	1.5
4	2I	1	1	3	2	1	1	9	1	1	2.5	1
4	2J	1	1	1	1	2	1	7	1	1	1	1.5
5	1C	2	1	3	2	3	2	13	2	1.5	2.5	2.5
5	1D	2	2	2	2	3	3	14	2	2	2	3
5	1E	3	3	3	2	3	3	17	3	3	2.5	3
5	1F	2	2	2	2	3	2	13	2	2	2	2.5
5	1G	2	2	2	1	2	3	12	2	2	1.5	2.5
5	1H	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	2	2	2	2
5	1I	1	2	1	1	1	2	8	1	1.5	1	1.5
5	1J	2	2	1	1	2	2	10	2	2	1	2
5	2A	2	2	2	2	1	1	10	2	2	2	1
5	2B	1	2	1	1	1	1	7	1	1.5	1	1
5	2C	1	2	1	1	1	2	8	1	1.5	1	1.5
5	2D	2	1	1	1	2	1	8	1	1.5	1	1.5
5	2E	2	1	2	2	3	2	12	2	1.5	2	2.5
5	2F	1	1	2	2	3	1	10	2	1	2	2
5	2I	1	1	1	2	2	2	9	1	1	1.5	2
5	2J	1	1	2	2	3	3	12	2	1	2	3
6	1C	3	3	2	3	3	2	16	3	3	2.5	2.5
6	1D	3	3	2	2	3	3	16	3	3	2	3
6	1E	3	3	2	3	3	3	17	3	3	2.5	3
6	1F	2	3	2	2	3	2	14	2	2.5	2	2.5
6	1G	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5
6	1H	3	2	2	3	2	2	14	2	2.5	2.5	2
6	1I	2	2	1	1	1	2	9	1	2	1	1.5
6	1J	3	2	1	1	2	2	11	2	2.5	1	2
6	2A	2	2	3	2	1	1	11	2	2	2.5	1
6	2B	2	2	1	1	1	1	8	1	2	1	1
6	2C	2	1	1	2	1	2	9	1	1.5	1.5	1.5

6	2D	3	2	1	2	2	1	11	2	2.5	1.5	1.5
6	2E	2	2	1	3	3	2	13	2	2	2	2.5
6	2F	2	1	2	3	3	1	12	2	1.5	2.5	2
6	2I	2	1	2	3	2	2	12	2	1.5	2.5	2
6	2J	1	1	2	2	3	3	12	2	1	2	3
7	1C	2	3	3	2	3	2	15	3	2.5	2.5	2.5
7	1D	3	3	3	2	3	3	17	3	3	2.5	3
7	1E	3	3	3	3	3	3	NA	3	3	3	3
7	1F	3	3	3	3	3	3	NA	3	3	3	3
7	1G	3	3	1	2	2	3	14	2	3	1.5	2.5
7	1H	3	3	2	2	2	2	14	2	3	2	2
7	1I	2	2	2	2	1	2	11	2	2	2	1.5
7	1J	2	2	3	2	2	2	13	2	2	2.5	2
7	2A	2	2	3	2	1	1	11	2	2	2.5	1
7	2B	1	2	2	1	1	1	8	1	1.5	1.5	1
7	2C	2	2	1	1	1	2	9	1	2	1	1.5
7	2D	2	2	1	2	2	1	10	2	2	1.5	1.5
7	2E	3	2	3	3	3	2	16	3	2.5	3	2.5
7	2F	1	1	1	1	3	1	8	1	1	1	2
7	2I	1	1	3	3	2	2	12	2	1	3	2
7	2J	1	1	3	3	3	3	14	2	1	3	3
8	1C	2	2	3	2	2	3	14	2	2	2.5	2.5
8	1D	3	3	3	2	3	3	17	3	3	2.5	3
8	1E	3	3	3	3	2	3	17	3	3	3	2.5
8	1F	3	3	3	3	2	3	17	3	3	3	2.5
8	1G	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5
8	1H	3	3	1	2	2	3	14	2	3	1.5	2.5
8	1I	2	2	2	3	1	2	12	2	2	2.5	1.5
8	1J	3	2	1	3	2	2	13	2	2.5	2	2
8	2A	2	3	2	3	1	2	13	2	2.5	2.5	1.5
8	2B	1	2	1	2	1	1	8	1	1.5	1.5	1
8	2C	2	2	2	2	1	2	11	2	2	2	1.5
8	2D	3	3	2	3	2	3	16	3	3	2.5	2.5
8	2E	3	2	3	3	3	2	16	3	2.5	3	2.5
8	2F	2	1	3	3	2	2	13	2	1.5	3	2
8	2I	1	1	3	3	2	2	12	2	1	3	2
8	2J	1	1	2	1	2	1	8	1	1	1.5	1.5
9	1C	3	3	3	3	2	3	17	3	3	3	2.5
9	1D	3	3	2	2	3	3	16	3	3	2	3
9	1E	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5

9	1F	2	2	2	3	2	3	14	2	2	2.5	2.5
9	1G	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5
9	1H	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5
9	1I	2	2	2	3	1	2	12	2	2	2.5	1.5
9	1J	2	2	1	1	2	2	10	2	2	1	2
9	2A	2	2	2	2	1	2	11	2	2	2	1.5
9	2B	1	2	1	1	1	1	7	1	1.5	1	1
9	2C	2	2	2	2	1	2	11	2	2	2	1.5
9	2D	3	2	2	2	2	3	14	2	2.5	2	2.5
9	2E	2	2	2	3	3	2	14	2	2	2.5	2.5
9	2F	1	1	2	3	2	2	11	2	1	2.5	2
9	2I	1	1	2	3	2	2	11	2	1	2.5	2
9	2J	1	1	1	2	2	1	8	1	1	1.5	1.5
10	1C	2	2	2	1	2	3	12	2	2	1.5	2.5
10	1D	3	3	2	1	3	3	15	3	3	1.5	3
10	1E	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5
10	1F	2	2	2	2	2	3	13	2	2	2	2.5
10	1G	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5
10	1H	2	2	1	1	2	3	11	2	2	1	2.5
10	1I	3	3	3	3	3	3	NA	3	3	3	3
10	1J	3	3	3	3	3	3	NA	3	3	3	3
10	2A	3	2	1	2	1	2	11	2	2.5	1.5	1.5
10	2B	1	2	1	1	1	1	7	1	1.5	1	1
10	2C	2	3	1	1	1	2	10	2	2.5	1	1.5
10	2D	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5
10	2E	3	2	3	3	3	2	16	3	2.5	3	2.5
10	2F	2	1	2	2	2	2	11	2	1.5	2	2
10	2I	1	1	3	3	2	2	12	2	1	3	2
10	2J	1	1	3	2	2	1	10	2	1	2.5	1.5
11	1C	2	2	2	1	2	3	12	2	2	1.5	2.5
11	1D	2	2	2	1	3	3	13	2	2	1.5	3
11	1E	2	2	2	2	2	3	13	2	2	2	2.5
11	1F	2	2	2	2	2	3	13	2	2	2	2.5
11	1G	3	3	2	2	2	3	15	3	3	2	2.5
11	1H	2	2	2	2	2	3	13	2	2	2	2.5
11	1I	2	2	1	1	1	2	9	1	2	1	1.5
11	1J	2	2	1	1	2	2	10	2	2	1	2
11	2A	2	2	2	2	1	2	11	2	2	2	1.5
11	2B	1	2	1	1	1	1	7	1	1.5	1	1
11	2C	2	2	1	1	1	2	9	1	2	1	1.5

11	2D	3	2	1	1	2	3	12	2	2.5	1	2.5
11	2E	2	2	1	2	3	2	12	2	2	1.5	2.5
11	2F	2	1	2	2	2	2	11	2	1.5	2	2
11	2I	1	1	1	2	2	2	9	1	1	1.5	2
11	2J	1	1	1	2	2	1	8	1	1	1.5	1.5

Table 8: Table with different scores per individual learner

ID	Mean proficiency score (max. = 18)
1C	13.7
1D	15.2
1E	15.8
1F	13.8
1G	13.7
1H	12.9
1I	9.75
1J	11.1
2A	11.2
2B	7.6
2C	9.6
2D	11.9
2E	14.1
2F	10.6
2I	10.6
2J	9.9

25 Comparison of tasks

A comparison of some task features reveals that the last task was probably most different from all the others. As learners mentioned in the recall interview, the last task was more demanding language-wise as it required learners to use past simple (cf. 1EF11SR) and it was therefore more resource-directing (Robinson, 2001). In addition, some learners found the topics of this task not very engaging (1CD11SR, 2EF11SR). Additionally, unlike all other tasks, there was no consensus required.

Task number	Consensus required	Familiar lexis	No past tense required
2	+	+	+
3	-/+	-/+	+
4	+	-	+
5	-	-/+	+
6	+	-	+
7	+	-/+	+
8	+	+	+
9	-/+	+	+
10	+	+	+
11	-	-/+	-

Table 9: Comparison of tasks

26 Plots of development of proficiency measures

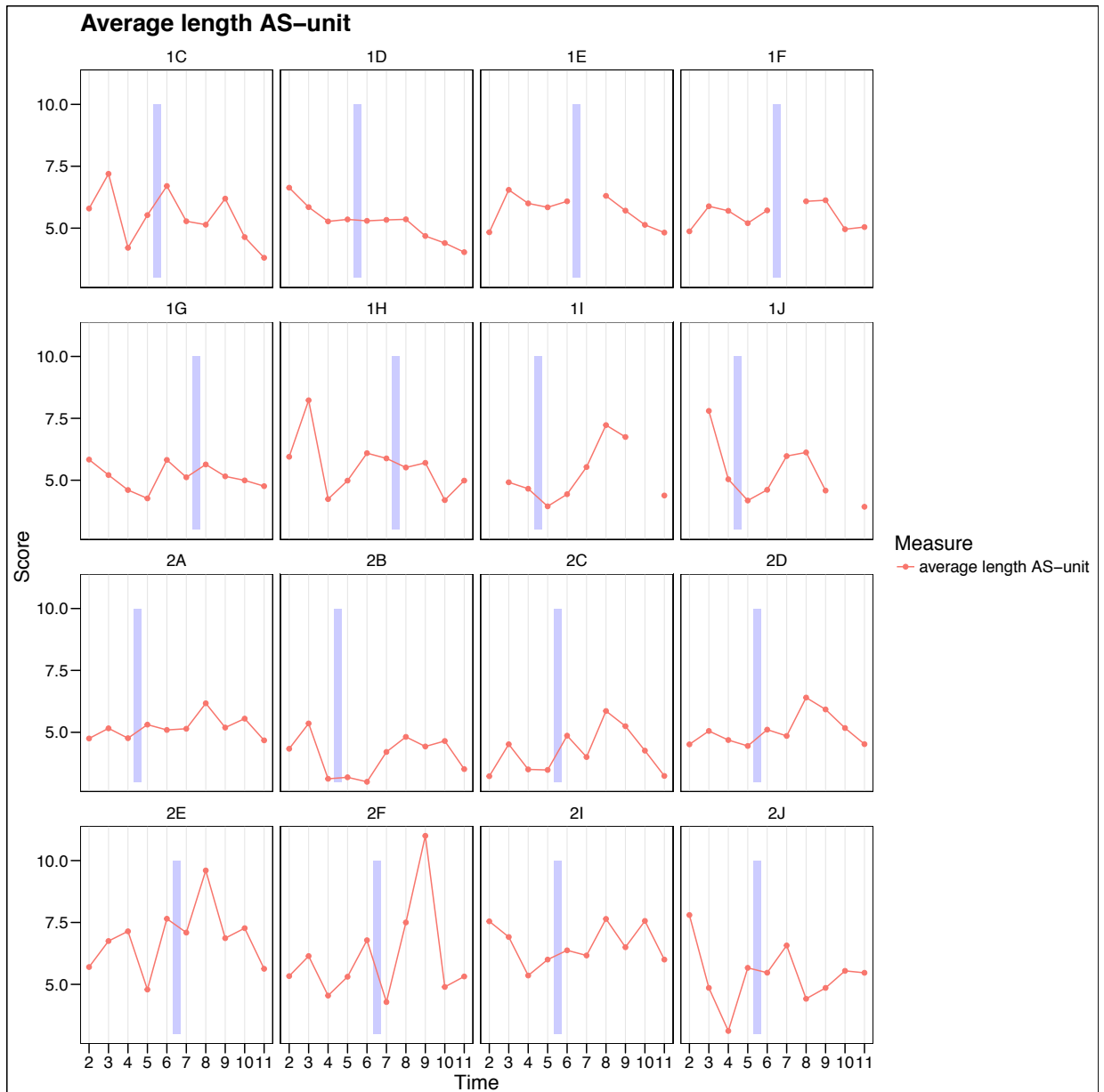


Figure 26: Development of syntactical average length of AS-unit over time

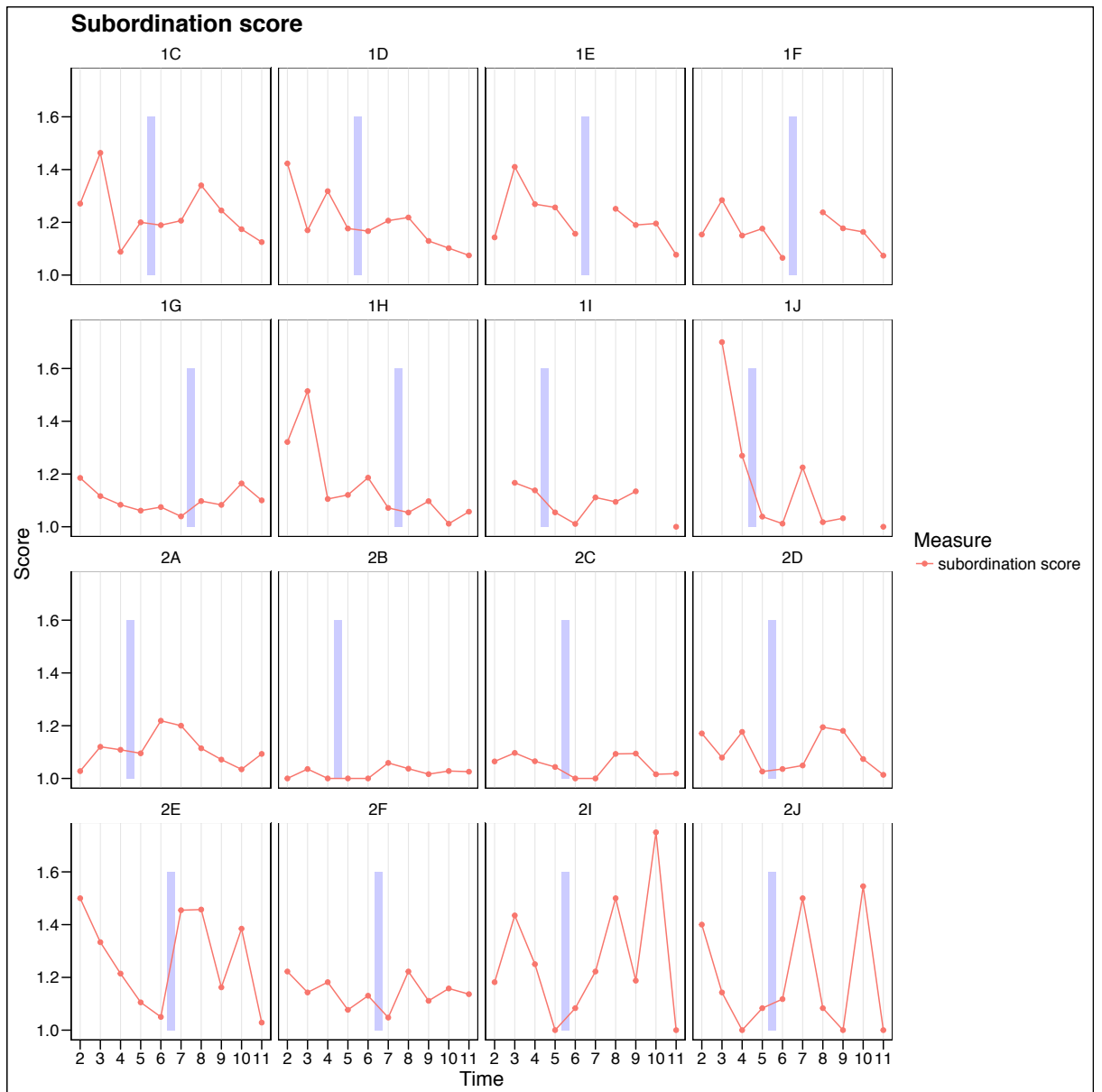


Figure 27: Development of subordination score over time

As lexical complexity could only be measured with longer texts, there are only three measurements per learner.

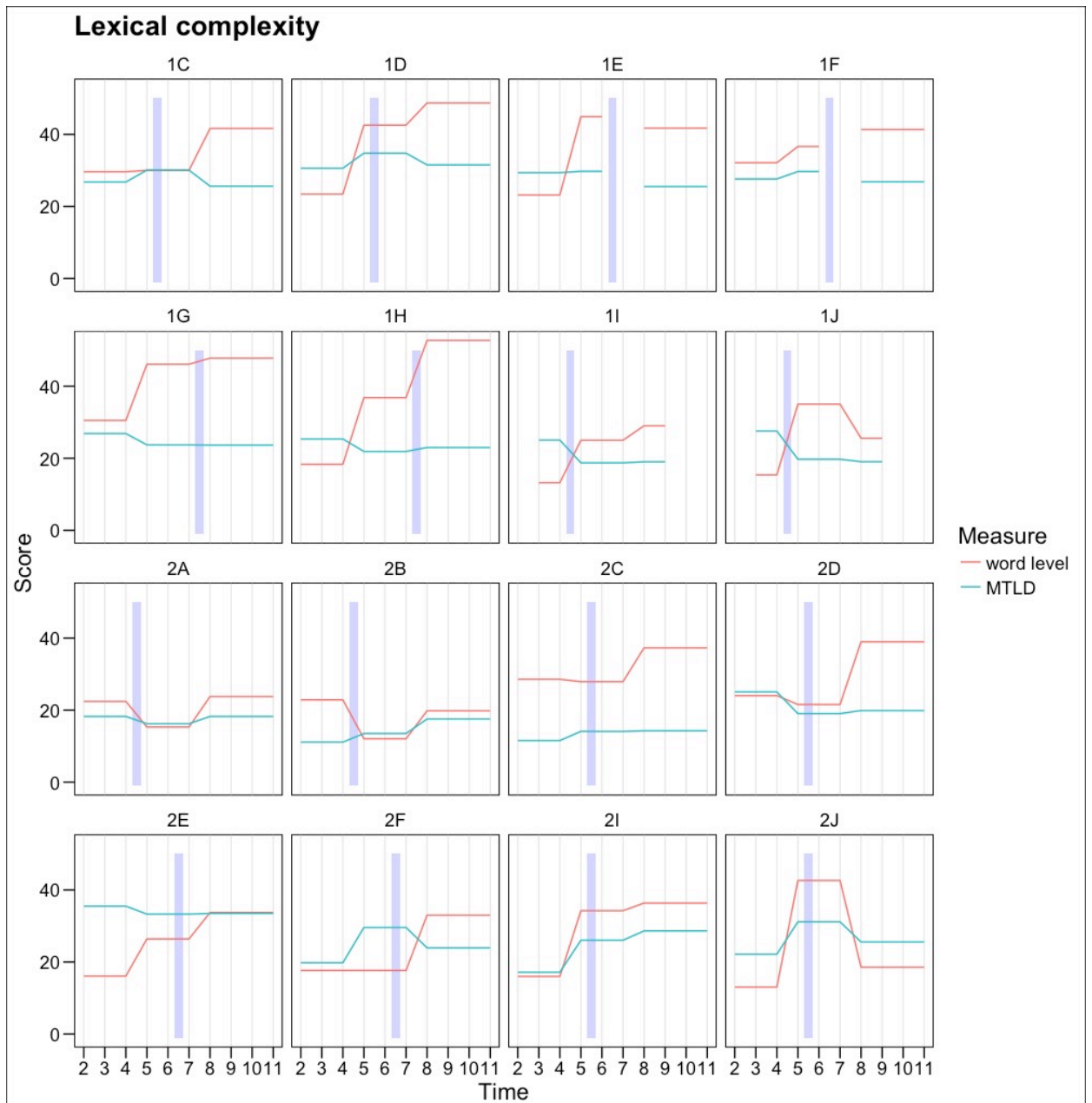


Figure 28: Development of lexical complexity over time

27 Paired samples T-test

27.1 Robust descriptives

			SE
pruned speech-rate before	Mean	76.07	6.2870
	Trimmed mean	75.85	8.0156
pruned speech-rate after	Mean	86.91	7.1190
	Trimmed mean	87.73	8.0131
phonation time before	Mean	68.18	2.7595
	Trimmed mean	67.56	3.6343
phonation time after	Mean	72.71	2.8886
	Trimmed mean	72.71	4.1932
subordination score before	Mean	1.10	0.0191
	Trimmed mean	1.09	0.0207
subordination score after	Mean	1.12	0.0295
	Trimmed mean	1.09	0.0261
average length AS-unit before	Mean	5.33	0.2822
	Trimmed mean	5.37	0.2324
average length AS-unit after	Mean	5.33	0.2658
	Trimmed mean	5.39	0.326
time in English per speaker before	Mean	213.72	24.5959
	Trimmed mean	202.02	33.1275
time in English per speaker after	Mean	276.25	44.3822
	Trimmed mean	236.33	48.9571
shared time on-task before	Mean	469.64	43.1794
	Trimmed mean	463.95	65.2550
shared time on-task after	Mean	555.90	81.2079
	Trimmed mean	481.68	95.2541

27.2 Robust paired samples T-test

Robust Paired Samples T-Test

		t	df	p	Mean difference	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Cohen's d
							Lower	Upper	
Pruned speech rate pre	Pruned speech rate post	-2.6028	9.00	0.029	-11.88825	4.5675	-22.2207	-1.5558	0.2496
Phonation time pre	Phonation time post	-2.1970	9.00	0.056	-5.14739	2.3429	-10.4475	0.1527	0.2450
Subordination score pre	Subordination score post	-0.2066	9.00	0.841	-0.00577	0.0279	-0.0690	0.0574	0.0470
Average length of AS-unit pre	Average length of AS-unit post	-0.0603	9.00	0.953	-0.01530	0.2536	-0.5891	0.5585	0.0110
Time in English per speaker pre	Time in English per speaker post	-1.2499	9.00	0.243	-34.31100	27.4505	-96.4084	27.7864	0.1791
Shared time on-task pre	Shared time on-task post	-0.3127	9.00	0.762	-17.72500	56.6905	-145.9678	110.5178	0.0517

27.3 Wilcoxon signed rank test

Hypothesis:

- There is a statistically significant difference in the rankings of the pre-feedback and post-feedback complexity and fluency measures.
- The rankings of the participants' pre-feedback scores are systematically higher than the rankings of the post-feedback scores.
- The rankings of the participants' pre-feedback scores are systematically lower than the rankings of the post-feedback scores.

Alpha at .05

Scores are calculated for subordination score, length of AS-unit, phonation time ratio and pruned speech rate but not for MTLD or word level as these were measured over several tasks.

Syntactical complexity

Subordination score:

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

W = 0.94598, p-value = 0.4288

W = 0.84061, p-value = 0.009943

Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction

V = 55, p-value = 0.7983

V = 65, p-value = 0.7983

Average length AS-unit:

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

W = 0.97521, p-value = 0.9142

W = 0.979, p-value = 0.9552

Wilcoxon signed rank test

V = 61, p-value = 0.7436

V = 75, p-value = 0.7436

There is a 95% certainty that there is no statistically significant difference in the rankings of the pre-feedback and post-feedback complexity scores for the learners who received feedback designed to promote using more interaction strategies.

Fluency

Phonation time ratio:

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

W = 0.9116, p-value = 0.1235

W = 0.9183, p-value = 0.1584

Wilcoxon signed rank test

V = 25, p-value = 0.02496

V = 111, p-value = 0.02496

Pruned speech rate:

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

W = 0.95076, p-value = 0.5018

W = 0.94547, p-value = 0.4215

Wilcoxon signed rank test

V = 112, p-value = 0.02139

V = 24, p-value = 0.02139

There is a 95% certainty that there is a statistically significant difference in the rankings of the pre-feedback and post-feedback fluency scores for the learners who received feedback designed to promote using more interaction strategies.

28 Possible reasons for the effect of the feedback

28.1 English chunks as fillers and English one-word fillers

L ²⁴	Positive effect of intervention	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
1C		English chunks as fillers English one-word fillers		After the instruction, 1C was supported more by his partner 1D. He, therefore, need not use more fillers to gain time as his partner would have supported him already.
1F	English chunks as fillers			1F is the less fluent learner of this pair and she complained in the recall interview that it was sometimes difficult to gain the floor. Using more chunks as fillers might have helped her keep the floor.
1G	English chunks as fillers			1G proved to be very aware of his learning process as he demonstrated in the very specific comments he made in the recall interviews. He seems able to consciously integrate more English chunks as fillers into his talk. Additionally, he is on a rather high level of lexical complexity. This probably permitted him to integrate more elaborate fillers into his talk.
1I		English chunks as fillers English one-word fillers		1I did not have the chance to use chunks as fillers as he was compelled by his partner to rather talk for display where any hesitation might be perceived as negative even when filled with a phrase. Additionally, his lexical complexity score is on a rather low level, and he is therefore probably not able to integrate the new lexis while being under time-pressure.
	English chunks as fillers			1J did integrate the fillers emphatically, which permitted him to use hesitation markers and still perform the interaction for display. He is on a higher level for lexical complexity than his partner.

²⁴ Learner

1J	English one-word fillers			
2C			English chunks as fillers	2C is on a rather low level for lexical complexity and therefore probably not able to integrate the chunks into his talk. Using single words as fillers might have been more appropriate feedback for him.
2I			English chunks as fillers	2I's lexical complexity score is on a rather low level, and he is therefore not able to integrate the chunks yet. Using single words as fillers might have been more appropriate feedback for him.

Conditions:

- Lexical complexity needs to be developed to some degree, sufficiently large vocabulary as a reason (Harris et al., 2001).
- If learners are changing to a more collaborative pattern of interaction at the same time, using fillers might be obsolete.
- Learners should not orient towards display, personality as a reason (Harris et al., 2001).

28.2 Paraphrase

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	possible explanation
1D	Paraphrase			Being able to paraphrase requires a high level of English as otherwise less demanding strategies such as foreignising are more prevalent. Her lexical complexity is high enough to include paraphrase.
1E			Paraphrase	Her lexical complexity is not as high as 1D's. Besides, she had used already quite a high number of paraphrase before the feedback. 1E and 1F displayed a high willingness to resolve trouble throughout all the interactions. Rather than increasing the use of more sophisticated self-help strategies, 1E and 1F used collaborative strategies such as confirmation checks to compensate their lack of resources.
2A			Paraphrase	2B could hardly follow him when he explained something in English. Using more paraphrase could have increased the number of misunderstandings even more.
2B	Paraphrase			2B was able to integrate more paraphrase despite his very low level of English. Consciously using a strategy such as paraphrase might have helped him. However, he depended much on his partner to help him with the paraphrase. Additionally, he lowered the number of paraphrase later again and used the school language more.
2F		Paraphrase		His language proficiency is too low to integrate paraphrase.
2J			Paraphrase	His language proficiency is too low to integrate paraphrase.

Conditions:

- Lexical complexity needs to be developed to some degree (Dörnyei, 1995; Lam, 2010a).
- The partner's level of English needs to be high enough as otherwise there might be too much trouble in the interaction (Aston, 1986).

28.3 Gestures and mime as lexical compensatory strategy

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
2F		Gestures and mime to replace an unknown word		He feels very insecure, hates speaking English and rather uses English for display. An orientation to using English for display and unwillingness to speak may not permit using compensatory strategies such as gestures to replace an unknown word as this makes trouble evident and prolongs the interaction.

Condition:

- Willingness to speak, resolve trouble and thus expose own weakness.

28.4 Supporting the partner without exposing the trouble (completions and confirmation checks)

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
1J	Completion		Confirmation check	1J supported his partner more after the instruction by using more listener support and completions. However, the change did not last and compared to 1D, he still used far fewer support strategies and throughout rather exposed 1I's weakness. He lacked an understanding of the shared responsibility for the interaction. 1J still oriented to doing the interaction for display. This does not permit him to increase the number of confirmation checks which is a supportive move which would not expose the partner.

Condition:

- Talking for learning rather than for display, be willing to collaborate and be aware of the shared responsibility for the interaction.

28.5 Listener support phrase

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
1C			Listener support phrase	He was on a high level already compared to other learners. Using more was probably not necessary in an interaction with a more able peer.
1D	Listener support phrase			She was perceived as the most proficient learner by the two teachers. Besides, she did want to support her partner more as told by her teacher. She can therefore integrate more listener support phrases into her talk.
1E			Listener support phrase	1E and 1F already use highly co-constructed talk. An increase in using response tokens is probably not necessary.
1G		Listener support phrase (but had increased immediately before)		1G was on a rather high level before the feedback. It was probably not necessary to integrate more listener support phrases into his talk. Teacher 1 had provided this instruction to almost every learner of her class. However, he did use single words for providing listener support and shadowing more often after the feedback.
1H	Listener support phrase			1H only very slightly increased the use of listener support phrases. He is slightly less fluent than his partner and their interaction displayed rather high mutuality and equality, which might explain why the change was only minor and did not last.
1I	Listener support phrase			He did increase the use of listener support phrases slightly after the instruction but then lowered the frequency again. He did increase the number of single words (listener support single words) though. His lexical complexity level is probably too low to integrate listener support phrases; he, therefore, increased listener support single words mostly.
1J	Listener support phrase			He is on a higher level for lexical complexity than his partner. He used listener support phrases in a rather emphatical way and thus underlined the talking for display.
2I			Listener support phrase	His level of English (lexical complexity) is too low to use more phrases for providing listener support.

Conditions:

- Lexical complexity needs to be developed to some degree. Learners at a very low level may use single words for listener support single words instead.
- There should be a need for an increase:
 - When the interaction displays high mutuality and equality already and the partner is on a higher proficiency level, there is probably no need to provide more listener support.

28.6 Listener support single words

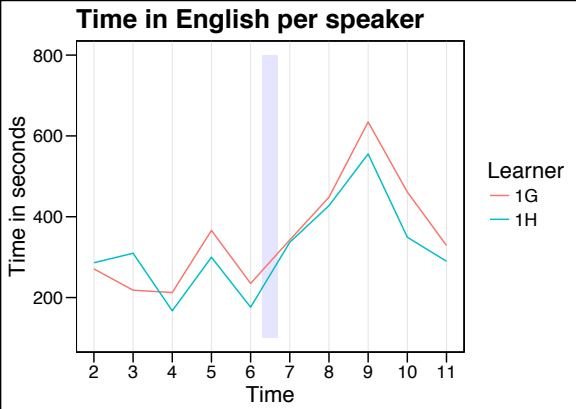
L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
1D			Listener support single words	1D increased the number of phrases she used for providing listener support and the interaction was more collaborative after the feedback with her supporting the partner more. Therefore, no change in using single words for providing listener support was necessary.
1H		Listener support single words		His partner contributed slightly more to the interactions before the instruction (longer time in English per speaker, cf. Figure 29). Therefore, using listener support single words and thus encouraging his partner to contribute even more, would create an imbalance and be counterproductive for their otherwise contingent interaction. After the intervention, the two learners contributed more equally than before. 

Figure 29: Time in English per speaker for 1G and 1H over all the interactions, purple bar = feedback

Conditions:

- There should be a need for an increase:
 - When learners increase the use of listener support phrases, there is probably no need for an increase in providing one-word listener support.
 - When the partner tends to speak more, it is probably not appropriate to recommend using more listener support.

28.7 Shadowing

L	positive effect	negative effect	no effect	Possible explanation
1D	Shadowing			She successfully integrated shadowing, and this way supported her partner more after the feedback. Before the intervention, she also made her partner contribute more but in a more face-threatening manner, for example by explicitly offering him the turn.
2D	Shadowing			2D has a rather low proficiency score, using other-repetition for shadowing is not demanding and can therefore be implemented.

Conditions:

- No conditions.

28.8 Assistance appeal

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
1F		Assistance appeal		In highly co-constructed talk, a face-threatening way of asking for help is not necessary. Despite the lack of an increase in using assistance appeal, 1E and 1F displayed a high willingness to resolve trouble throughout all the interactions. They hardly ever used the school language, and if they did, they still tried to find an English equivalent. They used more collaborative strategies such as confirmation checks for supporting each other. Despite the negative effect, even after the intervention, 1F's level of assistance appeals was on a similar level as for many other learners.
2A			Assistance appeal Assistance appeal in English	Instruction probably targeted the wrong strategies: Because of his partner's very low level and the rather high difference in proficiency between the two, he would probably have asked for assistance in vain.
2B	Assistance appeal			2B did ask for assistance more after the feedback, however this effect was not necessarily positive as this only increased the imbalance between 2A and 2B.
2B	Assistance appeal in English			Asking for assistance in English was beyond his current level of proficiency, and after an initial increase, he, therefore, returned to using mostly the school language for this.

Conditions:

- Learners need to be on the same or lower proficiency level than their partner.
- Learners need to be proficient enough to integrate more sophisticated forms of assistance appeal.
- As this is a rather face-threatening way of asking for help, there seems to be a limit to how many assistance appeals can be used. Learners rather use less face-threatening means to support each other.

28.9 Clarification request and repetition request

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
1C		Clarification request	Repetition request	More face-threatening assistance seeking is not necessary when interaction is co-constructed as this pair did after the feedback.
1D			Clarification request	Once 1D provided more support, there was no need for her to use the more face-threatening clarification requests for resolving the trouble. She preferred confirmation checks to clarify issues.
1H		Clarification request		1G and 1H used a collaborative pattern of interaction. Face-threatening clarification requests – unless used as fake requests as they did later – is not necessary.
1J			Repetition request	This was probably the wrong instruction. Using more repetition requests, would probably have exposed 1I even more as he would have made explicit that he was facing a problem.
2D			Repetition request	In collaborative talk, learners rather use the less face-threatening confirmation checks than repetition requests.

Conditions:

- This is a rather face-threatening way of asking for help and there is probably a limit to how many clarification requests and repetition requests can be used without causing too much trouble in the interaction (Aston, 1986).

28.10 Start and end in English

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
2A	End in English			When 2A used English to talk about a new topic, his partner was not able to understand him. For ending the interaction however, his partner had already mentioned in German that they were done. Therefore, 2A could use English to end the interaction without having to clarify what he had said. Besides, the phrase he used is very similar to German so that 2B would understand it.
2B	Start in English			The phrase he was given to start the conversation in English is simple and similar to German. Therefore, he was able to use it despite his low level.
2C	Start in English			cf. above
2I	End in English			cf. above As he was the one leading the conversation, initiating the topics and switching back to English, he could quite naturally integrate this.
2J	Start in English			cf. 2C above

Conditions:

- None.

28.11 Supporting the partner

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
1C			Supporting the partner	He is the less able learner in this pair (lower proficiency scores for fluency and lexical complexity, almost same score for syntactical complexity). Therefore, supporting the partner is beyond what he can do.
1D	Supporting the partner			Her high language proficiency, the willingness to learn and the way her teacher explained to her the shared responsibility for the interaction permitted her to adopt a different role in the interaction and support her partner more.

Conditions:

- Learners need to be aware of the shared responsibility for the interaction.
- Learners need to be on the same or higher proficiency level than their partner.

28.12 Offer partner more thinking time

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
	Offer partner more thinking time			She is the more fluent speaker in a collaborative pair. Offering her partner some more thinking time does therefore not affect mutuality negatively.

Conditions:

- Can probably only be implemented when given to the more fluent partner in a pair with unequal fluency scores.

28.13 Offer turn

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
2D			Offer turn	2CD's interaction is collaborative. Asking one learner to offer the turn to his partner seems rather inappropriate. 2D is on a higher proficiency level than his partner, and therefore the right instruction would probably have been to support his partner with more words rather than offer the turn and thus potentially expose 2C.
2I	Offer turn			2I often used the foreignised phrase 'what do you mean' which probably eased the integration. His partner hardly contributed before and this was one way of directly integrating his partner more.
2J	Offer turn			Being a learner at very low proficiency level, he can thus put the onus of continuing the interaction on the partner. At one instance, he used 'you' to ask his partner to continue, a rather rude but simple and effective way of putting the onus of continuing the interaction on the partner.

Conditions:

- There should be a need for an increase:
 - Not appropriate when given as instruction to learners who use very collaborative talk.

28.14 Keep talking for longer

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
2E	Keep talking for longer			He only received the general feedback to keep talking for longer, which he did after the intervention.
2F		Keep talking for longer		His partner started talking more after the intervention. Together, their interactions took longer. This probably meant that he – the less able speaker – could now speak less.

Conditions:

- Probably only possible for the more able learner in a pair. The next step would then be to ask the more able learner to support the partner more.

28.15 Use specific words or phrases

L	Positive effect	Negative effect	No effect	Possible explanation
2C	Use specific words			Such very specific instruction can be implemented by weaker learners. Knowledge of specific lexical patterns such as 'why – because' might be especially helpful at very low levels.
2I	Use specific words			cf. above
2J	Use specific words			cf. above

Conditions: none

29 Conversation-analytic role-play method

- 1) 'I identify a data extract, or series of extracts, in which a particular interactional problem seems to arise, or in which a 'successful' outcome (e.g., a client agrees to mediation) is accomplished.
- 2) The data is transcribed according to the usual conversation-analytic conventions (Jefferson, 2004) and both sound file and written transcript are anonymised.
- 3) The transcript is presented, line-by-line, synchronised with the audio file. This means that workshop participants 'live through' the call as it happens – they do not receive transcripts ahead of hearing the extract and do not know how the conversation unfolds beyond the lines I play to them.
- 4) Having played one or several lines, or turns, in a call, workshop participants then discuss possible trouble and perturbations in the call thus far, and begin to formulate candidate next turns.
- 5) The next turn of the conversation is then played, and participants discuss it as a possible solution to the trouble displayed earlier in the call'. (Stokoe, 2011, p.126)

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