Effect of promoting second language learners' awareness of their interactional patterns on their performance in decision-making tasks in pairs

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Declaration

I, Yoshiko Shiroyama, hereby declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own.

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Abstract

This study was motivated by the desire to build a solid understanding of how interactional competence may be developed in Japanese learners of English. To this end, it investigates the effect of awareness-raising activities on learners' subsequent patterns of interaction when working in pairs on decision-making tasks. The main focus of the investigation was placed on topic management, a core element of interactional competence. The awareness-raising activities involved the learners analysing their topic management by using audio recordings and transcriptions of their earlier task performances. To evaluate the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities through self-analysis, this study also explored the development in the learners' awareness and their perception of topic management.

This study adopts a mixed methods approach. The participants were 88 Japanese intermediate learners of English, who attended four sessions over one week. The participants were randomly divided into an experimental group and a control group.

The learners' patterns of interaction were examined both quantitatively and qualitatively at three points through pre-, concurrent-, and post-awareness-raising activities. To explore the learners' awareness development and perspectives on their topic management, their replies to two questionnaires were also analysed qualitatively.

Both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the dyads' interactions indicated some enhancement of mutuality in interaction in their final session. There was much engagement with each other's ideas, and features of collaborative interaction were observed. In contrast, the quantitative analysis indicated that the awareness-raising activities may not have affected the dimension of equality in terms of the amount of talk or topic initiation. Qualitative analysis of the learners' completed questionnaires indicated definite development in awareness. The analysis also suggested that the learners' increased awareness of the co-constructed nature of interaction underpinned the change in their interactional patterns. These results are discussed with reference to the relevant theories and empirical studies.

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Impact Statement

The ability to interact with others has been recognized as crucial for successful conversation. The notion of interactional competence has thus gained attention in second language acquisition. It refers to "a relationship between the participants' employment of linguistic and interactional resources and the contexts" (Young, 2008, p. 101). However, opinions vary among researchers about how best to promote this quality. The current study provides empirical support for the claim that reflection and analysis can help learners develop interactional competence. This study focuses on Japanese learners of English. However, the findings can be put to beneficial use in any language teaching beyond the context of Japan.

In many countries, one of the primary goals of language education is to help learners develop communication ability. In Japan this goal is specified in the country's National Curriculum Guidelines (MEXT, 2013) and further stressed in recent educational reforms that affect Japan's entire educational system, from primary school to university. Teachers are striving for effective ways to incorporate communicative teaching into their traditional teacher-centred classroom. There is clearly a need to develop a systematic foundation for instruction based on empirical studies. This is what the current study provides. It argues that language learners who take part in awareness-raising activities can increase their sensitivity to the co-constructed nature of genuine interaction, which eventually promotes mutuality in interaction. Distinct features of collaborative interaction were observed in their final task performances in this study. These indicate a definite development in interactional competence.

The incorporation of the learners' views on interaction to this study also has

implications for teachers. The learners' replies to a question on their prior awareness of their English interaction indicate a need for teachers to recognize that learners are not necessarily concerned about their communication style. The replies of the control group also suggest that just showing learners transcripts and recordings of their interaction does not necessarily direct their attention to their communication style, because they tend to be more concerned with grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. These suggest that leaners need to experience appropriate awareness-raising activities in order to develop interactional competence.

The current study suggests the definite potential of self-analysis as a tool to develop interactional competence although it is not a perfect remedy. It demonstrates that learners are capable of identifying features of their communication style without outside help and then making changes of their own accord. Thus, this study calls for more involvement of the learners themselves in developing interactional competence. They, too, are stakeholders in language learning.

The findings of this research need to be disseminated in academic journals in the field of second language acquisition both in and outside Japan. Due to its potential for wide applicability, this experiment should appear on all Japan's regional Education Centre websites so that it can be trialled in schools. Another application would be for workshops to be held for groups of teachers from local schools and language schools, which would be also an effective way of disseminating this experiment.

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List of Abbreviations

CA   Conversation Analysis

CEFR   Common European Framework of References for languages:

            Learning, teaching, and assessment

ESL   English as a Second Language

ESOL   English for Speakers of Other Languages

FCE   Cambridge First Certificate in English

IELTS   International English Language Testing System

L1   First language

L2   Second language

NNS   Non-native Speaker of English

NS   Native Speaker of English

SLA   Second Language Acquisition

TESOL   Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

Contents

Reflective Statement

Introduction

My research interest in interactional competence has remained true since I embarked on my EdD course at the Institute of Education (IOE) in 2013. As a language teacher and a language learner myself, I have always been interested in how interactional competence can be developed in Japanese learners of English, many of whom seem to have difficulty in communicating effectively even when their command of English is good. The courses at the IOE reassured me that this area of focus is not only viable but has a potential value for both educational theory and pedagogy. Having completed four taught modules and the IOE's Institution-Focused Study (IFS), I felt that I was equipped with the foundational knowledge and skills necessary to work on my thesis on the development of interactional competence in Japanese learners of English. The path I have pursued has also been beneficial for my professional development and my career. In this paper, I reflect on my progress through the IOE's three core courses and the IFS project, and how these helped me develop my research ideas.

1. Foundations of Professionalism course

The core taught programme at the IOE comprises three courses. The Foundation of Professionalism in Education, which was the first core course, provided me with a valuable opportunity to look afresh my profession, English language teaching at secondary education. Although I had been working as a teacher of English in a state school for more than twenty years, I had not really seen myself as a professional. I was pretty sure that this view was shared, to a certain extent, by other teachers of English

working at the lower or upper secondary levels in Japan. My engagement with this course began with my asking myself what exactly stops us viewing ourselves as professionals. Is it because we are teaching only at secondary level? Or is it because we are teaching a foreign language, rather than mathematics or science? As the essay topic for this module, I had no hesitation in choosing "Professionalism from the perspective of a language teacher in a Japanese secondary school". I began with a review of the concepts of profession and professionalism, followed by the examination of how the notion of teacher professionalism has changed over time and varies depending on culture, local context, and subject matter. Then I discussed teacher professionalism within a specific context from the perspective of an English teacher in a Japanese secondary school and put forward suggestions how it could be enhanced. I concluded that it may be time for Japanese teachers of English to explore a new definition of teacher professionalism in my country.

Reflecting on this course now, I find it truly meaningful to have explored professionalism right at the outset of the EdD programme. This course allowed me to see myself, a secondary school language teacher, in a wider context. The course also helped me improve my academic essay writing because I had trouble achieving a good balance between the range and depth of the materials needed to support my arguments. The initial feedback was particularly helpful in dealing with this problem. Concrete and detailed feedback on the structure of the essay also provided me with guidelines useful for my later work.

2. Methods of Enquiry 1

The second module, Methods of Enquiry 1 (MOE1), dealt with theoretical and

conceptual issues in educational research. I benefited not only from the set readings and lectures but also from the group discussions on our research topics. Most of my colleagues were not from my field of applied linguistics and some of their comments on my research topic were unexpected. Their questions enabled me to see my research ideas and research methods from fresh angles.

The assignment for this module was writing a research proposal. I took interactional competence as my subject and formulated the research proposal "Topic management among advanced Japanese learners of English in decision-making tasks". Topic management is a central element of interactional competence. This proposal was motivated by the desire to build a foundational understanding of how interactional competence may be developed in Japanese learners of English. I argued that the priority was to identify the salient features of topic management among Japanese advanced learners. My interest was how advanced learners would control a topic when they worked on decision-making tasks in pairs with three different types of interlocutor, each of whom would bring to the conversation their different identity, and their different linguistic and interactional resources. I chose a Japanese intermediate learner, a Japanese advanced learner, and a native speaker of English. By comparing the topic management of these advanced learners when they worked with different interlocutors, I hoped to isolate the core characteristics of topic management regardless of the type of interlocutor. I also hoped that the research design would allow me to identify how other aspects of topic management are affected with different interlocutors. Further, by including stimulated verbal recall in the research design, I expected to explore the learners' perception of their interactions.

When I was formulating this research proposal, I was of course aware that the

literature review is at the root of any research questions or research design. However, initial feedback from the examiner helped me create a strong link between my intended literature review and the rest of the proposal. This module helped me not only to deepen my understanding of the relationship between research methods and philosophical and sociological concepts of knowledge: it also helped me to better understand how to transform initial ideas into a coherent research proposal.

3. Methods of Enquiry 2

In the Methods of Enquiry 2 (MOE2) module, which focused on the research process and skills, we conducted a small scale research project and wrote a summary report. Although I took the same research area that I had covered in MOE1, interactional competence. I designed a different research project with the intention of getting a clearer idea of what my intended thesis would explore. By this time, I had decided to investigate the effects on Japanese intermediate learners' subsequent task performance of promoting their awareness of their interaction. The literature on second language acquisition had already suggested the potential for increasing learners' awareness in developing interactional competence. However, this investigation needed to begin by exploring what the learners themselves thought about their interactions. How learners perceive their interaction is not much understood. The research in MOE 2 thus aimed to explore Japanese intermediate learners' perceptions of topic management, including what difficulty they might experience in topic management. This research was also expected to clarify the extent of learners' abilities to discuss their interaction in their own words.

I recruited seven participants. The target group was made up of four Japanese

intermediate learners of English. Their interlocutors were a Japanese intermediate learner, a Japanese advanced learner, and a native speaker of English. The learners were asked to work on tasks in pairs with these three different types of interlocutor. The audio recording of each learner's task performance was used as a prompt for the stimulated recall (SR) that followed task performance. The data obtained from the four SRs were transcribed and analysed qualitatively.

Unlike the assignment in MOE 1, the research proposal made in MOE 2 was actually carried out. And I ran into several problems. One of the most basic but absolutely crucial challenges was the recruitment of participants. I was working at a state school in Japan at the time, which meant that I was not allowed to ask my pupils to take part because personal research by teachers is not approved in state schools. The local universities also turned down my request because I was not affiliated with them. I had great difficulty recruiting even the seven participants I needed. I was going to face the problem of participant recruitment again for the IFS and my doctoral study and the MOE 2 research made it clear that I needed to find a solution, and quickly.

With regard to the writing assignment, this time I was able to achieve coherence between the literature review, the research questions, and the research design. The initial feedback allowed me to sharpen the link between my analysis and my research questions. It also helped me to clarify the section of the data collection procedure so that readers could understand exactly what I did and why. Guided by the initial feedback, I reformulated my essay and in the process I realised that my understanding of my research topic was deepening and my thoughts were becoming clearer.

4. Institution-Focused Study (IFS)

Throughout the taught courses, I had been developing my research ideas and the design for the Institution-Focused Study (IFS) and my eventual thesis. The IFS was carried out in 2015. It investigated the effect of promoting Japanese intermediate learners' awareness of their interactional patterns on their performance in decision-making tasks. The awareness-raising activities involved the learners' analysing their topic management by using the transcripts and audio recordings of their task performance. The IFS was expected to evaluate and finalise my choice of the research instruments, data collection procedures, and analytic strategy to be used for the eventual thesis. Above all, it was expected to provide insight into the potential of using self-analysis as a tool to improve learners' topic management. A further six Japanese intermediate learners of English attended four sessions over a period of a week to provide the data for the Study.

The data collection went smoothly thanks to the MOE 2 experience. I had resolved the participant recruitment problem by contacting several universities well in advance and was given permission to recruit participants from a women's college in Tokyo, an outcome which had the advantage of allowing control for variables irrelevant to the research topic. Because of the small number of participants, the participants' topic management could not be analysed statistically. However, qualitative analysis was applied using methods drawn from Conversation Analysis (CA). The results revealed changes in some aspects of the learners' topic management before and after two interventions, which indicated the potential of self-analysis as a tool to improve the learners' topic management. Because of the small data set and the exclusion of a control group, these changes were theoretically attributable to other factors such as the individual characteristics of the group. However, the results of the IFS indicated the

value of extending this study to my thesis. Feedback from the examiners helped me to improve the data analysis procedure.

5. From IFS to Thesis

After submitting my IFS report at the end of September 2015, I started to work on my thesis proposal. I had decided to continue to investigate the effect of learners' participating in awareness-raising activities on their subsequent performance when working in pairs on decision-making tasks. I extended the IFS to my doctoral study by using a larger sample population, by adding a control group, and by controlling for the variables which can affect interaction. Although the data collection and data analysis procedures were now more complex, this would allow me to obtain more valid results. I was determined to meet the challenge.

6. Concluding comments

When I reflect on the path that has led me to completing this thesis, I feel I have made a long journey. I have frequently found it challenging to pursue the EdD programme while also working as a teacher. Without the great support of my supervisor and tutors along with the well thought-out structure of the EdD programme, I could not have continued this journey to today. The IOE has equipped me with solid foundations both as a researcher and as a language teacher.

Chapter 1

Introduction

This research aims to gain insight into how interactional competence can be developed in Japanese learners of English. To this end, it investigates the effect of awareness-raising activities on learners' subsequent patterns of interaction when working in pairs on decision-making tasks. The main focus of the investigation was placed on topic management, which is an important element of interactional competence. It has been argued that the ability to initiate, extend, shift, and close down topics appropriately is the core of interactional abilities (Gan, Davison, & Hamp-Lyons, 2008). Further, in spoken interaction, interlocutors assume both pro-active and re-active roles "simultaneously deconstructing messages as listeners and constructing their own messages as speakers" (Galaczi & Taylor, 2018, p. 1). The importance of an interlocutor's dual speaker/listener role has been recognized since the evolution of the notion of interactional competence (Oksaar, 1992). In the light of these acknowledgements, the current study defines topic management as the ability of a speaker to initiate and develop their topics while engaging with an interlocutor's ideas.

The awareness-raising activities involved the learners' self-analysis of their topic management by using transcripts of their earlier task performances and recordings. The learners' patterns of interaction were examined both quantitatively and qualitatively before and after the researcher's interventions, and relative to a control group. To evaluate the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities, this study also explores the learners' awareness development and their perceptions of topic management.

1.1 Rationale

The concept of *interactional competence* has been developing in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) since the 1990s (Barraja-Rohan, 2011). It emphasizes the view that interaction is co-constructed by all participants, each of whom brings their identity, and their linguistic and interactional resources to the interaction (Young, 2008). The notion of interactional competence has had a substantial influence on language teaching, and subsequently on language testing (Ducasse & Brown, 2009). This has generated an increasing number of studies on interaction. Distinctive patterns of dyadic interaction and key dimensions of interaction, such as equality and mutuality, have been suggested (e.g. Galaczi, 2004, 2008). These dimensions help to understand the features of dyadic interaction and clarify learners' topic organization.

To explore the development of interactional competence in learners, a number of studies have been conducted. Hall (1999) offers guidelines on how interactional competence is acquired and asserts that there are two specific processes involved: interaction with more competent participants, and the learners' conscious and systematic study of interactional features. Related to the first process, several studies (e.g. Dings, 2007, 2014; Yagi, 2007; Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2016) have delineated how learners develop elements of interactional competence by interacting with more competent participants, in their cases with native speakers of the target language. Related to the second process, it has been argued that reflection and analysis may have potential for teaching interactional competence (e.g. Wong, 2002). However, while there is a call for the direct instruction of specific problem areas identified by a teacher (e.g. Sayer, 2005), there are advocates of the view that more ownership should be given to the learners to identify features of their interaction and work on them (e.g. Walsh, 2003). In short, there

is no agreement among researchers. Clearly, there is a need for more intervention studies on the development of interactional competence, and in particular, on one specific element, topic management. Thus, the value of the current study lies in making an empirical contribution to inform theoretical discussions on the development of interactional competence.

This study also has practical implications. In many countries, the development of communication ability in learners is regarded as a primary goal of language education. There is an increasing need to develop effective instruction. Japan is no exception. In the country's current National Curriculum Guidelines for Foreign Languages at secondary schools, the development of communication ability is specified as a principal goal (MEXT, 2008, 2010). In the new National Curriculum Guidelines, which are to come into force at lower and upper secondary schools in 2021 and 2022 respectively, this goal is specifically stressed (MEXT, 2017, 2018). In particular, the ability to interact with others is highlighted as an integral element of speaking ability. Both the current and the new guidelines state that, for comprehensive learning, teachers should link the four (five in the new guidelines) areas of language activity: reading, listening, speaking (interaction/production), and writing. In the upper secondary school guidelines, *developing a topic* and *changing topics* are raised as examples of language functions*,* which teachers should combine with appropriate language situations. The guidelines further state that teachers should devise teaching methods and styles that incorporate pair and group work. In the real world, however, teachers may be striving to help their students develop basic communication ability. Indeed, in a survey of 3,935 secondary school teachers of English in Japan (Benesse Holdings, 2015), more than half responded that they were struggling to provide more effective instruction. Considering that

teacher-centred, lecture-style instruction has long been the traditional teaching style in Japan (Hosoki, 2011), this challenge may be shared with teachers at every level of education when they focus on spoken interaction. There is an urgent need to develop a systematic foundation of instruction based on empirical studies.

This study has the potential to offer classroom teachers, including the researcher herself, useful insights into how interactional competence may be developed in their students. It could provide teachers with information about features of interaction in Japanese learners, plus the students' views on their topic management. Although the initial target group of the experiment was Japanese intermediate learners of English, the findings could be put to beneficial use outside the context of Japan in any language teaching class that focuses on spoken interaction.

Thus, the value of the current study lies in the contribution it can make to both theory and practice in the area of interactional competence.

In light of the thinking outlined above and the gaps in the literature, the following three research questions emerged:

1. Does participating in awareness-raising activities affect patterns of interaction, in particular topic management, in subsequent decision-making tasks among Japanese intermediate learners of English? If so, how?

2. Do Japanese intermediate learners of English perceive their topic management differently before and after experiencing awareness-raising activities? If so, in what way?

3. What are the perceptions of the usefulness of awareness-raising activities among Japanese intermediate learners of English?

1.2 Structure of the current study

This study consists of six chapters. Chapter 2 reviews the theoretical and empirical literature relevant to the theme. It opens with an outline of the theory of communicative competence with a view to better understanding the notion of interactional competence. It then looks at the evolution of interactional competence. This is followed by a review of studies on the dimensions of dyadic interaction. Subsequently, this chapter reviews studies relating to topic management during interaction between learners. The rest of the chapter includes a brief outline of the concept of noticing in relation to awareness-raising activities, followed by an evaluation of studies on the development of interactional competence. These discussions provide the basis for the design of the present study and an examination of the findings obtained through research.

Chapter 3 presents an overview of the research methodology. It opens with the research questions, followed by a description of the research approach, choice of participants, ethical considerations, instruments, pilot studies, and procedures.

Chapter 4 discusses the results of quantitative analysis of data selected from key elements of the participants' interaction. Chapter 5 evaluates the results obtained through qualitative analysis of the participants' interaction and their replies to questionnaires. Chapter 6 summarizes and concludes. It also discusses the implications for language teaching in Japan, the limitations of this study, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter opens with an outline of the theory of communicative competence with a view to better understanding the notion of interactional competence. It then summarizes the evolution of interactional competence. This is followed by a review of studies on the key dimensions of dyadic interaction. It then assesses studies relating to topic management during interaction between learners. The rest of the chapter includes a review of the concept of noticing in relation to the role of awareness-raising activities and an evaluation of studies on the development of interactional competence.

2.1 Towards a theory of interactional competence

The concept of interactional competence has been developing in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) since the 1990s (Barraja-Rohan, 2011). It was Kramsch (1986) who first explicitly used the term. The interactive nature of communication has been explored by several researchers including Oksaar (1992), Jacoby and Ochs (1995), and Hall (1995). Subsequently the notion of interactional competence was further elaborated by He and Young (1998). In their view, while interactional competence is "a further elaboration of second language knowledge" (p. 7) after communicative competence has been achieved, it is fundamentally different from communicative competence in several respects. Hence, to understand the notion of interactional competence, it is necessary first to outline the theory of communicative competence.

2.1.1 Concept of communicative competence

The concept of communicative competence was first voiced by Hymes (1972), who argued against Chomsky's (1965) distinction between linguistic competence and performance. Criticising Chomsky, Hymes stated that to focus on the grammatical knowledge of an ideal speaker-listener in a homogeneous speech community was incomplete. In Hymes' (1972) view, competence is dependent on both "(tacit) *knowledge"* and "(ability for) *use*", according to context (p. 282). Thus, Hymes brought a contextual and sociolinguistic perspective into Chomsky's linguistic view of competence (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007).

Since then, the concept has been repeatedly elaborated. Recent theoretical and empirical research has been conducted largely on the basis of three models: (1) Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), (2) Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996), and (3) the views expressed in CEFR (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007). In order to understand the principles underlying communicative competence, it is helpful to examine these models.

2.1.1.1 Three models of communicative competence

Basing their thinking on Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980) proposed that communicative competence be distinguished from performance: communicative competence refers to what the learner knows about a language and how to use it whereas performance is the demonstration of that knowledge in a communicative situation. In Canale and Swain's (1980) framework, communicative competence is minimally composed of three main competencies: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence includes "knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax,

sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology" (p. 29). Sociolinguistic competence consists of the sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse. The sociocultural rules of use address "the ways in which utterances are produced and understood *appropriately"* (p. 30) in different sociocultural contexts depending on contextual factors such as topic. Rules of discourse are thought of in terms of cohesion and coherence of groups of utterances. The third component, strategic competence, is composed of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that are recalled to compensate for communication breakdowns.

Later Canale (1983) presented a slightly revised theoretical framework. The main revisions are: replacement of the term *performance* with *actual communication*; separation of sociolinguistic competence into two components, sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence; and expansion of the role of strategic competence to include both compensating and enhancement functions for communication.

Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) theoretical framework has had considerable impact on the fields of SLA and language testing (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007). However, as Canale (1983) acknowledges, their theoretical framework fails to illustrate how its various components interact.

In his new framework, Bachman (1990) suggests using the term *communicative language ability* in place of *communicative competence*, claiming that it provides a more inclusive definition of language proficiency. Bachman describes communicative language ability as "both knowledge of language and the capacity for implementing that knowledge in communicative language use" (p. 107). Communicative language ability comprises three components: language competence, strategic competence, and

psychophysiological mechanisms.

Language competence includes organizational competence and pragmatic competence, which complement each other for effective language use. Organizational competence consists of grammatical and textual competences: grammatical competence includes knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology/graphology, while textual competence includes knowledge of cohesion and rhetorical organization. Pragmatic competence consists of illocutionary and sociolinguistic competences: illocutionary competence includes knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for acceptable language functions, while sociolinguistic competence refers to knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for appropriate language functions.

Another component of communicative language ability is strategic competence, which refers to the capacity to relate language competence to the language user's knowledge structures such as real-world knowledge and context. Strategic competence performs three functions: assessment, planning, and execution. The third component of communicative language ability, psychophysiological mechanisms, is essentially the neurological and physiological processes involved in language use.

This Bachman (1990) model was slightly altered later by Bachman and Palmer (1996). The term *competence*, for example, is replaced by *knowledge* and strategic competence is described as a set of metacognitive strategies. Despite these revisions, the new model is, as Bachman and Palmer (1996) state, conceptually equivalent to the earlier one.

Bachman (1990) argues that the framework of communicative language ability extends earlier models of communicative competence as it attempts to clarify how various components interact with each other and with a context. Indeed, Bachman's

(1990) and Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model of communicative language ability is more complex and more comprehensive than the theoretical framework proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007).

Another model of communicative competence on which recent research draws is the description of communicative language competence used in CEFR (2001), which consists of three components: linguistic competences, sociolinguistic competences, and pragmatic competences. Linguistic competence refers to the knowledge of and ability to use formal resources to formulate well-structured messages. Its subcomponents include lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, and orthoepic competences. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge and skills necessary for appropriate language use according to a social context. Pragmatic competence consists of discourse, functional, and design competence. Discourse competence is the ability to produce "coherent stretches of language" (p. 123); functional competence is the ability to perform communicative functions; design competence refers to the sequencing of messages using interactional and transactional schemata.

Two points stand out in the CEFR (2001) model. First, unlike the other two representative theoretical frameworks, strategic competence is not included. However, it explicitly states that each component of communicative language competence comprises "knowledge and skills and know-how" (p. 13). The other point is found in the descriptors for "Spoken Interaction A1" level: "I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase … and help me formulate what I'm trying to say…" (p. 26). This implies that a learner's performance made with their interlocutor's support is also part of the learner's linguistic competence. This is certainly not the view taken in traditional models of communicative competence. As Kawanari

(2011) points out, the CEFR view reflects the notion of interactional competence.

This section has outlined how the concept of commutative competence has evolved, with reference to three representative frameworks. Despite different terms replacing the original "communicative competence", the definitions used in the three models are similar because they involve both knowledge/competence and the capacity for using that knowledge. The composition of each model shows striking similarities (see Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007, p. 102 for a graphic illustration of the three models). These indicate that theoreticians in SLA have agreed that a competent language user needs to acquire both knowledge of language and the ability to use that knowledge in a communicative context (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007).

2.1.2 Concept of interactional competence

2.1.2.1 Evolution of the theory of interactional competence

As seen in the previous section, the notion of communicative competence has been proved to be grounded in a "greater understanding of interrelationship between linguistic form and social context" (Young, 2013, p. 17). However, what is required for successful engagement in interaction has not been fully explored. Since the 1990s, "a more dynamic and context-sensitive understanding" of communicative competence has been called for in the field of SLA (Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2016, p. 1). As an alternative to established models of communicative competence, the notion of interactional competence has gained attention (Taguchi, 2014).

It was Kramsch (1986) who first explicitly used the term interactional competence. She criticised the Proficiency Movement for stressing function, content, and accuracy. In her opinion, this fails to reflect the view that successful interaction

presupposes "not only a shared knowledge of the world, the reference to a common external context of communication, but also the construction of a shared internal context or 'sphere of inter-subjectivity' that is built through the collaborative efforts of interactional partners" (p. 367). Kramsch argues that a shift in emphasis should be made towards the role of interactional processes and discourse skills in communication. Her proposed curriculum, which includes time spent critically reflecting on discourse, is a ground-breaking approach in language teaching (Barraja-Rohan, 2011).

Oksaar (1992) is one of the first researchers to explore the notion of interactional competence. Based on his longitudinal cross-linguistic and cross-behavioural project with immigrants, Oksaar argues that successful communication in multilingual settings requires control of "not only linguistically but also culturally conditioned rules of behaviour" (p. 6). Oksaar defines interactional competence as "a person's ability in interactional situations to carry out verbal, nonverbal and extraverbal actions in two roles − that of the speaker and of the hearer − in accordance with the sociocultural and sociopsychological rules of the group" (p. 4). With this definition, two points should be noted. One is that, like Kramsch (1986), Oksaar is sensitive to the interlocutor's dual speaker/listener role. The other is that Oksaar argues that interactional competence entails not only verbal actions but also nonverbal behaviour (e.g. gestures), paralinguistic features, extraverbal behaviour (e.g. proxemics); and a further, non-actional, component: silence. Thus he expands the scope of interactional competence.

The interactive nature of communication was further explored by Jacoby and Ochs (1995). Kramsch's (1986) view that interaction is built through negotiation and collaboration is included in the concept of co-construction, which Jacoby and Ochs

(1995) define as "the joint creation of a form, interpretation, stance, action, activity, identity, institution, skill, ideology, emotion, or other culturally meaningful reality" (p. 171). Jacoby and Ochs stress the importance of co-construction in social interactions. Although the co-constructive nature of interaction is especially observable in baby-talk and foreigner-talk registers, it is relevant to any type of social interaction (Dings, 2007). Indeed in interactional events, in order to maintain sequential coherence, interlocutors of all kinds are engaged in "constantly monitoring, determining, and responding to as interaction unfolds" (Jacoby & Ochs, 1995, p. 176). Jacoby and Ochs also make it clear that co-construction refers not only to affiliative or supportive interactions but also to arguments where interlocutors disagree.

Hall (1995; 1999) introduced the term *interactive practice*. According to Hall, we develop our membership of communities and our interpersonal relationships through talk. Much of this talk consists of *interactive practices*, which she defines as "goal-oriented, recurring moments of face-to-face interactions" (Hall, 1999, p. 138). Interlocutors bring to interactive practices resources which are sets of prototypical elements associated with each practice, including "lexical and syntactic choices, participation structures, act sequences" (Hall, 1999, p. 138). Through the use of these resources, which have a conventionalized nature, interlocutors come together to "create, articulate, and manage their collective histories" (Hall, 1995, p. 208). This view indicates that pragmatic competence plays an important part in interactional activity (Barraja-Rohan, 2011). Reflecting the same notion of co-construction as Jacoby and Ochs (1995), Hall's concept of *interactive practices* has advanced our understanding of the interactive nature of communication (He & Young, 1998).

He and Young (1998) elaborate on the notion of interactional competence still

further. They argue that interactive practices are co-constructed and that each interlocutor brings to a given practice linguistic and pragmatic resources that include, among others, the following interactional resources: "a knowledge of rhetorical script, a knowledge of certain lexis and syntactic patterns specific to the practice, a knowledge of how turns are managed, a knowledge of topical organization, and a knowledge of the means for signalling boundaries between practices and transitions within the practice itself" (p. 5). Among these elements, knowledge of the management of topics is the main theme of the current study. According to He and Young, such knowledge includes "preferences for certain topics over others and decisions as to who has the right to introduce a given topic, how long a topic persists in discourse, and who has the right to change the topic" (p. 6). They argue that the management of topics differs depending on interactive practices.

In his later study, Young (2000) introduces the term *discursive practices* for what are called *interactive practices* in Hall (1995). Young (2000) defines this as "recurring episodes of face-to-face interaction in context, episodes that are of social and cultural significance to a community of speakers" (p. 3). Examples include greetings and office chatter. Subsequently, Young (2008) provides a detailed definition of interactional competence, seeing it as "a relationship between the participants' employment of linguistic and interactional resources and the contexts in which they are employed; the resources that interactional competence highlights are those of identity, language and interaction" (p. 101). This definition makes it clear that interactional competence is context dependent. In his recent study, Young (2013) further clarifies the view that in interactional competence participants "co-construct a discursive practice through an architecture of interactional resources that is specific to the practice" (p. 15).

2.1.2.2 Configuration of interactional resources

As part of the evolution of the notion of interactional competence, the configuration of interactional resources and their nature also needs to be explored. He and Young (1998) include knowledge of rhetorical script, specific lexis and syntactic patterns, turn-taking systems, topical organization, and ways of signalling boundaries. To this list, Young (2000) adds knowledge of the appropriate participation framework. This refers to the ways in which participants in a discursive practice take on roles and affirm the roles of others. However, Lindgren (2008) claims that Young's view fails to incorporate other important aspects of interactional competence such as non-verbal communication.

Subsequently, in his revised list of resources, Young (2008) includes seven already accepted resources but groups them into three categories: identity, linguistic, and interactional resources. Under identity resources, he adds *participation framework*. Under linguistic resources, *register* refers to "the features of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar that typify a practice"; and *modes of meaning,* which signifies "the ways in which participants construct interpersonal, experiential, and textual meaning in a practice" (p. 71). Under interactional resources, in addition to *turn-taking* and *boundaries*, Young includes *speech acts,* which refers to "the selection of acts in a practice and their sequential organization"; and *repair,* which is "the ways in which participants respond to interactional trouble in a given practice" (p. 71).

Regarding the inclusion of non-verbal communication that Lindgren (2008) argues for, Oksaar (1992) had already included this within the scope of interactional competence. Markee (2000) also refers to "knowledge of how verbal and non-verbal communication factors interact" as part of interactional knowledge (p. 66). As another interactional element, Dings (2007, 2014) suggests the inclusion of *alignment activity*,

which refers to the means employed by interlocutors to demonstrate their shared understanding, or intersubjectivity in Ding's term. This entails various features of interaction including "assessment, collaborative contributions, and collaborative completions" (Dings, 2014, p. 742).

More recently, Lam (2018) argues for the inclusion of one particular interactional feature, "producing responses contingent on previous speaker contribution" (p. 381) in the construct of interactional competence within the context of pair/group speaking assessment. This feature is, as Lam acknowledges, also referred to in other studies including Young and Milanovic (1992) and Galaczi (2004, 2008) (sections 2.2.1 and 2.3.3.2). Using conversation analysis (CA), Lam identifies in what kinds of conversational action contingent responses are constructed on a previous speaker's contribution.

Thus, the concept of interactional competence has been gradually elaborated and expanded to cover the full scope of competence for successful communication. This raises the question: does the notion of interactional competence offer a new view of competence as an alternative to the traditional models of communicative competence? Or does it just expand them?

2.1.2.3 Nature of interactional competence

There are various opinions on the nature of interactional competence: depending on the researcher, it can be regarded as an extended view of discourse, or strategic or pragmatic competence within the framework of communicative competence (Yoshinaga, 2008). Dings (2014), for example, argues that the construct of interactional competence proposed by He and Young (1998) appears little "more than a fifth component to Canale

and Swain's four-pronged model of communicative competence" though not *"at a deeper level"* (p. 743, my italics). He and Young (1998) themselves state that in one sense interactional competence simply adds interactional features to discourse, pragmatic, and strategic competence. At the same time, however, they contend that interactional competence is, in another respect, very different from communicative competence. He and Young (1998) argue that the fundamental difference between the two notions lies in this: communicative competence focuses on an individual language user in a social context, whereas interactional competence is "co-constructed by all participants in an interactive practice and is specific to that practice" (p. 7). In his later paper, Young (2011) argues that, within the notion of interactional competence, an individual language user's knowledge and employment of their resources is "contingent on what other participants do", which means that interactional competence is "distributed across participants" and varies depending on each discursive practice (p. 430). These differences have been acknowledged in the literature (Yoshinaga, 2008).

As Young (2011) argues, there is no doubt that interactional competence "builds on the theories of competence that preceded it" (p. 429). As seen in Section 2.1, communicative competence paved the way for the emergence of the notion of interactional competence. As Taguchi (2015a, p. 3) argues, the basis of interactional competence goes back to Hymes' (1972) claim, in challenge to Chomsky's (1965), that language competence entails both grammatical and sociocultural knowledge. Yet, because of the fundamental differences in viewing language ability, interactional competence can be claimed as a new alternative to the traditional models of communicative competence, rather than being merely an extended view of discourse, strategic, or pragmatic competence or just a subordinate element within the framework

of communicative competence. The current study accepts that it is a new view and sees interactional competence as, in Ding's (2007) words, a "real innovation" (p. 8) in our understanding of competence.

2.1.3 Theory and language testing

The theory of communicative competence was historically influential in the design of language tests and the oral interview has been a popular method for speaking assessment (He & Young, 1998). However, as the importance of interaction and negotiation of meaning has become recognized in SLA research, questions have been raised regarding the degree of correspondence between the dialogue in an interview test and ordinary, non-test conversation (Ducasse & Brown, 2009). This led to a large number of empirical studies on interview discourse (e.g. Young & Milanovic, 1992; Ross & Berwick, 1992; Young, 1995). These findings indicate that the interview provides test-takers with little opportunity to demonstrate conversation management abilities (e.g. van Lier, 1989; Lazaraton, 1992). In response, in 1996 a paired (between candidates) speaking format was introduced by Cambridge ESOL into its Main Suite of examinations (Cambridge English: First Handbook for Teachers 2015). Subsequently, in order to validate the new test format, an increasing number of studies were carried out to examine the features of discourse between candidates.(e.g. ffrench, 2003; Norton, 2005; Galaczi, 2004, 2008).

Thus the notion of interactional competence has influenced language testing, and language testing, in turn, has thrown light on the nature of dyadic interaction. As a result, a number of dimensions which could distinguish global interactional patterns have been suggested. Before moving to the issue of topic management, it is worth referring to

some of these key dimensions.

2.2 Key dimensions of dyadic interaction

2.2.1 Interactional contingency, goal orientation, and dominance

One of the early theoretical models of dyadic interaction was proposed by Young and Milanovic (1992). Basing their model on Jones and Gerard (1967), which comprises the two dimensions contingency and goal orientation, Young and Milanovic (1992) analysed 30 dyadic oral interview tests from the Cambridge First Certificate in English examination in terms of interactional contingency, goal orientation, and dominance. Interactional contingency refers to "a property of adjacent turns in dialogue in which the topic of the preceding turn is coreferential with the topic of the following turn" (p. 405). They describe the relationship between two contingent utterances as *reactiveness* and adjacency pairs are given as typical examples of such utterance. An adjacency pair is a sequence of utterances such as question-answer and greeting-greeting, where the "first pair parts" are performed by a participant and the "second pair parts" by their interlocutor (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973, p. 296). The second dimension, goal orientation, reflects a speaker's internal goals and is manifest in a discourse where a topic persists over a large number of turns, or in the case where a speaker returns to a topic that they raised earlier after a number of turns on a different topic. The third variable dominance is the tendency of one participant to limit the other's right to speak by means such as holding the floor or initiating and terminating topics.

In Young and Milanovic's (1992) words, interactional contingency and goal orientation allow the "dynamic structure" of a dyadic discourse to be explained. This is because interactional contingency indicates how participants co-construct meanings in

one exchange (i.e. "local discourse dynamics") whereas goal orientation examines how these meanings evolve during longer stretches of discourse (i.e. "global discourse dynamics") (pp. 404-405).

Young and Milanovic operationalized these three dimensions as follows: interactional contingency: the proportion of topics initiated by each participant that become the topics of subsequent turns by their interlocutor; goal orientation: mean persistence in t-units of all topics initiated by each participant; and finally, dominance: the number of topics initiated by each participant and their quantity of talk in t-units. Using these variables, Young and Milanovic show that the discourse of oral interview tests is asymmetric in nature with greater reactiveness by the test-taker and greater goal orientation by the native speaker examiner. Their findings also demonstrate that dominance in dyadic interactions is not simply reflected in the amount of talk nor in the number of topic initiations, but rather has to do with the degree of goal orientation and reactiveness.

2.2.2 Equality and mutuality

The dimensions of equality and mutuality can also help to clarify the features of dyadic interaction. In her investigation on dyadic interaction between 10 pairs of ESL university students over one term, Storch (2002) identifies four interactional patterns, which she labels collaborative, dominant/dominant, dominant/passive, and expert/novice. She argues that these patterns are distinguishable from each other depending on equality and mutuality. These indices were first used by Damon and Phelps (1989) when they studied peer engagement in different peer-based interactions such as peer tutoring. According to Damon and Phelps, equality means both parties

taking direction from one another whereas mutuality refers to connected discourse between the parties. In Storch's (2002) analysis of mutuality, she shares with Damon and Phelps the view that high mutuality is manifest in interactions with rich reciprocal feedback and idea sharing. Regarding equality, drawing on van Lier (1996), Storch (2002) further clarifies that equality means "an equal degree of control over the direction of a task" (p. 127), not merely an equal distribution of turns or contributions.

Storch (2002) conceptualizes equality and mutuality as a continuum and describes features of four interactional patterns (Figure 2.1). She also suggests possible reasons for degrading mutuality: "there is *unwillingness* or *inability* to fully engage with each other's contribution" (p. 128, my italics). It is important to understand that a lower level of mutuality can be caused by more than one factor.

High mutuality

Expert/Novice   Collaborative

Low equality ———————————————————— High equality

Dominant/Passive   Dominant/Dominant
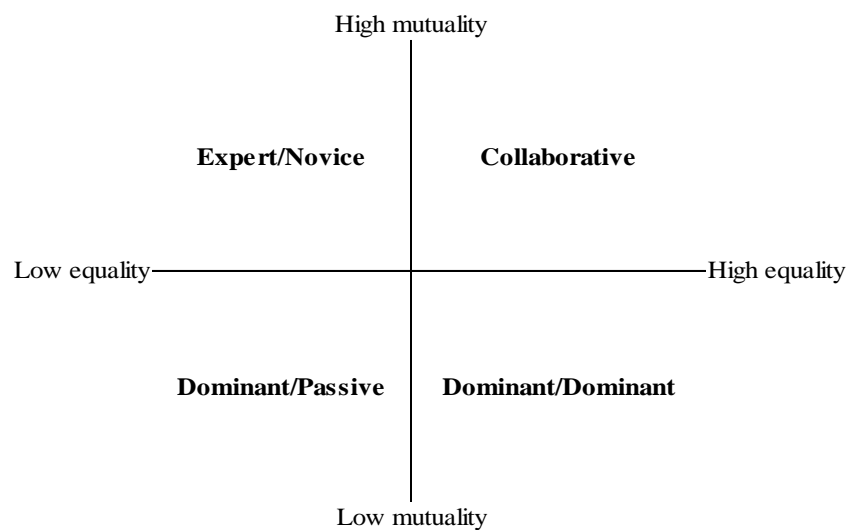
Low mutuality

Figure 2.1   Interactional Patterns   (Storch, 2002, p. 128)

Although it has been suggested that equality and mutuality are similar concepts to goal orientation and interactional contingency (e.g. Galaczi, 2008), doubts remain as to

comparability between equality and goal orientation. These definitions require more clarity. However, I share Galaczi's (2004) view that equality and mutuality could play a significant role in understanding the interactional roles towards which participants incline.

2.2.3 Equality, mutuality, and conversational dominance

Equality, mutuality, and conversational dominance are the dimensions used in Galaczi's (2004, 2008) studies − the second study elaborates the first − to describe the interactional patterns of 30 pairs of test-takers in the FCE paired format speaking tests. Galaczi adopts conversation analysis (CA) methodology with quantification. She sees three interactional patterns emerging from the data and argues that they are distinguishable along with equality and mutuality, as conceptualized by Damon and Phelps (1989) and Storch (2002). In Galaczi's (2004) words, equality refers to "the work distribution among the participants" and mutuality refers to "the creation of shared meaning from one turn to the next" (p. 106). Note that there are slight differences in definition of equality among the researchers. According to Damon and Phelps (1989), equality means both parties taking direction from one another. Storch (2002) contends that equality means not merely an equal distribution of contributions but "an equal degree of control over the direction of a task" (p. 127). Equality is more narrowly defined in Galaczi's studies.

Galaczi (2004, 2008) labels the three distinct patterns in her data *collaborative*, *parallel*, and *asymmetric*, to which she later adds *blended*, which exhibits features of two patterns. In collaborative interaction, the dyad members contribute equally to the task and develop topics together (i.e. high equality and mutuality). In parallel interaction,

the dyad members both access the conversational floor and develop the task equally, but they do not work together (i.e. high equality but low mutuality). With regard to asymmetric interaction, the dyad members display distinctive differences in their orientation to the task. Hence, a more dominant speaker's discourse is characterized by low to medium both in equality and mutuality and a more passive speaker's by low equality but high to medium mutuality. As Galaczi points out, her classification of global interactional patterns has similarities with Storch's (2002) categorization.

Drawing on Itakura (2001), Galaczi further distinguishes each of the three global patterns based on *conversational dominance* (Figure 2.2). Itakura (2001) views dominance as "a multi-dimensional construct consisting of sequential, participatory, and quantitative dimensions" (p. 1862). This can be regarded as an elaborated view of Young and Milanovic's (1992) concept of dominance. Based on Itakura, Galaczi operationalizes conversational dominance as the quantity of talk for "quantitative dominance", interruptions for "participatory dominance", and questions for "sequential dominance". Galaczi's findings further indicate that different aspects of interactional dominance are exhibited depending on the interactional pattern.

Galaczi's studies open up several new lines of thought. Through CA, she clarifies the relationship between global interactional patterns, discourse features, and interactional competence. She argues for a possible link between higher interactive communication scores and collaborative interaction. As Galaczi suggests, the findings may have pedagogical implications in the development of interactional competence, which is the topic of the current study.
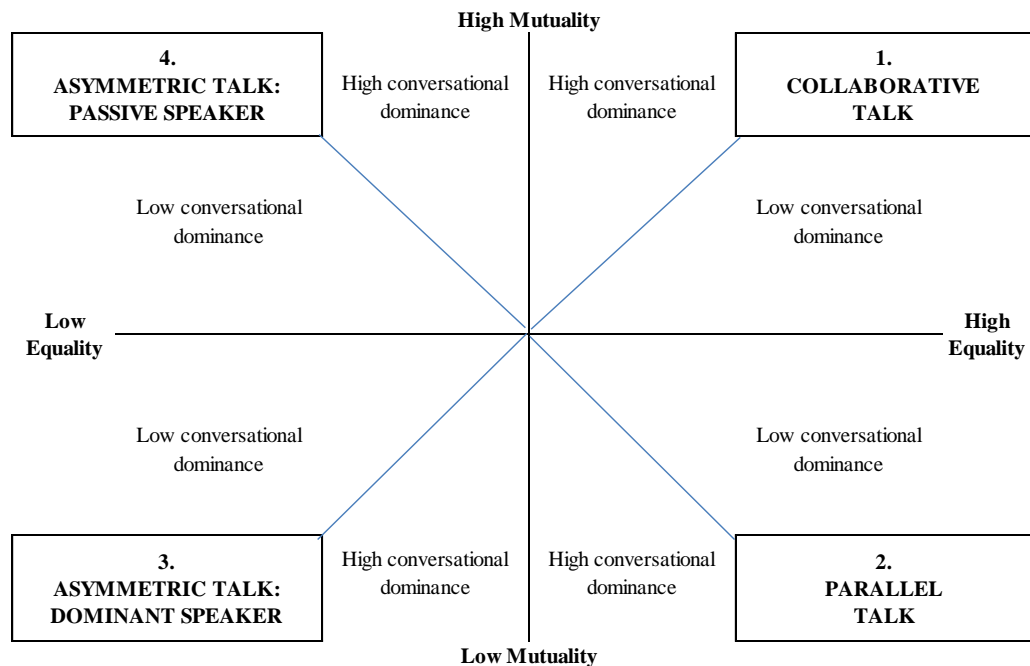
Figure 2.2   Patterns of interaction (Galaczi, 2004, p. 107)

The dimensions discussed above have proven invaluable to the leading scholars in SLA (e.g. Chen, 2016; Kim, 2017; Nakatsuhara, 2011) and have provided new window on dyadic interaction. The next section will review previous studies related to topic management in dyadic interaction.

2.3 Topic management in dyadic interaction

2.3.1 Knowledge of topic management

In the theory of interactional competence, each participant brings their identity, and their linguistic and interactional resources, to a given discursive practice (Young, 2008). Topic management, which forms part of these interactional resources, can be regarded as a core element of interactional competence. In their graphic representation of interactional competence in the form of a tree, Galaczi and Taylor (2018) illustrate topic management as one of a main branch. From this branch grow the smaller branches:

initiating, extending, shifting, and closing down topics (pp. 8-9). Gan et al. (2008) also argue that the speaker's role to initiate, develop, and shift topics appropriately is at the core of interactional abilities. These views of topic management and its subskills echo He and Young's (1998) assertion that knowledge of topic management is an interactional resource that includes "preferences for certain topics over others and decisions as to who has the right to introduce a given topic, how long a topic persists in discourse, and who has the right to change the topic" (p. 6).

Regarding these arguments, two points should be noted. One is that, although He and Young (1998) use the word *right* (to change the topic), topic management also entails *responsibility* since interaction is co-constructed by all participants. Taking a co-constructed view of interaction is to affirm that "there is a distributed responsibility among interlocutors for the creation of sequential coherence, identities, meaning, and events" (Jacoby & Ochs, 1995, p. 177). Indeed each participant must enforce their rights in topic organization. This view resonates with Van Lier's (1989) claim that "potentially equal distribution of rights and duties in talk" (p. 495) is one of the basic characteristics of conversation. The other point is that when all participants carry a potentially equal right and responsibility, the other role in interaction is inevitably spotlighted: the role of the listener. As Sayer (2005) argues, "listening to, or monitoring" (p. 16) what the interlocutor is saying is a crucial part of interaction. The importance of a conversationalist's dual speaker/listener roles is clearly indicated in Riggenbach's (1991) earlier study on non-native conversational fluency. Among the features of fluent speakers, he points out the ability to "initiate topic changes" and the ability to show comprehension "not only through backchannels but also through substantive comments or responses" (p. 439). Thus, when considering the importance of a dual speaker/listener

role for participants during co-constructed interaction, topic management involves initiating and developing one's own topics while engaging simultaneously with the interlocutor's ideas. In the view of this research, this defines the nature of topic management.

2.3.2 Identification of a topic and topic boundaries

Before reviewing previous studies related to topic management, a fundamental question needs to be asked: "what is a topic?" The difficulty is encapsulated in Brown and Yule's (1983) words: "formal attempts to identify topics are doomed to failure" (p. 68). A primary reason lies in defining the *relevant* nature of the concept of a topic: a group of topics can be regarded as a single topic "at a higher level of abstraction" (Galaczi, 2008, p. 96).

Drawing boundaries between topical sequences presents further complexity. To address this issue, Nakatsuhara (2011) proposes nine criteria to identify topic boundaries, based on CA and language testing literature, and on the examination of her own data. Her six stand-alone criteria are: (1) unspecific sequence openers (e.g. What do you think?); (2) specific sequence openers (e.g. How about intelligence?); (3) use of a new lexical item with phonological stress; (4) explicit announcement of or a request for permission to introduce a new subject; (5) rounding off the previous talk; and (6) explicit closure of a current topic with reasons. She also introduces three sub-criteria: (1) directing others' attention to something new through gestures; (2) using pre-shift tokens such as "all right"; and (3) introducing long, unfilled pauses. Nakatsuhara (2011) applies these criteria to her analysis of interactions between 269 students in group oral tests, and reports its effectiveness in identifying topic boundaries. In contrast, Gan et al.

(2008) argue that there are usually no clear-cut boundaries because speakers tend to link each turn topically to the previous turn. This phenomenon is called, in Sacks' (1992) term, "stepwise" movement, which involves "connecting what we've just been talking about to what we're now talking about, though they are different" (p. 566). The issue of topic and topic boundary identification remains an issue in studies on interaction.

Acknowledging the complexities involved in topic identification, Galaczi (2004, 2008) establishes one systematic and consistent criterion for identifying topics in her study on the interactional patterns of FCE test-takers. In this speaking test, pairs of test-takers are provided with several pictures or illustrations as visual prompts for discussion. Noting the close tie between topical sequence and visual representation, Galaczi operationalizes a topical sequence by counting all the talk relating to a specific visual as one topical sequence. The current study, which also uses FCE speaking tests as an instrument, adopts Galaczi's operationalization of topical sequence.

2.3.3 Topic management in dyadic interaction

2.3.3.1 Topic management between a learner and a native speaker

Although the current study focuses on interaction between learners, it is worth reviewing the major findings of studies on interaction between learners and NSs in various contexts. Using the concepts of interactional contingency, goal orientation, and dominance (Section 2.2.1), Young and Milanovic (1992) analyse discourse in oral interview tests between a non-native test-taker and a NS examiner. They argue that dominance by the NS examiner is noticeable, with their greater goal orientation, while greater contingency shown by the test-taker.

Kasper (2004) examines rounds of talk between an American university student

of German at beginner level and a German NS. The activity was arranged as a credit-bearing assignment but the sessions took place outside the classroom. There was no restriction as to subject. Kasper (2004) observes that the NS played the role of "interaction manager" in these talks, the one who "initiates sequences, asks the questions, ratifies the answers, introduces and elaborates topics, and keeps the interaction going" (p. 557).

Dings (2007) analyses casual conversation in a study-abroad context between an American intermediate learner of Spanish and a Spanish NS. This was not a class activity and the topic was left entirely to the dyad. Dings observes that the learner's devices of topic initiation and closing remained limited over the year. He argues that the learner's limited participation in topic management put the NS, in Kasper's (2004) terms, in the position of "interaction manager".

These studies indicate that a basic feature of NS-NNS interaction is asymmetry or inequality. Holtzer (2002) attributes this to the significant difference in the participants' linguistic repertoires. On the other hand, Kasper and Kim (2015) claim that the discourse identity of an interaction manager is not directly related to their L1 speaker status but tied to an interlocutor's institutional identity. As these issues are not relevant to interaction between learners, especially among those at similar language proficiency levels, what patterns can be found in the interactions in this group?

2.3.3.2 Topic management between learners

It has been argued that peer-to-peer interactions differ both quantitatively and qualitatively from examiner-candidate or teacher-student interactions (Gan et al., 2008). Ducasse and Brown (2009) argue that, as compared with interaction between learner

and NS interviewer, interaction between learners is characterized by "an equal flow of conversation", in which participants "move equally between speaker and listener roles and participate equally in the management of interaction" (p. 440). However, empirical studies do not always support the idea that symmetry is the norm in peer-to-peer interaction.

As seen in Sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3, a number of interactional patterns have been identified. Based on equality and mutuality, Storch (2002) distinguishes four global patterns in 30 interactions by 10 pairs of ESL learners in a classroom context: collaborative, dominant/dominant, dominant/passive, and expert/novice. Using the same dimensions, Kim (2017) observes five patterns in 42 interactions by six pairs in a classroom context: collaborative, cooperative, dominant/passive, expert/passive, and expert/novice. A cooperative pattern is equivalent to Storch's dominant/dominant pattern with some deviation. The expert/passive pattern is not identified in Storch's study. In this pattern, unlike in the expert/novice pattern, the passive dyad member does not show any interest in participation despite encouragement from the expert. In her study on the interactions of 30 pairs of test-takers in FCE, Galaczi (2004, 2008) distinguishes four global patterns based on equality and mutuality: collaborative, parallel, asymmetric, and blended. These patterns are further distinguished according to another index, interactional dominance. While in Kim's study a collaborative pattern occupies more than 60% of all the interactions, and in Storch's study just over 50%, in Galaczi's study it drops sharply to 30%. These results indicate that a participant's ability to shift smoothly between speaker/listener roles in conversation, or to maintain an equal level of control, is not always displayed in peer-to-peer interaction. These observations suggest that topic management in peer-to-peer interaction assumes various patterns.

Hence, it is necessary to conduct a close examination of topic management between learners. Let us take Galaczi's study as a basis, as it uses the FCE speaking test as an instrument as the present study also does.

Galaczi (2004) describes how test-takers displaying each interactional pattern manage topics. Before looking at the patterns, it is helpful first to note how the structural organization of the talk is framed in Galaczi's study. Using CA, she argues that all the test-takers proceeded through four basic phases: (1) opening the sequence, (2) initiating a topic, (3) developing the topic, and (4) closing the topic. In phase (1), the test-takers either self-selected or other-selected. In the case of self-selection, they usually initiated a new topic, thereby entering phase (2). If they other-selected, they usually offered their interlocutor the floor (e.g. "Do you want to start?"). In phase (3), the test-takers continued to develop their own topics or responded to the previous speaker. When they continued, they either built on their own topic or appended their move to the last-but-one turn (i.e. they went back to their own topic as soon as they regained the floor). When they responded, they did so in one of three ways: with minimal acknowledgement such as "Yes"; with topic recycling, which means repeating the prior topic or reformulating the earlier proposition; or with topic extension, which means adding to the prior topic in a substantive way. In phase (4), test-takers closed the topic in several ways, for example, with two successive minimal acknowledgments, or simply by initiating a new topic.

Table 2.1 summarizes the structural organization of interaction observed by Galaczi. With regard to the term move, she draws on Stenström's (1994) definition of "what a speaker does in a turn" (p. 36). The participants in the present study were also observed to go through these phases when they worked on tasks from FCE speaking

tests.

Table 2.1   Structural organization of interaction (Galaczi, 2004)

Phase		Move				
Phase 1	Opening the sequence					
Phase 2	Initiating topics	Initiate				
Phase 3	Developing topics	(a) Continue		(b) Respond		
		a. Building	b. Appending	a. Minimal acknowledgement	b. Topic recycling	c. Topic extending
Phase 4	Closing topics	Close				

Galaczi (2004) describes the following features of topic development in the four global interactional patterns she distinguishes. In a collaborative dyad, topical talk is a "collaborative production" (p. 184) with equal division of labour and control over the task. This is reflected in the variety of topic development moves used in the interaction. As a topical speaker, each dyad member alternates in initiating topics and building on them. Their response moves include recycling moves, which function as strong listener support, and extending moves, which make a substantive contribution to topic development. Indeed each dyad member develops their own topics while also supporting their partner's topic development. They smoothly shift between the speaker/listener roles. This results in one topic stretching over several turns.

In contrast, parallel dyads work in a "'solo' vs. 'solo' manner'" (Galaczi, 2004, p. 185). Each speaker is concerned about developing their own topics while engaging little

with their partner's ideas. Indeed they are on "separate tracks of topic development" (Galaczi, 2004, p. 154). The speaker role is much stronger than the listener role. Most of the response moves consist of minimal acknowledgement or recycling moves. Especially in the high conversational dominance subgroup, these weaker response moves are often used to take the initiative. Because of infrequent use of extending moves, topics decay quickly.

In the asymmetric dyads, the "solo" method of topic management (Galaczi, 2004, p. 185) is the norm. While the dominant dyad member takes (or is pushed to take) control of the topic, the passive partner exhibits a high degree of reactiveness. Extending moves are generally made by only one dyad member.

In the blended interaction category, the dyad exhibits a mixture of the features described above in their topic management. Figure 2.3 summarizes the structure of prototypical topic organization in each interactional pattern.

Collaborative	Parallel	Asymmetric
A: Topical initiation + topic building	A: Topic initiation + topic building	A: Topic initiation + topic building
↓	↓	↓
B: Topic extension	B: Minimal acknowledgement + Topic initiation	B: Minimal acknowledgement
↓	↓	↓
A: Topic extension + Topic initiation	A: Minimal acknowledgement + Topic initiation	A: Topic extension

Figure 2.3   Structure of prototypical topic development sequences

(Galaczi, 2004, p. 184)

Thus Galaczi's (2004, 2008) studies depict how topic management in

peer-to-peer interaction varies across different global interactional patterns. She further argues that the distribution of extending moves distinguishes collaborative interaction from the other types. Galaczi (2004) contends that extending moves are the most important moves in the context of an L2 speaking test because they display the learner's capability of understanding their interlocutor and of responding by expanding the topic. However, the significance of extending moves should apply to any interaction in any context because they push the talk further by reflecting both listener and speaker roles.

Itakura (2002) provides another interesting study on peer-to-peer interaction. She analysed 10-minute male-female casual conversations between two pairs of Japanese undergraduates in L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English). Her research focus is the role of gender in pragmatic transfer, in particular, of patterns of dominance in topic management. Pragmatic transfer refers to the influence of learners' L1 pragmatic knowledge of their L2 performance. For the quantitative analysis, Itakura employs a theory-driven approach: she adopts the exchange structure analysis established by the Birmingham School of Discourse Analysis. In this system, an exchange is a basic unit of coherence in conversation, which consists of an initiating move, a responding move, and a follow-up move. Itakura argues that this system allows her to capture dominance in topic development: how the dyad shares the *active* role, which is observable in the initiating move, and the *supportive* role, which is manifest in the responding move. Drawing on Tsui (1994), Itakura states that further classification of initiations includes elicit: informs, which invites the interlocutor to supply missing information; elicit: agrees, which invites the interlocutor's agreement; and informatives, which provides information. The examples below are between Male 1 and Female 1.

M1:   How many modules are you taking? (elicit: information)

F1:   Now 53 modules

How many did you take? (elicit: information)

M1:   Me also a little over 50.

Some people are taking 70 or something (informatives)

F1:   That's right. And you know, er, how can I put it, people like that er their attitude is, they say they try to attend them at all and if they don't like the classes, they just drop them, you know. It's a waste (?), isn't it ? (elicit: agrees)

(Itakura, 2002, p.172).

Accordingly, Itakura investigates dominance by examining the frequency of successful topic initiations because when the speaker obtains an appropriate response, they can be said to control the topic in interaction at the exchange level. She then uses qualitative analysis to investigate the transfer of communication styles. Itakura's (2002) chief finding is that a learner's gender-specific interactional style in L1 may be transferred to L2; however, the level of transferability may be different according to different interactional styles. By gender-specific interactional style, Itakura (2002) refers to male self-oriented and female other-oriented conversation styles. In the self-oriented style, linguistic moves such as statements and questions are used to "develop the speaker's own topic to gain supremacy over the other, for example, in taking centre stage in story-telling or claiming expertise" (p. 164). In the other-oriented style, the same linguistic moves are employed to "develop a topic while facilitating the interlocutor's topic development in a collaborative way" (p. 164). Itakura argues that the male students in her study dominate their female interlocutors in L1 interaction by more successful topic initiation. However, the male students' dominance is reduced in L2 interaction: Itakura (2002) attributes this change to the male students' experiencing more difficulty in transferring their customary self-oriented communication style to L2.

For example, in order to take the initiative and restrict their interlocutor's participation, the self-oriented speaker needs to develop semantic content independently, mainly through a chain of informatives. In contrast, the other-oriented speaker often gains support from their interlocutor in developing the semantic content of topic through elicit: informs. Although the other-oriented speaker uses informatives too, it is often to provide assessment and criticism of a prior utterance, which can result in short sentences. On the other hand, the self-oriented speaker typically uses informatives to offer their own experiences, which requires a longer sequence to complete. Itakura (2002) contends that the female learners can experience less difficulty in L2 interaction because their usual gender specific mode of communication is easier to transfer. However, she warns that their other-oriented style can deprive the Japanese females of learning opportunities to develop their topics substantially over a longer sequence, using more complicated linguistic forms.

Two more points should be noted with Itakura's study. One is the issue of gender. While gender has been pointed out as an influential factor in interaction (e.g. Young & Milanovic, 1992; Norton, 2005), there is increasing concern about the overgeneralization of findings to all men and women, irrespective of other factors such as age and occupation (O'Loughlin, 2002). The role of gender may also be changing and so her findings may need careful interpretation. Nevertheless, it is significant that Itakura observed two contrasting communication styles in peer-to-peer interaction. The other point is informatives. A chain of informatives after topic initiation may be equivalent to the building moves in Galaczi's (2004) categories. Whereas Galaczi stresses the significant role of extending moves, Itakura takes notice of the distribution of informatives in interaction, especially where these are missing in the case of Japanese

female learners, the group targeted in this study.

Thus, global patterns and topic management in peer-to-peer interaction assume various forms. What factors then can affect such variation?

2.3.3.3 Variables for interaction and topic management

In addition to gender/L1 backgrounds (Itakura, 2002), various individual-related variables have been reported to affect interaction, including language proficiency (Galaczi, 2014), acquaintanceship (Norton, 2005), participants' extraversion levels (Nakatsuhara, 2011), and learners' emotions and their perceptions of their interlocutor (Swain & Miccoli 1994; Watanabe & Swain 2008). The literature on SLA also posits that context-related factors such as task design (Baines & Howe, 2010) and learners' attitudes to task demands (Gan et al., 2008) can affect interaction.

2.4 Development of interactional competence

2.4.1 How interactional competence could be taught

Since the evolution of interactional competence, a number of studies have been conducted on the development of interactional competence. For example, Dings (2007) investigates how an American learner of Spanish in a study-abroad context developed her interactional competence in the area of speaker selection, alignment activity, and topic management over one year (Section 2.3.3.1). Her later study (2014) explores the development of the same learner's alignment activity. In their longitudinal case study, Pekarek Doehler and Berger (2016) document how a German L1 speaking au-pair's conversational story-openings in L2 (French) with a French-speaking host family changed over nine months. Unlike these researchers, Yagi (2007) explores the

development of interactional competence over the course of one hour in a single discursive practice of telephoning book shops. She reports changes in three Japanese L1 speaking learners' L2 (English) performance in the use of linguistic forms specific to the given practice. These studies closely delineate learners' development of interactional competence. Yet, Young (2011) argues that they offer little evidence of how the changes were brought about.

According to Young (2011), few studies have been designed to address "the question of how to *teach* interactional competence" (p. 436). However, some suggestions and guidelines have been offered. For example, Itakura (2002) argues for the need to teach pragmatic skills including "both (self-oriented and other-oriented) types of initiation" and "devices to develop a topic within a turn and across turns" (p. 177). Galaczi (2004) suggests teaching explicitly how to extend the interlocutor's turn and how to take part in interaction more actively through follow-up questions. With regard to guidelines, Kramsch (1986) proposes an "interactionally-oriented curriculum" that includes "a critical and explicit reflection of the discourse parameters of language in use" (p. 369). Drawing on research findings on language and cognitive development, Hall (1999) asserts that there are two specific processes through which interactional competence can be developed: (1) through "guided participation with more experienced participants", and (2) through "the conscious, systematic study of them in which learners mindfully abstract, reflect upon, and speculate upon the patterns of use" (p. 140). For the second process, Hall proposes an example of a classroom activity in which learners collect "texts" in the target language from recurring interactions in a community such as greetings, and then analyse the texts using a framework provided by the teacher. This guides the learner to take notice of features of interaction in practice.

In the same vein, Wong (2002) suggests an exercise in which learners collect and transcribe authentic spoken interaction and analyse it possibly under the guidance of a teacher.

Coming to the subject later, Dings (2014) and Yagi (2007) approve the thinking offered by Kramsch (1986), Hall (1999), and Wong (2002). The learners in Dings' and Yagi's studies had developed their interactional competence through the first process in Hall's (1999) categories (i.e. interacting with more competent participants). In fact, Yagi (2007) argues that the learners in her study developed their interactional competence solely by interacting with NS staff in local book shops with no explicit feedback at all from teachers. However, Yagi admits that reflection and analysis on past interaction can assist learners to develop their interactional competence more efficiently. Dings (2014) also suggests that the acquisition of interactional competence can be "maximized through thoughtful interventions and analysis of interactions" (p. 754). These studies indicate that the use of reflection and analysis may have potential for *teaching* interactional competence. The question then is how to engage learners in this. This inevitably relates to the question of how to promote learners' awareness. This is because learners are expected to *notice* features of interaction during reflection and analysis, an exercise which subsequently facilitates the development of interactional competence. Before reviewing intervention studies on the development of interactional competence, it is helpful to look at the concept of noticing in SLA.

2.4.2 Role of awareness-raising activities in learning

2.4.2.1 The concept of noticing in second language acquisition

The concept of noticing, which has been influential in the field of SLA, has been

developing since 1980s: the concept has been referred to as the rationale for studies investigating the effects of focus-on-form techniques on second language development (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Schmidt (1990) was probably the first to provide a detailed account of noticing (Godfroid et al., 2010). In clarifying the role of consciousness in L2 learning, Schmidt (1990) describes different aspects of consciousness and suggests that *consciousness in the sense of awareness* is involved in noticing. He distinguishes three levels: perception, noticing (focal awareness), and understanding. Schmidt (1990) claims that "subliminal language learning is impossible, and that noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake" (p. 129). This means that learners can learn only what they consciously attend to. This view is what Ellis (2008) calls the strong version of the Noticing Hypothesis. In his later work, Schmidt (2001, p. 40) offers a weaker version of the hypothesis: "people learn about the things they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to." This means that attention through noticing facilitates learning, but some learning is possible without attention. Indeed, Tomlin and Villa (1994), for example, claim that *detection* alone, which refers to "the cognitive registration of stimuli" (p. 192) is sufficient for learning. That is, learners do not need to notice stimuli consciously for learning. To summarize, the issue of whether learning can be unconscious is yet to be settled, but many researchers agree that if it exists it is minimal (Godfroid et al., 2010).

2.4.2.2 Effect of instruction in second language learning

While empirical studies on the effect of instruction on the development of interactional competence are limited (Young, 2011), a wide range of studies have investigated whether a target pragmatic feature is teachable and whether instruction is more effective

than no instruction (Spencer-Oatey & Vladimir Zegarac, 2010, p. 83). Below summarizes what these studies say about the impact of instruction on L2 pragmatics.

Based on the following two questions, Taguchi (2015b) reviews 58 instructional intervention studies of L2 pragmatics over the last three decades: (1) "is instruction effective in learning pragmatics?"; and (2) "what methods are most effective in learning pragmatics?" (p. 1). Of the 58 studies with diverse pragmatic targets (e.g. speech acts and discourse organizational skills), 31 investigated the effect of a single instructional method, and 27 compared different methods. With regard to the 31 studies, 25 investigated explicit teaching methods, 2 implicit methods, and 4 a combination of different methods. Following Kasper (2001), Taguchi (2015b) defines explicit teaching as instruction that involves "direct, one-way explanation of target pragmatic features from an instructor or researcher". Implicit instruction withholds such explanations, but instead "encourages learners to deduce or reflect on pragmatic rules on their own" (p. 5). With regard to the group of 27 studies which compared different methods, Taguchi examines whether certain features are present in activities, such as input, input enhancement, production, and consciousness-raising. Taguchi (2015b) makes a number of generalizations about effective instructions. First, instruction is more effective than no instruction, but effects differ depending on the assessment tasks and targets. Second, explicit instruction is generally more effective than implicit teaching. Particularly effective are direct metapragmatic information and production practice (e.g. role play), features associated with explicit form-focused instruction. Third, implicit instruction can be as effective as explicit teaching on condition that it involves "activities that work on two levels: noticing and processing" (p. 36). As one such form of implicit instruction, consciousness-raising activities are suggested, which pushes learners to deduce the rules.

To sum up, Taguchi (2015b) argues that "the quality of processing depth" (p. 36) is key to effective instruction. These generalizations reinforce Schmidt's (1990, 2001) claim that attention is required for input to be noticed and internalized as intake.

Thus, along with Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, Taguchi's review paper also indicates the value of awareness-raising activities in L2 learning. Now let us return to the core question: how to teach international competence.

2.4.3 Promoting interactional awareness

As Young (2011) suggests, few studies have been designed around the question of how to teach interactional competence. Among those few, Sayer's (2005) and Walsh's (2003) see promoting interactional awareness as key to the development of interactional competence but they adopt different stances on learners' engagement.

Sayer (2005) investigates the effectiveness on learners' performance of tasks specifically designed to promote learners' awareness of conversational strategies. This was a teacher-initiated action research project conducted at a university in Mexico. Ten class hours were devoted to the project over a two-week period and 23 Mexican students on the TESOL BA programme took part. After an explanation of discourse strategies (e.g. negotiating meaning), the students worked on different types of awareness-raising activities. In one activity, a pair of speakers worked on a task with a student observer using a simple checklist to monitor target points, after which the pair received feedback from the observer; then the speaking and observing roles were reversed. In another activity, which included the target interaction strategies, the students also made use of the self-access centre to find examples from authentic spoken English such as talk shows.

Sayer also set pre- and -post intervention tasks. The purpose of the pre-task was to identify the learners' problem areas in interaction. From the analysis, *poor monitoring of the partner's talk, avoidance of negotiation of meaning,* and *problems with turn-taking* emerged as problematic (p. 16). The learners then engaged in class activities and discussion focusing on these areas. The transcript of the students' performance in their post-intervention tasks indicated that the students had made improvements in the areas of monitoring, negotiating meaning and turn-taking. Sayer concludes that intensive, direct instruction based on awareness-raising activities can help learners to improve their conversation skills.

Sayer's approach starts from two assumptions: that (1) "learners are capable conversationalists in their own language", and that (2) "conventions in conversations are culturally-specific" (p. 15). The first assumption is that leaners transfer their unconscious L1 interaction strategies to L2. The second implies the need to become aware of the conventions in English. Accordingly, the features specified by the researcher as problematic in the learners' initial task performance were henceforth explicitly taught. The researcher's initiative in identifying target areas may be a natural consequence, given the second premise. Yet, two questions arise: if the discovery of target areas had been left to the learners, would they have chosen the same areas as those the researcher had selected for them? Also, would explicit teaching of the target areas set by the researcher have had a sustainable effect on learners who were "capable conversationalists in their own language" (Sayer, 2005, p. 15), if they had not perceived any problems in the selected areas?

Compared to the participants in Sayer's (2005) project, participants in Walsh's (2003) study had more ownership in developing their interactional awareness. Walsh

investigated the development of interactional awareness in eight teachers who taught English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at university. As a tool to raise their interactional awareness, a Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) grid was used. Walsh employed this grid to summarize four L2 classroom modes or contexts (i.e. managerial, materials, skills and systems, and classroom context), together with their pedagogical goals and interactional features. For example, when in managerial mode, one of the pedagogical goals is to "transmit information" and a "single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and/or instructions" is given as an example of an interactional feature (p. 126).

The teacher-participants were asked to make short (approximately 15 minutes) recordings from their three lessons and to complete a written analysis using the SETT grid. Walsh comments that the participants only began to notice and make changes when focusing on their own personally generated data. The written analysis included (a) contextualization, including teaching aims and class profile; (b) identification of the modes used; (c) examples of interactional features; (d) an assessment of the features in relation to mode and pedagogic purpose; and (e) an evaluation of the process (p. 132). Before working on self-evaluation the participants attended a workshop on the SETT grid, and after self-evaluation of each lesson they had a debriefing interview. The purpose of the interview was to resolve uncertainties and reflect on the self-evaluation process. Hence, the participants were guided through reflection and analysis, not left to work entirely at their discretion. However, they were encouraged to use their initiative to "notice, describe and explain" the interactional organization (p. 131) rather than through explanations given by the researcher.

Although the SETT grid provided them with metalanguage, it was not its function

to present problematic areas. The metalanguage was intended to help the participants reflect on their interaction and describe it. The participants' use of metalanguage in their written analyses was also examined as an indicator of the extent to which they became conscious of their interaction. Thus, unlike in Sayer's (2005) project, problem areas were highlighted by the participants, not by the researcher. Although a delayed test was not included in his study, Walsh's approach is grounded, in his words, on the understanding that "innovation is more sustainable if stakeholders have ownership" (p. 138).

The current study attempts to explore the potential of using reflection and analysis in developing interactional competence in learners. It shares Walsh's view that learners should be encouraged to use their initiative to identify their interactional features and work on them, with the aid of an appropriate tool, using their self-generated data.

2.5 Summary

This chapter first outlined the theory of communicative competence with a view to better understanding the notion of interactional competence. The fundamental difference between the two concepts is that communicative competence focuses on an individual language user in a social context, whereas interactional competence is co-constructed by all participants, each of whom brings their identity and their linguistic and interactional resources into a discursive practice. This chapter then reviewed studies on the key dimensions of dyadic interaction such as equality and mutuality.

The latter part of this chapter reviewed the issue of topic management. Topic management, which is a core element of interactional competence, is defined in this

study as the learner's ability to initiate and develop their own topics while engaging with the interlocutor's ideas. The form of topic management in peer-to-peer interaction will vary, as it is affected by a number of factors. The last section of the chapter addressed the development of interactional competence. Two processes for acquiring interactional competence were suggested: interaction with more competent participants; and through learners' conscious and systematic study of interactional features. Regarding the second process, it has been argued that promoting learners' interactional awareness is key. However, while some suggest direct instruction of specific problem areas identified by a teacher, others argue that more ownership should be given to the learners to identify features of their interaction and work on them. Thus, the literature on the promotion of interactional competence is not consistent. This gives new researchers the opportunity to fill gaps and suggest new solutions.

The current study investigates the effect of awareness-raising activities involving learners' self-analysis on their subsequent task performance. By doing so, it hopes to explore the potential of learners taking initiative to identify and reflect on features of their interaction, in particular, topic management and, in so doing, to develop their interactional competence.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter first states the research questions that have shaped this study, followed by a description of the research approach, choice of participants, ethical considerations, instruments, and pilot studies. The final part describes the data collection and analysis procedures.

3.1 The current study

3.1.1 Research questions

This study investigates the effect of awareness-raising activities on learners' subsequent patterns of interaction when working in pairs on decision-making tasks. The main focus is placed on topic management, which is an important element of interactional competence. To evaluate the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities, this study also explores the learners' awareness development and their perception of topic management. The research questions addressed by this study are:

1. Does participating in awareness-raising activities affect patterns of interaction, in particular topic management, in subsequent decision-making tasks among Japanese intermediate learners of English? If so, how?

2. Do Japanese intermediate learners of English perceive their topic management differently before and after experiencing awareness-raising activities? If so, in what way?

3. What are the perceptions of the usefulness of awareness-raising activities among Japanese intermediate learners of English?

3.1.2 Research approach

This study employs a mixed methods approach to address the three research questions. To address the first question, the participants' dialgues before and after awareness-raising activities is transcribed and analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The data are first analysed quantitatively with frameworks mostly based on He and Young (1998) and Galaczi (2004, 2008). In the final stage a mixed coding approach is used, in which "part of a scheme is adopted but refined to suit one's theoretical framework, research purposes, and/or the data obtained" (Révész, 2011, p. 209). Then the qualitative analysis is conducted using Conversation Analysis (CA). This does not follow a pure CA methodology because classical CA uses "naturally occurring data" and examines "all the details of the talk" (Brouwer, 2013, p. 3). Quantification also goes against strict CA methodology (Galaczi, 2008). Lee (2007), for example, argues that predetermined categories may invoke only "a limited repertoire of interpretive frames that the analysts impose" (p. 1207). This method can nonetheless provide insights that are complementary to the interpretation of data. When combined with qualitative analysis, this study assumes that quantification which uses meaningful categories drawn from the literature can help to describe the complexity of interaction.

To address the second research question, which traces learners' awareness development and explores their view of their topic management, a questionnaire was considered more appropriate than interviews. This choice was made mostly from the researcher's concern about misleading the participants with her questions and responses

in interviews. It was also thought better for each participant to proceed at their own pace, because the exercise requires cognitive effort. Although a questionnaire holds the possibility that the respondents may misread questions (Dörnyei, 2003, pp. 10-14), careful wording should deal with this issue.

With regard to the last research question, in order to elicit the participants' views on the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities, a questionnaire was, again, judged to be appropriate. This choice of a questionnaire over interviews mainly stems from a concern about interview bias and desirability response bias, which refers to interviewees' tendency to please the interviewer by giving what they assume to be the expected responses (Robson, 2011, pp. 281-282). In this study, the participants might perceive the researcher as senior to themselves because of the age difference and her role as teacher in this exercise. This might have constrained some participants during face-to-face interviews.

3.2 Participants

Sampling in this study is purposive and "relevant to the research questions" (Bryman, 2012, p. 716). Participants were recruited through notices posted in a women's college in Tokyo. Although this means that the study may be weak in terms of generalizability, it allowed the researcher to control for gender, social status (student) and age of the participants. Their baseline English language proficiency and cognitive abilities were also thought to be sufficiently controlled for because all the participants had sat the same university entrance examination. However, for practical reasons, neither their language proficiency level (Galaczi, 2014) nor acquaintanceship (i.e. whether a dyad was already friends) (Norton, 2005) could be tightly controlled for. To recruit

intermediate learners, the participants' self-reported scores on internationally accepted speaking tests were used, but no preliminary speaking test was conducted.

Data were collected from a total of 88 female intermediate learners of English whose first language was Japanese. Eighty-six participants were students from the same college; the final two were from different universities in Tokyo. The data from six participants who participated in Pilot Study 2 (Section 3.5.2) are included in the figure of 88 participants for the following reasons: (1) the data elicited are of good quality; (2) the whole data collection procedure for Pilot 2 is consistent with that used in the current study; and (3) the participants were recruited from the same college as the participants in this study.

All participants other than the dyads in Pilot 2 were randomly divided into experimental and control groups. For each group, research sessions were arranged separately. However, due to several participants' needing to change their schedules, the control group (23 dyads) outnumbered the experimental group (21 dyads). The median age of the participants in the experimental group was 20 years (range = 18-23); and in the control group 21 years (range = 18-23). The median length of time learning English for the experimental group was 9.5 years (range = 7-18); and for the control group 10.0 years (range = 7-18). Approximately half the participants in each group had prior experience of living in an English-speaking country, with the median length of stay 2.0 months in the experimental group and 1.5 months in the control group, ranging from 10 days to 8 years across the two groups. The median scores of the participants' self-reported IELTS, or equivalent, speaking scores, was for both groups 5.0 (range = 4.5-6.0), which corresponds to the B1-B2 CEFR bands (IELTS, 2015)

To ensure the equivalence of the two groups, a Mann-Whitney U test was chosen

because of the distributions of the data. The results indicated no significant differences between the groups, age: $U = 779.5$, $z = -1.593$, $p = .111$, $r = -.17$; length of time learning English: $U = 799.0$, $z = -1.408$, $p = .159$, $r = -.15$; length of residence in an English-speaking country: $U = 980.5$, $z = .133$, $p = .894$, $r = .01$; and self-reported IELTS or equivalent score: $U = 935.0$, $z = -.2713$, $p = .287$, $r = -.03$. Although random allocation to a group does not guarantee the equivalence of the groups (Robson, 2011, p. 98), the two groups in this study seemed not to differ widely in their general characteristics.

3.3 Ethical considerations

Prior to data collection, the current study was reviewed by and received ethical approval from the Research Ethics Committee of the Institute of Education, University College London. No vulnerable individuals were included: only people over 18 were recruited. The researcher explained the outline of the study to each potential participant by phone. During each preliminary meeting, an information sheet (Appendix 1) was provided. Participants were informed that every effort would be made to preserve confidentiality: pseudonyms would be used; all the data collected would be kept in a locked cupboard or in password-protected documents on a password-controlled server to which only the researcher would have access; at the end of the project, all raw data would be destroyed; should results from this research be published or presented in academic journals or at conferences, the participants would not be identifiable in any manner. The researcher also said that a small cash payment would be offered for each person's time. Prior to engagement in the research, each signed a consent form (Appendix 2). As the information sheet states, it was made clear that participants could withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

3.4 Instruments

A short background questionnaire, six decision-making tasks, and two additional different types of questionnaire were used. These two types of questionnaire were different for the experimental and control groups. They were initially designed in English, but in consideration of the participants' English proficiency, they were translated into Japanese. The participants were asked to answer in Japanese. Translation entails reconciling two criteria: producing a close translation of the original text and producing a natural-sounding text (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2011). To ensure the Japanese version met these requirements, another Japanese teacher of English was consulted.

3.4.1 Background questionnaire

A short background questionnaire was designed to obtain the following information: age, general English proficiency level according to international language tests such as IELTS, length of time learning English, types of English instruction received, and length of stay in an English-speaking country (Appendix 3).

3.4.2 Decision-making task

3.4.2.1 Appropriate task type

To obtain information about learners' topic management, appropriate task types needed to be selected because task design can play an important role in topic management (Baines & Howe, 2010). In their widely-used framework, Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993) divide communication tasks into five types, jigsaw, information gap, problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion exchange, based on *interactant relationship*, *interaction requirement, goal orientation,* and *outcome options*. According

to Pica et al., the jigsaw and information gap tasks can encourage more interaction among learners because of the requirement for interaction and a specific goal to achieve. However, this benefit can interfere with interactional patterns. Baines and Howe (2010) argue that the interactive structure of a task promotes mutual reliance and encourages the maintenance of topics, whereas in task types that do not require mutual reliance for their completion, because learners already have equal access to information, each learner determines how they will work, whether in unison, in parallel or alone. This flexibility in self-control during topic development is a crucial element of the tasks chosen for this study.

In Pica et al.'s (1993) typology, the absence of an interactive structure applies to the problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion exchange tasks. For this study, a decision-making task was judged to be most appropriate for two reasons. First, convergent goal orientation was thought to encourage a dyad to work together, whatever approach they were going to take. Second, the presence of more than one outcome option was thought to reflect interaction in the real world.

3.4.2.2 Decision-making tasks from Cambridge English: First (FCE)

Decision-making tasks were selected from past examination papers of Cambridge English: First (FCE) offered by the Cambridge English Language Assessment group (previously known as the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations). This examination is targeted at the upper-intermediate level, Level B2 on the CEFR scale (Cambridge English: First Handbook for teachers for exams from 2016). In response to changes in language teaching and testing, FCE has been regularly updated. The paired (between candidates) speaking test format was introduced in 1996, followed by major

revisions in 2008 and 2015 (Cambridge English: First Handbook for Teachers 2015, p. 3). In this study, the decision-making tasks were selected from the pre-2015 versions, specifically from the speaking test Part 3 in the official examination papers provided by the Cambridge ESOL.

There were several reasons for this choice. One arose from the research design: the participants were to work on six tasks in pairs. To avoid the effect of the repetition on linguistic output (e.g. Bygate, 2001), this research required six different tasks which were equivalent in terms of difficulty but not identical in content. FCE claimed to meet this requirement (Cambridge English Principles of Good Practice, 2016).

Another reason was that Part 3 was designed to elicit conversation management skills from test-takers. The paired candidates are asked to work towards a negotiated decision, using visual or written prompts as a basis for their discussion. Thus, a theme is supplied and some ideas for discussion are provided, but this task is an "extended production" and "open" with no pre-assigned roles, in which unrestricted information exchange can take place; hence candidates are likely to exhibit conversation management skills, including topic management (Galaczi, 2004, p. 75).

Lastly, why select the tasks from the FCE pre-2015 version? In this version, paired candidates are provided with visual stimuli and question prompts and required to answer two questions over three minutes, whereas in the post-2015 versions visual prompts are replaced with written prompts and the task is split into two phases (a two-minute discussion of the pros and cons of the options and one-minute for decision-making). In comparison, it was thought that the ambiguity of visuals would leave more flexibility for the learners to initiate topics. Also, a task not split into phases would allow learners to spend three minutes freely developing topics. Hence, the

pre-2015 format was judged to be more appropriate.

Taking into account what topics might be familiar to Japanese students, six tasks were selected. For clarity, the tasks will henceforth be referred to as follows: Task A (Photographs Task), Task B (Sports Task), Task C (Jobs Task), Task D (Happiness Task), Task E (Future Shopping Task), and Task F (Activities Task) (Appendix 4). Note that small modifications were made to the prompts in the original tests after Pilot 1.

3.4.3 Questionnaires for the Experimental Group

3.4.3.1 Awareness-raising Questionnaire

An *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* was designed with three aims: to promote learners' awareness of topic management; to trace their awareness development; and to explore their perceptions of topic management. The questionnaire reflected the definition of topic management in this study: that is, the ability to initiate and develop one's own topics while engaging with the interlocutor's ideas. In formulating questions, the "rules about item wording" (Dörnyei, 2003, pp. 52-56) were observed by using simple and natural language and avoiding ambiguous words. In particular, great care was taken to ensure that no question would appear to suggest any specific answer.

The *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* consisted of six questions. Question 1: Topic initiation; Question 2: Self-initiated topic development; Question 3: Topic shift; Question 4: Involvement of their partner in developing their own ideas; Question 5: Engagement with their partner's topic development; and Question 6: Approach to task completion. For each question other than the first, participants were asked to support their opinion by quoting relevant extracts from a transcript of their previous dialogue. This procedure had two aims: promoting the learners' awareness through a close

examination of the transcript; and allowing the researcher to check the learners'
understanding of the questions. To trace the learners' awareness development, the same
questionnaire was used at each of the three points of the research schedule (Appendix
5).

3.4.3.2 Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)

An *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)* concerned the participants' views of the
usefulness of the awareness-raising activities in improving their topic management. It
consisted of six closed questions, each of which (other than the first question) was
followed up with an open-ended question. The closed questions used a 1-5-point scale.
The issue of middle category inclusion (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 389) was
thought to be inapplicable to this study because of the nature of the questions.

Questions concerned the learners' perspectives of the following aspects of their
interaction: Question 1: Awareness of their communication style prior to research
participation; Question 2: Difficulties involved in self-analysis; Question 3:
Identification of their communication style; Question 4: Conscious efforts to change;
Question 5: Perceived changes in their interaction; Question 6: The usefulness of the
awareness-raising activities (Appendix 6).

3.4.4 Questionnaires for the Control group

3.4.4.1 Task-related Questionnaire

Instead of the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire*, a *Task-related Questionnaire* was given
to the control group. The group was asked, like the experimental group, to respond to
questions while looking at the transcripts of their previous task performances and

listening to their recordings. In this study it was crucial to isolate the effect of the awareness-raising activities unequivocally. Therefore, *the Task-related Questionnaire* was designed to meet the three conditions: it should ensure, in comparison to the experimental group, (1) a similar degree of exposure to input (i.e. transcript and recording) and (2) a similar amount of time to complete the questionnaire; and (3) it should not lead the learners to analyse their topic management. Obviously it was, in reality, impossible to restrict the learners' cognitive activity. Hence, the questions had been carefully rehearsed and finalized in Pilot 3 (Section 3.5.3).

The questionnaire consisted of four open-ended questions, all on the content of the learners' discussion, not on specific aspects of language such as grammar and vocabulary. The questions were as follows: Question 1: Writing a short report based on the dyad's discussion; Question 2: Specifying which of their interlocutor's ideas and opinions they agreed with; Question 3: Summarizing their conclusions; Question 4: Giving their general thoughts about the subject discussed in each task. The last question was thrown in to ensure both groups spent equal time on their questionnaire. While sample answers were deliberately excluded in the questionnaire for the experimental group, detailed sample answers were provided for Questions 1 and 2 for the control group to prevent the learners misunderstanding the questions or analysing their interactional patterns (Appendix 7).

3.4.4.2 Exit Questionnaire (Control Group)

An *Exit Questionnaire (Control Group)* was expected to assess the appropriateness of the alternative activities given to the control group. It consisted of four open-ended questions. The target question concerned what the learners had learned when they

looked at the transcripts of their interactions and listened to the recordings. The other three questions were irrelevant to the purposes of this study (Appendix 8). Since this questionnaire was not included in the initial research design, only 26 of the 46 participants in the control group worked on it.

3.5 Pilot study

Three pilot studies (Pilot 1, Pilot 2, and Pilot 3) were employed prior to the research. Due to time constraints and the participants' availability, these pilots were not "mini versions of a full-scale study" but "the specific pre-testing of a particular research instrument" (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001, p. 1).

3.5.1 Pilot study 1

Pilot study 1 was conducted in May 2015 to pre-test the six decision-making tasks and the *Awareness-raising* and *Exit Questionnaires (Experimental Group)*. Two Japanese intermediate learners of English (1 male and 1 female), who were students in a language school in Tokyo, volunteered to take part. Pilot 1 took three hours including two 30 minute breaks. First, the students worked on a three-minute decision-making task in a pair. After a 30 minute break (i.e. the time for the researcher to transcribe), they individually spent 30 minutes working on the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* while looking at the transcript of their task performance and listening to the recording. They were also provided with the visual prompts they had used. Then the pair worked on a second task. After another 30 minute break (i.e. transcription time), they individually filled in the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* and the *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)* over one hour. Finally, the pair worked on four tasks, one after another.

The participants' feedback on the decision-making tasks indicated the need to revise the questions. They reported that they had been confused as to how they should work on two questions that routinely appeared in the task. For example, in Future Shopping Task, the questions were: (1) What are the advantages and disadvantages of buying things in these different ways? and (2) Which do you think will be the most popular way of shopping in the future? Although admitting that the first question was helpful in specifying the context, the learners reported that they had sometimes ended up just pointing out the pros and cons of several pictures. In the light of these drawbacks, the first question was converted into an affirmative sentence. That left just one question above the visual, which was used for the main study. Regarding the visual prompts and the difference between the six tasks in terms of difficulty, no specific drawbacks were reported.

Related to the task activities, the students pointed out a practice effect from working on six decision-making tasks with the same interlocutor. However, any changes of task type and interlocutor would introduce further influential factors (Sections 2.3.3.3 and 3.4.2.1). The use of a control group was expected to address this issue. Therefore, it was decided to keep the research design unchanged.

The participants' feedback on the questionnaires was that they would have liked sample answers. When the researcher explained her interest in hearing the learners' perspectives on topic management in their own words, they saw the point of the omission. However, their worry that they might write something inappropriate indicated a need to emphasize in the main study that there were no right or wrong answers. Regarding the time allocation, the researcher noted the feedback that 30 minutes was too long for each questionnaire and cut it to 20 minutes.

3.5.2 Pilot study 2

Pilot study 2 was conducted in May 2015 as a pre-test of full-scale data collection exercise for the experimental group that would form part of the main study. This tested the validity of the research instruments, data collection procedures, and analytical strategy.

To recruit participants, a women's college in Tokyo was contacted and six Japanese intermediate learners of English took part. They attended four sessions over a week on every other day. In the first session, after receiving brief guidance, the participants worked on two three-minute tasks in pairs. The second and third sessions followed the same schedule. They first individually spent 40 minutes analysing their two previous task performances using the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* (20 minutes per task), looking at the transcripts and listening to the recordings. The visual prompts they had used were also provided. Then the participants worked on two further tasks with the same speaking partner as in their first session. In the fourth session, after spending 40 minutes using the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* to reflect on their two previous task performances, each student filled in the *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)* for 20 minutes. The participants' feedback suggested there were no specific drawbacks in the research instruments nor in the time allocated for the activities.

For the analysis, five categories were quantified under three broad headings: *Total number of words in dialogue* and *Ratio of words within a dyad* (under *Amount of talk*); *Turns in dialogue* (under *Turn-taking*); and *Number of topics* and *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad* (under *Topic organization*). Since, these categories adequately identified the general characteristics of the dialogues in Pilot 2, it was decided to use them in the main study.

The findings of the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the dyads' interactions before and after the interventions indicated the potential of self-analysis to improve learners' topic management. Whereas no substantial changes were observed in their topic initiation and building moves, the learners observably became more engaged with their interlocutors' ideas by using more extending moves. Analysis of the learners' replies to the questionnaires revealed how their awareness had developed, as they all became more aware of the co-constructed nature of interaction. However, because of the exclusion of a control group and the small sample size, the possibility existed that these changes might have been attributable to other factors such as practice effects and the individual characteristics of the group, rather than to the awareness-raising activities. Also the perceived changes may not, in fact, have been significant. The results of Pilot 2 indicated the need for an expanded enquiry with the use of a control group and a larger sample population.

3.5.3 Pilot study 3

Pilot 3 was carried out at the beginning of November 2015 to pre-test the *Task-related Questionnaire* for the control group. Two male Japanese intermediate learners of English in a language school in Tokyo volunteered to take part. As in Pilot 1, either gender was thought to be suitable to pre-test instruments. The students attended two sessions (one-hour first session and a 20-minute second session) on two consecutive days. In the first session, they worked on a three-minute decision-making task in a pair. After a 30 minute break (i.e. transcription time), each student individually spent 20 minutes filling in the *Task-related Questionnaire* in the same way as the participants in Pilots 1 and 2. Then they worked on a second task. In the second session the next day,

the participants individually worked on a revised *Task-related Questionnaire*.

The *Task-related Questionnaire* had to meet three requirements: it should ensure, in comparison to the experimental group, (1) a similar degree of exposure to input and (2) a similar amount of time to complete the questionnaire; and (3) it should not lead the learners to analyse their topic management (Section 3.4.4.1). The initial questionnaire had four questions: Question 1: Changing the dialogue into a third-person report; Question 2: Specifying which of their interlocutor's ideas and opinions they agreed/disagreed with; Question 3: Summarizing their conclusions; and Question 4: Giving their general thoughts about the theme of the previous task.

With regard to the first and second requirements, the researcher's observations indicated that there were no particular problems. The participants' behaviour was similar to those in Pilot 2. However, regarding the third condition, the participants' feedback and their answers indicated a need for revision. One participant mentioned that he was not sure about the meaning of the term "third-person report" in Question 1: his answer had explained *how* the pair had reached a conclusion. The other participant's answer indicated that he may have misunderstood Question 2: instead of mentioning *what* he agreed/disagreed with, he explained *how* he responded to his interlocutor and *why* he did so. To prevent learners analysing their interaction or misunderstanding the questions, it was decided to provide detailed sample answers for Questions 1 and 2. Question 1 was also made more communicative. From Question 2 the word "disagree" was deleted because the students asked the researcher if her interest was in Japanese learners' behavioural patterns of agreement and disagreement. Such assumptions could affect learners' interaction. The next day, the dyad worked on a revised questionnaire. Although the possibility could not be denied that the learners had subconsciously or

consciously analysed their interaction, their answers now indicated little trace of analysing their topic management.

Thus the use of three pilot studies allowed all the instruments to be finalized and the time framework checked for the main study.

3.6 Procedures

3.6.1 Data collection procedure

Data collection took place over a period of three months, from November 2015 to February 2016. Eighty-two participants were recruited from the same women's college as the six participants in Pilot 2. They were randomly divided into experimental and control groups. Each participant attended four sessions over one week on every other day at a municipal seminar house near their university. The time schedule was the same as for Pilot 2 (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1   Data collection schedule

		Experimental group	Control group
Session	Time allocated (mins.)	Activity	Activity
1	7	Guidance	Guidance
	6	Two three-minute decision-making tasks in pairs	Two three-minute decision-making tasks in pairs
2 & 3	40	Answering the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire*	Answering the *Task-related Questionnaire*

	6	Two further three-minute decision-making tasks in pairs	Two further three-minute decision-making tasks in pairs
4	40	Answering the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire*	Answering the *Task-related Questionnaire*
	20	Completing the *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)*	(Some participants only) Completing the *Exit Questionnaire (Control Group)*

In Session 1, after filling out the consent form and a *Background Questionnaire*, the participants received brief instructions about the data collection procedures. After being randomly paired up, each dyad worked on two tasks in a room with a timer and an integrated circuit (IC) recorder on the desk. At the beginning of the task activities, the researcher handed prompts (i.e. visuals with a question) to the dyad. Then the researcher switched on the timer and the IC recorder and left the room. Although observation can play the role of triangulating recorded data (Robson, 2002, p. 310), because of the concern about any reactivity triggered by the researcher's presence, the dyad was asked to work alone until a buzzer rang. To deal with the issue of order effects, the order of the tasks was counterbalanced (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 Task procedure

	1st Session		2nd Session		3rd Session	
Pair 1	Task A	→ Task B	Task C	→ Task D	Task E	→ Task F
Pair 2	Task F	→ Task E	Task B	→ Task A	Task D	→ Task C
Pair 3	Task C	→ Task D	Task E	→ Task F	Task A	→ Task B

Sessions 2 and 3 for both groups followed the same schedule. The participants individually completed the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* or the *Task-related Questionnaire*, while looking at their transcript and listening to their recording. For the

experimental group, the researcher explained why sample answers were not provided. Although no significant differences were observed between the groups in the way they used the transcripts and recordings, no device to detect frequency was used. After completing their questionnaire, the participants worked on two further tasks with the same interlocutor as in Session 1.

In Session 4, each participant completed either the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* or the *Task-related Questionnaire.* The experimental group then individually reflected on the awareness-raising activities by completing the *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group).* Halfway through the research, some of the control group also worked on the *Exit Questionnaire (Control Group).*

Lastly, it is important to raise here the issue why there was no measurement of task performance in Session 4 or provision made for a delayed post-test. The primary reason for the absence of task activity came from the following concerns: if a task activity was implemented just before completing the *Exit Questionnaire,* the learners' answers might be influenced by how they had performed in these two tasks, and they might not reflect their views of having attended awareness-raising activities throughout the research. If a task activity was implemented, instead, after the *Exit Questionnaire,* the learners' performance might be then influenced by the *Exit Questionnaire,* rather than by the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire.* Regarding the absence of a delayed post-test, the participants' availability was the main reason. The researcher was allowed to recruit participants from the university for a limited time period, towards the end of the academic year. Students then had finals, after which many may have gone travelling. Hence, it was difficult to arrange a suitable schedule for each of 44 dyads. The researcher was also concerned about controlling for various other factors which might

affect interaction such as subsequent English classes at the university, opportunities for task activities in English, or just little chats about this research. The absence of a delayed post-test constitutes a limitation to the conclusions arrived at by this study.

3.6.2 Data analysis procedure

3.6.2.1 Transcription

In this study each of 44 dyads worked on two tasks over three sessions. Hence, a total of 264 dialogues were collected. These audio-recorded data were transcribed using CA conventions based on Atkinson and Heritage (1984) (Appendix 9). This choice was determined mainly by the need for transcription that included discourse features such as length of pauses and some non-verbal reactions.

3.6.2.2 Preliminary procedures for investigating participants' task performance

The first stage in the preliminary analysis was to divide the discourse into topic sequences. For this study, the FCE Speaking Test Part 3 was used as the instrument, where visual stimuli are provided for test-takers as the basis for their discussion. To achieve consistent measures, following Galaczi (2004, 2008), the visual stimuli were used as a means of distinguishing topics: all talk related to one picture/illustration was counted as one topic sequence. Each topic sequence was then segmented into turns. A turn was counted using Edelsky's (1981) definition: "on-record speaking … behind which lies an intention to convey a message that is both referential and functional" (p. 403). Although ambiguity remained about a speaker's intention, backchannels such as "mhm" and "yeah" were not counted as turns.

The next step was coding moves. Drawing on Stenström (1994, p. 36), a move is

defined as what the speaker is doing during a turn. This means studying what a learner is doing regarding topic development (e.g. initiating a topic) during each turn. In this way, each learner's contribution is associated with topic development moves. For coding, a mixed approach was used. For the initial framework, this study adopted the categorization proposed in Galaczi's (2004, 2008) studies. This is because her observation of how all the test-takers proceeded in the FCE Speaking Test Part 3 was consistent with the researcher's observation of the participants' actions in Pilot 2. It was later revised to suit the data obtained.

These preliminary analysis procedures were applied to all 264 transcribed dialogues. Subsequently, the general characteristics of the learners' discourses and the patterns of their topic development were investigated and compared between the experimental and control groups.

3.6.2.3 Procedures for investigating the general characteristics of the dialogues

The general characteristics of the dialogues were analysed under three broad headings: *Turn-taking, Topical organization,* and *Amount of talk*. *Turn-taking* and *Topical organization* were drawn from interactional resources developed by He and Young (1998); *Amount of talk* was added to give a fuller picture of the dialogue. To examine the dimensions of equality of interaction, *Ratio of words* and *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad* were also added. Thus, as in Pilot 2, five categories were quantified.

Amount of talk:

    (1) *Total number of words in dialogue* (total number of words)

    (2) *Ratio of words within a dyad*

Turn-taking:

 (3) *Turns in dialogue* (number of turns taken during dialogue)

Topic organization:

 (4) *Number of topics* (number of visual prompts discussed)

 (5) *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad*

The figures used for each session are the average of the figures obtained from the two task performances in the same session. This measurement was justified because the learners worked on two tasks in each session without a break and with no interventions between tasks. Also the tasks undertaken over the three sessions were all of the same type.

 Categories (2) *Ratio of words within a dyad* and (5) *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad* were measured using the same procedure. Take Pair X (J5 and J6) as an example (Table 3.3) to illustrate how the ratio of words within the dyad in Session 2 was calculated.

Table 3.3 Ratio of words within a dyad (Pair X in Session 2)

Pair	Session	Task	Participant	Words produced	Total words	Percentage	Ratio (Each task)	Ratio (Session 2)
Pair X	Session 2	1st task	J5	68	156	0.436 (43.6%)	0.773	0.727
			J6	88		0.564 (56.4%)		
		2nd task	J5	97	163	0.595 (59.5%)	0.681	
			J6	66		0.405 (40.5%)		

(Steps)

1. Calculate the ratio of words for Pair X in the first task performance

(a) Calculate each ratio of J5 and J6's talk in a dialogue by dividing each

participant's number of words produced by the total number of words in

the dialogue.

* J5: 68/156 = 0.436 (43.6%)

* J6: 88/156 = 0.564 (56.4%)

(b) Calculate the ratio of words within Pair X by dividing the ratio of J5 by the

ratio of J6. When the figure obtained is above 1.0, it replaces the numerator

and denominator.

* 0.436/0.564 = 0.773

2. Calculate the ratio of words for Pair X in the second task performance

Following the same procedure above, the figure is calculated as follows:

* J5: 97/163 = 0.595 (59.5%)

* J6: 66/163 = 0.405 (40.5%)

* 0.595/0.405 = 1.469 → 0.405/0.595 = 0.681

(The figure obtained is more than 1.0, so it replaces the numerator and

denominator.)

3. Calculate the ratio of words for Pair X in Session 2

Add the ratio of words for Pair X in the first task performance to that of the

second task performance and divide the figure by two.

* 0.773+0.68 1= 1.454 → 1.454/2=0.727

Thus, when the learners in a dyad spoke the same amount of talk, the ratio of words between a dyad was 1.0. The figure of 0.725 for Pair X indicates their moderately balanced contribution in terms of quantity of talk in Session 2.

3.6.2.4 Procedures for investigating the patterns of topic development

This study employs a mixed approach for coding moves. As an initial framework, it adopted Galaczi's (2004, 2008) categorization, which originally consisted of seven types: *Topic initiation, Building, Appending, Minimal acknowledgement, Recycling, Extending,* and *Incomplete*. In her final quantification, Galaczi collapsed the *Minimal acknowledgement* category on the grounds that minimal acknowledgement and topic repetition did not differ substantially for the purposes of her analysis. In this study, *Minimal acknowledgement* is justified because there seemed to be important differences in learners' interactional management and their linguistic ability as to whether they made a minimal acknowledgement, repeated or reformulated a prior proposition, or extended a topic. However, in the case of Japanese learners, "yes*"* is sometimes used instead of yeah or mhm. When "yes" was assumed to be used in that way, it was not counted as a minimal acknowledgement. A clear "yes" in response to a question was coded as a proper yes.

In the final quantification, one more type was added. This was named a *Prompting move* and defined as: a speaker asks her partner to add to her contribution. This behaviour was observed either when the learner continued to develop their own topic or when they were responding. A typical example is "How about you?". Questions play several roles in discourse: some have clear topic development functions such as topic initiation, while others merely assume conversation management roles such as offering the floor (Galaczi, 2004). In Galaczi's framework, "How about you?" may be regarded as assuming a conversation management role. However, in this study, some students reported using questions such as "How about you?" to involve their interlocutor and encourage them to add their contribution to developing an idea. This

type of question not only assumes a conversation management role, but also has a topic development function different from building, recycling or extending moves. Therefore, the inclusion of a *Prompting move* was felt necessary.

Hence, the topic development moves were coded for eight types: Topic initiation, Building, Appending, Minimal acknowledging, Recycling, Extending, Prompting, and Incomplete. A closing move was not coded for because the topic boundary was apparent. Other than the *Prompting move*, the definitions are taken from Galaczi (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Categorization of topic development moves

Move	Definition
INITIATE	A speaker introduces a new topic within the framework of the task.
DEVELOP	A speaker continues the prior topic.
CONTINUE	A speaker continues her own previously introduced topic.
Build	A continuing speaker adds to her contribution.
Prompt	*A speaker asks her partner to add to her contribution.*
Append	A speaker loses the turn, but as soon as she regains the floor, they produce a move which relates to the last-but-one turn (i.e., their own).
RESPOND	A speaker develops the proposition set up by the previous speaker.
Minimal acknowledgement only	A speaker responds to the proposition set up by the previous speaker with just a minimal response, usually "Yes".
Topic recycling	A speaker responds to the proposition set up by the previous speaker with a repetition or simple reformulation of the prior proposition. The turn does not contribute any propositional content to the topic in progress.
Topic extension	A speaker responds to the proposition set up by the previous speaker by contributing to its propositional content.
Prompt	*A speaker asks her partner to add to her contribution.*
CLOSE	A speaker closes the topic in progress, usually with a minimal response.
INCOMPLETE	A speaker produces an unfinished move, either due to an interruption or a voluntary turn termination.

(Adapted from Galaczi, 2004, pp. 88-89 "Table 3.3.Topic Development Moves Coded for in the Data")
* My italics

Excerpts [3-1] and [3-2] illustrate how Galaczi's coding scheme was applied to the data in this study. In Excerpt [3-1], the dyad was discussing which activity was likely to be most popular with people who do not usually take much exercise. Newly introduced topics are underlined and in bold.

Excerpt [3-1] (Task B -- Sports Task)

J41 and J42 = Japanese intermediate learners

(three turns are omitted)

4	initiate	J41:	Mm (.) I think (.) the **<u>yoga exercise</u>**.
		J42:	Yeah, yeah.
	build	J41:	because, er, yoga don't need that like machines (.)
		J42:	Yeah.
		J41:	or don't need to go pool or don't need racquet (.) so it can only their body and exercise is easy (.) so I think this is most popular with people.
		J42:	Mm.
	prompt	J41:	How about you?
5	recycle	J42:	I agree with (.) with you because mm yoga (.) just stretch is easy to do because it doesn't need tools or special things and yeah (.) So I think it is most popular for people (.) but
	initiate		I also think nowadays **<u>climbing</u>** is also popular.
		J41:	Mm-hm.
	build	J42:	because, mm, I don't know the reason but some people say it's so enjoyable so maybe I think it's one of well popular sports.
6	extend	J41:	Mm-hm. Um, I (.) I think that climbing is popular recently but, mm, someone feel (.) fear (.)
		J42:	Yeah. Mm.
		J41:	Um, when climb the rock because its position is very high (.) so mm (.) are you not scared high position?
7	minimal acknowledge	J42:	Oh (.) yes. I do.
8	incomplete	J41:	Yeah (.) so for some people (.) mm
		J42:	Yeah (.)

(Pair 21: 2nd task in Session 2)

Excerpt [3-2] illustrates an appendix move. The dyad was discussing which photograph stood out as special.

Excerpt [3-2]   (Task A --Photographs Task)

      J51 and J52 = Japanese intermediate learners

1	initiate	J52:	Er (.) the most special (.)
		J51:	Special.
		J52:	Er I think (.) mmm (.) this **wedding** photo ((laugh))
		J51:	((laugh))
		J52:	It's the most special photo.
2	initiate	J51:	Yes. I think this, this **birthday party** is the most special build because everyone have, have birthday.
		J52:	Yes.
		J51:	in their lives.
3	append	J52:	I think wedding is mmm (.) the I don't know but ((laugh)) to change, to change one's life big big life event (.) one of the turning=
		J51:	= point.
		J52:	Yes.
		J51:	Mm.
			(continues)

<div align="right">(Pair 26: 2nd task in Session 2)</div>

Coding for moves was followed by investigation into change of topic development over the sessions. This study focuses on the evolution of topics (rather than on checking for the ratio of each topic development move). In order to justify this decision, take the following two dialogues produced by the same dyad. Each dialogue consists of ten moves. The move produced by the first speaker is in black, the interlocutor's move in red. The arrow indicates the change of speaker. I refers to a topic

initiating move, B to building, E to extending, and R to a recycling move.

(Dialogue 1)   I B→ E →I B→ E→I → E→I → E

(Dialogue 2)   I B→ E →E→ E→E → I B→I →R

If we focus on the change in the ratio of, for example, extending moves, there is no change between Dialogues 1 and 2: there are four extending moves in each dialogue, so the ratio of the move is the same, 4/10 = 0.4 (40%). An extending move can be regarded as an index of *mutuality* since it indicates "the level of engagement with each other's contribution" (Storch, 2002, p. 127). This suggests that *mutuality* has not been enhanced. Now consider Dialogue 2. The conversation proceeds very differently. In Dialogue 1, four topics are discussed but each topic decays over two turns. In contrast, in Dialogue 2, although two topics decay quickly, one topic stretches over five turns. This indicates that the interactional pattern changed between Dialogues 1 and 2.

The appearance of a multi-turn topic is counted as important in this study. As Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) state, successful completion of negotiation-based tasks requires a considerable amount of turn-taking to take place because it involves arguments and persuasion. In this sense, as Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) argue, the number of turns taken by a speaker can be regarded as an indicator of "the level of student involvement" (p. 283) and "the quality of the joint interaction" (p. 285). Indeed a multi-turn topic could suggest enhanced mutuality: otherwise a topic could not stretch over several turns. It also reflects the speakers' strong goal orientation (Young & Milanovic, 1992). Thus, a multi-turn topic shows how meanings co-constructed by a dyad evolve during longer stretches of discourse.

In examining what patterns appear in the learners' dialogues, the following rule was applied: when a recycling move and an extending move appeared *together* in one turn following the interlocutor's topic initiation, the pattern I→RE was noted as I→E because an extending move contributes more to topic development. Likewise, when a prompting move (P) appeared together with a building move, a recycling move, or an extending move, which was the case with the current data set, (I)BP was noted as (I)B (note a building move is always followed by topic initiation), RP as R, and EP as E because a building, a recycling, and an extending move each contributes more to topic development than a prompting move.

For initial quantification, the ratio of each topic development was measured by using a broad category: i.e. a single-turn topic, two-turn, three-turn, or four-turn topic etc. For example, in Dialogue 3 below, there are four topic developments.

(Dialogue 3)   I B→ **E** →E→ **E**→E → **I B**→I →**R**   I B→ **E**

There is one single-turn topic, so the ratio of one-turn topic development is 1/4 = 0.25 (25%). The ratio of two-turn topics is 2/4 = 0.5 (50%), and the ratio of five-turn topics 1/4 = 0.25 (25%).

The categories for final quantification were determined on the basis that the number of turns in a topical sequence reflects "the quality of *joint* interaction" (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000, p.285, my italics). The variables measured were as follows:

(1) *Ratio of one-turn topic development*

(2) *Ratio of one-* and *two-turn topic development*

(3) *Ratio of three- and more than three-turn topic development*

(4) *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development*

One-turn topic development indicates no joint interaction in the dyad. However, one-turn topic development can also be regarded as one-way communication because a speaker is still conveying a message. Two-turn topic development is also regarded as one-way communication because the second speaker responds to the first speaker but the first speaker does not respond to the second speaker's reply. Hence, one- and two-turn topic development can constitute a single category signifying one-way interaction. Three-turn topic development is the threshold for minimal two-way interaction. Take a dialogue about one topic, (Speaker)A→B→A, as an example. Each of the speakers A and B responds to their interlocutor once. Thus, this has the shape of minimal two-way communication, that is, it is two-way but still limited in terms of deepening the discussion. In contrast, four-turn topic development can be regarded as the threshold for developed two-way interaction. Again take a dialogue about one topic, (Speaker)A→B→A→B. Here, speakers A and B respond to each other in turn, developing a topic together. These variables partly overlap because the patterns of topic development are categorized on the concept of thresholds. The limitations of this classification are discussed in the Conclusion.

3.6.2.5 Statistical analyses and reliability of categorization and coding

With regard to the general characteristics of the dialogues, in order to determine whether there were differences in the changes that took place between the experimental and control groups, a Mann-Whitney U test was used because of the distributions of the

data. For the patterns of topic development, a mixed model ANOVA with time as a within-subjects factor and group as a between-subjects variable was chosen.

To test the reliability of a categorization referring to the general characteristics, the calculation was carried out twice. Intra-rater reliability was checked with an intraclass correlation coefficient, suitable for continuous data. The results indicated a high level of reliability: .999 for *Total number of words in dialogue*, .997 for *Ratio of words within a dyad,* .996 for *Turns in dialogue*, .982 for *Ratio of self-selected turns*, .984 for *Number of topics*, and . 964 for *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad*.

Regarding coding for topic development moves, intra- and inter-coder agreement was checked with Cohen's kappa, which is suitable for nominal data. Intra-coder agreement indicated strong agreement with the Cohen's kappa value, at .934. For inter-coder agreement, approximately 10% of the total data were randomly selected for checking by an independent coder. After a brief explanation of the categories, the researcher, who had a PhD in Education, coded the data. The Cohen's kappa value was calculated as .801. This level, which represents only an acceptable level of agreement, was no higher mostly because of disagreement over the coding of recycling and extending moves: the independent coder had a stricter view as to whether a speaker contributed "propositional content to the topic-in-progress" (Galaczi, 2004, pp. 88-89). Discussion allowed this discrepancy to be resolved.

3.6.2.6 Analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires

Of the four research questionnaires used in this study, the *Task-related Questionnaire* completed by the control group was excluded from analysis because it was irrelevant to the focus of this study. Regarding the *Exit Questionnaire (Control Group),* replies to just

one question were analysed: "Did you learn anything when you looked at the transcript of your interaction and listened to the recording? If so, what?"

The data obtained from the open-ended questions in the three relevant questionnaires were analysed qualitatively using the KJ method. The KJ method, named after its inventor, Kawakita Jiro, was developed to analyse a large body of ethnographic data. It involves four steps: (1) label making by using cards, (2) label grouping, (3) drawing up diagrams, and (4) bringing together the resulting material into an essay (Kawakita, 1970, 1986). In this study, for each question on the questionnaires, the learners' responses were divided into three groups according to the intervention phase (i.e. Sessions 1, 2, and 3). This was followed by label making: the responses in each group were separated into segments so that each segment expressed only one idea unit; the idea unit from each segment was then copied onto a separate note card. The next step was label grouping, or categorization. First the note cards were spread out on a table, then sorted to make up groups in the light of their similarities, bundled together with rubber bands and identified by a summary (*hyosatsu*). The groups of labels were then fanned out again and the process repeated, the number of groups becoming smaller each time, until broader categories emerged from the subcategories. In the diagrams phase, the finalized groups of labels were placed according to the relationship between each group (e.g. close and causal). The final step in the KJ method, essay writing, was omitted.

The KJ method shares the idea of data reduction through categorization with other commonly used techniques for analysing responses to open-ended questions, such as content analysis. The choice of the KJ method was made mainly for two reasons. First, unlike content analysis, the KJ method is exclusively used inductively. Kawakita

(1970, 1986) argues that the fundamental concept is letting the data speak. Indeed, in grouping labels, "preconceived biases must not motive one's choices" (Scupin, 1997, pp. 235-236). The other reason is its use of cards. In content analysis, the common procedure is to mark distinct content elements in each person's response (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009, p. 99). Only in the KJ method are cards used. They are easy to handle, but more importantly, it allows researchers easily to "arrange and rearrange, and to group and classify" (Ohiwa, Kawai, & Koyama, 1990, p. 44). This flexibility and closeness to the data is also why computer associated qualitative data analysis such as NVivo were not selected.

Chapter 4

Findings and Discussion: Quantitative Analyses

This chapter discusses the results of a quantitative analysis of the learners' interactional patterns in decision-making tasks before and after interventions. It opens with a comparison of the general characteristics of the learners' discourses in the experimental and control groups. It then compares the patterns of topic development between the groups over the time of the study.

4.1 First research question

The first research question asked: Does participating in awareness-raising activities affect patterns of interaction, in particular topic management, in subsequent decision-making tasks among Japanese intermediate learners of English? If so, how? To address this question, the transcribed data were quantified for their general characteristics and patterns of topic development. The results are presented separately in the following sections.

4.2 Effect of the awareness-raising activities on the general characteristics of the learners' discourses in subsequent decision-making tasks

4.2.1 Mann-Whitney U test

In this study each of 44 dyads (21 dyads in the experimental group and 23 in the control group) worked on two tasks over three sessions. Hence, 264 dialogues were collected

and analysed. The general characteristics of the dialogue were operationalized using five measures: (1) *Total number of words in dialogue*, (2) *Ratio of words within a dyad*, (3) *Turns in dialogue,* (4) *Number of topics in dialogue*, and (5) *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad*. The figures used for each session are averages of the figures obtained from two task performances in the same session (Section 3.6.2.3). For example, *Total number of words in dialogue 1* refers to the averages of the values obtained from the two dialogues in Session 1.

As preliminary analyses, the normality of the distributions for each variable was checked. The results of Shapiro-Wilk's test indicated that the following categories were not normally distributed: *Ratio of words within a dyad 2* in the control group (W = .878, *p* = .009), *Ratio of words within a dyad 3* in the experimental group (W = .888, *p* = .020), *Turns in dialogue 1* in the control group (W = .908, *p* = .037), and *Number of topics in dialogue 1* in the control group (W = .887, *p* = .014). Therefore, it was decided to use a non-parametric test and compare change scores between the two groups over the sessions.

4.2.2 Comparison of the initial performances of the two groups

Prior to analysis, the initial performances of the two groups in Session 1 were compared by applying a Mann-Whitney U test. All the variables other than *Ratio of words within a dyad 1* showed similar distributions for the experimental and control groups, as assessed by visual inspection. Therefore, median were compared. The medians of each variable were not statistically significantly different between the groups, *Total number of words in dialogue 1* with $U = 246.5$, $z = .118$, $p = .906$, $r = .02$; *Turns in dialogue 1* with $U = 255.5$, $z = .330$, $p = .742$, $r = .05$; *Number of topics in dialogue 1* with $U = 275.5$, z

= .808, *p* = .419, *r* = .12; and *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad 1* with *U* = 262.0, *z*

= .486, *p* = .627, *r* = .07. With regard to *Ratio of words within a dyad 1*, the distributions

for the two groups were not similarly shaped. Therefore, inferences about these

differences were made for mean ranks. The mean ranks were not statistically

significantly different between the two groups, *U* = 171.5, *z* = -1.645, *p* = .100, *r* = -. 25.

Thus, the analysis indicated that the initial performances of the two groups were not

statistically significantly different in terms of the general characteristics of the dialogues

(Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Comparison of the two groups' initial performances in Session 1

Characteristics	Experimental (21 dyads)			Control (23 dyads)			*U*	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Median	Interquartile range	Mean rank	Median	Interquartile range	Mean rank		
・Total number of words in dialogue 1	182.00	75.00	22.74	182.00	74.00	22.28	246.500	.906
・Ratio of words within a dyad 1	.61	.42	19.17	.69	.14	25.54	171.500	.100
・Turns in dialogue 1	9.00	4.00	23.17	7.50	6.00	21.89	255.500	.742
・Number of topics in dialogue 1	4.50	2.50	24.12	3.50	1.50	21.02	275.500	.419
・Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad 1	.71	.38	23.48	.63	.25	21.61	262.000	.627

4.2.3 Differences in the general characteristics of the dialogues between the experimental and control groups

4.2.3.1 Total number of words in dialogue and *Ratio of words within a dyad*

Tables 4.2 and 4.3 show the descriptive statistics for *Total number of words in dialogue*

and the median change scores over the sessions. In order to determine whether there

were differences in the change scores between the two groups, a Mann-Whitney U test

was applied. As assessed by visual inspection, the distributions of the change scores for

both groups between all sessions were similar. With regard to Sessions 1-2, the median

change scores for the experimental group (11.0 words) and the control group (5.0

words) were not statistically significantly different, *U* = 297.500, *z* = 1.316, *p* = .188,

and $r = .20$. With regard to Sessions 2-3, the median change scores for the experimental group (2.0 words) and the control group (-8.0 words) were not significantly different, either, $U = 303.500$, $z = 1.457$, $p = .145$, and $r = .22$. On the other hand, with regard to Sessions 1-3, the median change score was significantly larger in the experimental group (11.0 words) than in the control group (-1.0 words), $U = 340.000$, $z = 2.316$, $p = .021$, $r = .35$. In the field of second language acquisition, this can be interpreted as a small effect size (Plonsky & Oswald, 2014). In sum, the statistical results indicated that the experimental group produced significantly more words than the control group in Session 3 as compared to Session 1, but there was no difference in the number of words between the groups from Sessions 1-2 and Sessions 2-3.

Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics for *Total number of words in dialogue*

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	182.00	186.00	214.00
	Interquartile range	75.00	85.00	84.00
	Mean rank	22.74	23.45	25.38
Control (23 dyads)	Median	182.00	181.00	181.00
	Interquartile range	74.00	51.00	79.00
	Mean rank	22.28	21.63	19.87

Table 4.3 Median change scores in *Total number of words in dialogu* e

Group		Sessions 1-2	Sessions 2-3	Sessions 1-3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	11.00	2.00	11.00
	Interquartile range	33.00	25.00	43.00
	Mean rank	25.17	25.45	27.19
Control (23 dyads)	Median	5.00	-8.00	-1.00
	Interquartile range	40.00	22.00	34.00
	Mean rank	20.07	19.80	18.22

These results were partly unexpected. It was initially envisaged that the amount of talk would either remain similar or slightly increase over the three sessions regardless

of the group. Therefore, no significant differences were expected to be found in the median change scores between the two groups. These expectations were based on previous studies which claim that the amount of talk can be affected by such factors as a learner's proficiency level (e.g. Young, 1995) and their interlocutor type (e.g. Norton, 2005). These conditions were not applicable to this study: one week was too short for the learners to achieve major progress in their English proficiency and when their interlocutors remained the same. On the other hand, the increased level of acquaintanceship and a practice effect could have increased the amount of talk. However, in that case, it would have affected the learners in both groups. The result of a significant difference in the change scores between the groups indicates that the awareness-raising activities may have increased the quantity of talk over the period. One possible factor may have been a change in some aspects of the learners' interactions. Pilot 2 indicated that the activities could have led to the learners' becoming more engaged with their interlocutors. Paying closer attention to the interlocutors' words may have provided the learners in this study with more *ideas* to talk about, which could have led to the increase in talk. This argument is further explored in the qualitative analysis.

Tables 4.4 and 4.5 show descriptive statistics for the *Ratio of words within a dyad* and the median change scores over the sessions. In order to determine whether there were differences in the change scores between the two groups, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. As assessed by visual inspection, the distributions of the change scores for the groups were similar between all sessions. With regard to Sessions 1-2, the median change scores for the experimental group (.09) and the control group (-.05) were not statistically significantly different, $U = 306.500$, $z = 1.528$, $p = .126$, $r = .23$.

Likewise, for Sessions 2-3, the median change score in the experimental group (-.01) did not differ significantly from that of the control group (.03), $U =$ 219.000, $z =$ -.529, $p =$ .597, and $r =$ -.080. With regard to Sessions 1-3, the distributions of the change scores for the two groups were not similar, as assessed by visual inspection. The change scores for the experimental group (mean rank = 23.81) and control group (mean rank = 21.30) were not statistically significantly different, $U =$ 269.000, $z =$ .647, $p =$ .518, $r =$ .10. To sum up, there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in the ratio of words within a dyad from Sessions 1-2, 2-3, or in Session 3 compared to Session 1.

Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics for *Ratio of words within a dyad*

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	.61	.70	.76
	Interquartile range	.42	.27	.27
	Mean rank	19.17	20.76	21.31
Control (23 dyads)	Median	.69	.76	.75
	Interquartile range	.14	.19	.18
	Mean rank	25.54	24.09	23.59

Table 4.5 Median change scores in *Ratio of words within a dyad*

Group		Sessions 1-2	Sessions 2-3	Sessions 1-3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	.09	-.01	.05
	Interquartile range	.30	.23	.30
	Mean rank	25.60	21.43	23.81
Control (23 dyads)	Median	-.05	.03	.04
	Interquartile range	.30	.22	.18
	Mean rank	19.67	23.48	21.30

Ratio of words within a dyad is a variable related to the dimension of equality of interaction. The initial expectation was that equality would be enhanced in the experimental group as each dyad member became more conscious of their contribution

to the discussion through the awareness-raising activities. Therefore, the change scores in the experimental group were expected to become significantly larger than those of the control group. However, the results of the analysis indicated that the awareness-raising activities did not change equality in the experimental group differently compared to the control group in terms of the distribution of talk.

Then, was there a possibility that equality was promoted in both groups through exposure to the transcripts? Unlike the other variables, the ratio of words within a dyad in the transcripts might catch the eye of each participant. A degree of peer pressure may have exerted an effect, too. All the participants other than two were students at the same university. Those who spoke more may have felt uneasy about monopolizing the conversation and hence spoke less in the next session, while those who spoke less may have felt ashamed and pushed themselves to speak more. Indeed the descriptive statistics show a better balance in both groups by the third session. To determine whether there were significant differences in *Ratio of words within a dyad* over time with each group, a Friedman test was run. The results indicated that the ratio did not, in fact, change significantly over the sessions, for the experimental group, $\chi^2(2) = 4.415$, $p = .110$ or for the control group, $\chi^2(2) = 2.289$, $p = .318$. These results suggest that equality, in terms of the distribution of words, was not promoted in either group. In other words, a better balance did not seem to be achieved in either group either through exposure to the transcripts or through possible peer pressure. However, it may depend on how the learners initially perceived the distribution of their task in the transcripts whether they felt a need to change.

4.2.3.2 Turn-taking

Tables 4.6 and 4.7 show the descriptive statistics for *Turns in dialogue* and the median change scores over the sessions. A Mann-Whitney U test was run to determine whether there were differences in the change scores between the experimental and control groups. As assessed by visual inspection, the distributions of the change scores for the groups were similar between all sessions. With regard to Sessions 1-2, the median change scores for the experimental group (1.00) and control group (.50) were not statistically significantly different, $U = 268.000$, $z = .625$, $p = .532$, $r = .09$. On the other hand, with regard to Sessions 2-3, the median change scores were significantly larger in the experimental group (1.00) than in the control group (-.50), $U = 341.000$, $z = 2.344$, $p = .019$, $r = .35$. For Sessions 1-3, the median change scores for the experimental group (2.00) were also significantly larger than in the control group (-1.00), $U = 325.000$, $z = 1.965$, $p = .049$, $r = .30$. In sum, there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the number of turns from Sessions 1-2, but the experimental group produced significantly more turns in dialogue than the control group in Session 3 as compared to Sessions 1 and 2.

Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics for *Turns in dialogue*

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	9.00	9.00	9.00
	Interquartile range	4.00	5.50	8.00
	Mean rank	23.17	23.05	25.64
Control (23 dyads)	Median	7.50	8.50	8.50
	Interquartile range	6.00	3.50	4.00
	Mean rank	21.89	22.00	19.63

Table 4.7 Median change scores in *Turns in dialogue*

Group		Sessions 1-2	Sessions 2-3	Sessions 1-3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	1.00	1.00	2.00
	Interquartile range	6.00	2.80	5.30
	Mean rank	23.76	27.24	26.48
Control (23 dyads)	Median	.50	-.50	-1.00
	Interquartile range	4.00	4.00	5.50
	Mean rank	21.35	18.17	18.87

These results indicate that the awareness-raising activities may have increased the number of turns in dialogue. The analysis further suggests that they did not immediately affect the number of turns but only after two interventions. This means that it took some time for the awareness-raising activities to exert an effect on the number of turns in the dialogue. These results were not unpredicted. The number of turns taken by the speaker in negotiation-based tasks could be regarded as an indicator of "the quality of the joint interaction" (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000, p. 285). The learners' sensitivity to the co-constructed nature of interaction may have been gradually enhanced through the awareness-raising activities. Each learner may have become more aware of their interlocutor's dual role as speaker and listener. It is possible that this change in awareness led to the rapid change of speaker which signifies the beginning of a new turn. Hence, the number of turns in the experimental group increased more than in the control group. Qualitative analysis of the learners' awareness development and their perspectives on topic management was expected to verify these findings.

4.2.3.3 Topic organization

Topic organization was reported under two headings, *Number of topics in dialogue* and *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad*. Descriptive statistics for *Number of topics in*

dialogue and the median change scores over the sessions are shown in Tables 4.8 and 4.9. A Mann-Whitney U test was run to determine if there were differences in the change scores between the experimental and control groups. As assessed by visual inspection, the distributions of the change scores for the two groups were similar. The results indicated that the median change scores were not statistically significantly different between the two groups between any of the sessions. For Sessions 1-2, the median change score was .50 for the experimental group and -.50 for the control group: $U = 261.500$, $z = .477$, $p = .633$, $r = .07$. For Sessions 2-3, the median change score for the experimental group was -.50 and for the control group .00, $U = 197.000$, $z = -1.052$, $p = .293$, $r = -.16$. With regard to Sessions 1-3, the median change score for the experimental group was -.50 and for the control group .00, $U = 196.500$, $z = -1.068$, $p = .285$, $r = -.16$. In sum, there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in the number of topics discussed in dialogue from Sessions 1-2, 2-3, nor in Session 3 compared to Session 1.

Table 4.8 Descriptive statistics for *Number of topics in dialogue*

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	4.50	4.50	3.50
	Interquartile range	2.50	2.00	1.80
	Mean rank	24.12	25.43	22.17
Control (23 dyads)	Median	3.50	3.50	3.50
	Interquartile range	1.50	2.00	3.00
	Mean rank	21.02	19.83	22.8

Table 4.9 Median change scores in *Number of topics in dialogue*

Group		Sessions 1-2	Sessions 2-3	Sessions 1-3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	.50	-.50	-.50
	Interquartile range	2.00	2.80	2.30
	Mean rank	23.45	20.38	20.36
Control (23 dyads)	Median	-.50	.00	.00
	Interquartile range	1.00	1.50	1.00
	Mean rank	21.63	24.43	24.46

These results were unpredicted. The initial expectation was that the experimental group would discuss significantly fewer topics than the control group over the sessions. In the awareness-raising activities, the experimental group was asked to reflect on how they had supported their ideas and how they had responded to their speaking partner's ideas. This reflection would lead to each person staying longer on the same topic, which would deepen the discussion. This prediction was also partly supported by the results of Pilot 2 in which two out of the three dyads discussed fewer topics as the sessions proceeded. Qualitative analysis was expected to capture the features of topic shift in the experimental group in the main study.

Tables 4.10 and 4.11 give descriptive statistics for *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad* and the median change scores over the sessions. In order to determine whether there were differences in the change scores between the groups, a Mann-Whitney U test was performed. As assessed by visual inspection, the distributions of the change scores for the groups were similar for Sessions 1-2 and 2-3. For Sessions 1-2, the median change scores for both groups at .00 were not statistically significantly different, $U = 252.500$, $z = .259$, $p = .796$, $r = .04$. For Sessions 2-3, the median change scores for both groups, again at .00, were not significantly different either, $U = 238.500$, $z = -.071$, $p = .944$, $r = -.01$. With regard to Sessions 1-3, the distributions of the change

scores for the two groups were not similar, as assessed by visual inspection. The change scores for the experimental group (mean rank = 21.88) and the control group (mean rank = 23.07) were not statistically significantly different, $U = 228.500$, $z = -.307$, $p = .759$, $r = -.05$. To recap, there were no significant differences between the two groups in the ratio of topic initiations within a dyad from Sessions 1-2, 2-3, nor in Session 3 compared to Session 1.

Table 4.10 Descriptive statistics for *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad*

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	.71	.67	.53
	Interquartile range	.38	.33	.29
	Mean rank	23.48	23.62	22.52
Control (23 dyads)	Median	.63	.58	.64
	Interquartile range	.25	.25	.25
	Mean rank	21.61	21.48	22.48

Table 4.11 Median change scores in *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad*

Group		Sessions 1-2	Sessions 2-3	Sessions 1-3
Experimental (21 dyads)	Median	.00	.00	-.08
	Interquartile range	.56	.67	.62
	Mean rank	23.02	22.36	21.88
Control (23 dyads)	Median	.00	.00	.00
	Interquartile range	.50	.47	.50
	Mean rank	22.02	22.63	23.07

This variable, together with *Ratio of words within a dyad*, is related to the dimension of equality of interaction. While the result of *Ratio of words within a dyad* was unexpected, the findings about *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad* were not unpredicted, in the light of Pilot 2. This pilot had revealed an unbalanced distribution of topic initiation in the dyads at the pre-intervention stage, and this did not improve towards the end. Further, qualitative analysis of the learners' replies to the questionnaire

suggested that topic initiation was not their primary concern. With regard to the main study, qualitative analysis was also expected to reveal the learners' perspectives on their contribution to topic initiation.

4.3 Effect of awareness-raising activities on the patterns of topic management in subsequent decision-making tasks

4.3.1 Patterns of topic development in the learners' dialogues

Topic development moves in this study were coded for eight types: *Topic initiation (I), Building (B), Appending (A), Minimal acknowledging (M), Recycling (R), Extending (E), Prompting (P), and Incomplete (C)*. Each dialogue was then examined to identify what patterns were used. The following patterns were observed (see Section 3.6.2.4 for the rules for distinguishing patterns).

Single-turn topic development

(I / IB / IC)

Two-turn topic development

(I→E / IB→R / IB→E / IB→M / other combinations)

Three-turn topic development

(I→E→E / IB→M→E / IB→E→R / IB→E→E / other combinations)

Four-turn topic development

(I→E→E→E / IB→E→E→E / IB→E→R→E / other combinations)

Five- and more than five-turn topic development

(I→E→E→E→E… / IB→E→E→E→E… / other combinations)

In the initial measurement, the above five broad categories were used. In the final quantification, the figures for the following four categories were calculated, each of which reflected a degree of joint interaction: (1) *Ratio of one-turn topic development* (no interaction); (2) *Ratio of one-* and *two-turn topic development* (one-way interaction); (3) *Ratio of three- and more than three-turn topic development* (three-turn topic development as the threshold for minimal two-way interaction); and (4) *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development* (four-turn topic development as the threshold for developed two-way interaction).

4.3.2 Comparison of the initial interactional patterns of the two groups

Prior to the analysis, the initial performances of the two groups at the pre-intervention stage (i.e. Session 1) were compared by employing an independent-sample t-test. With regard to *Ratio of one-turn topic development*, there were no outliers, as assessed by an examination of studentized residuals for values greater than ± 3. The data (i.e. the value of *Ratio of one-turn topic development* for each level of the groups) was normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test, for the experimental group, $W = .962$, $p = .552$, and the control group, $W = .977$, $p = .841$. There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .890$). The ratio was nearly the same between the experimental group (0.41 ± 0.22) and the control group (0.41 ± 0.22), with no statistically significant difference, $t(42) = .087$, $p = .931$, $d = .026$.

With regard to *Ratio of one-* and *two-turn topic development*, there were no outliers, as assessed by an examination of studentized residuals for values greater than ± 3. The data were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test: for the experimental group, $W = .915$, $p = .067$, and the control group, $W = .977$, $p = .856$.

There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances (p = .220). The ratio in the experimental group was smaller (0.60 ± 0.29) than the control group (0.63 ± 0.20). This difference was not statistically significant: t(42) = -.391, p = .698, d = .120.

With regard to *Ratio of three- and more than three-turn topic development*, there were no outliers, as assessed by an examination of studentized residuals for values greater than ± 3. The data were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test: for the experimental group, W = .915, p = .067, and the control group, W = .977, p = .856. There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances (p = .220). The ratio in the experimental group was larger (0.40 ± 0.29) than the control group (0.37 ± 0.20). This difference was not statistically significant, t(42) = .391, p = .698, d = .120.

For *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development* had no outliers, as assessed by an examination of studentized residuals for values greater than ± 3. The data were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test: for the experimental group, W = .919, p = .084, and the control group, W = .931, p = .114. There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances (p = .775). The ratio in the experimental group was smaller (0.18 ± 0.14) than the control group (0.21 ± 0.14). This difference was not statistically significant, t(42) = -.633, p = .530, d = .214.

Thus, the analysis indicated that there were no initial differences between the two groups in terms of levels of interaction. In the sections below, the results of the analysis of the four variables are reported individually.

4.3.3 Differences in the interactional patterns between the experimental and control groups

4.3.3.1 Single-turn topic development

Table 4.12 shows descriptive statistics for *Ratio of one-turn topic development.* In order to determine whether there were differences between the two groups over time, a mixed model ANOVA was run with time as a within-subjects factor and group as a between-subjects variable. There were no outliers (in any cell of the design), as assessed by an examination of studentized residuals for values greater than ± 3. The data (i.e. the *Ratio of one-turn topic development* in every cell of the design) were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Table 4.13). There was homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) and covariances ($p = .639 > .05$), as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances and Box's M test, respectively. Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity was met for two-way interaction, $\chi^2(2) = .469$, $p = .791$. There was a statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time for the ratio of one turn, $F(2, 84) = 3.350$, $p = .040 < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .074$. This indicated that the change in *Ratio of one-turn topic development* in the experimental group was significantly different from the change in the control group.

Table 4.12 Ratio of one-turn topic development

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental	Mean	.41	.47	.25
(21 dyads)	SD	.22	.18	.22
Control	Mean	.41	.37	.33
(23 dyads)	SD	.22	.18	.24

Table 4.13 Test of normality
(Ratio of one-turn topic development)

Session	Group	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
1	Experimental	.962	21	.552
	Control	.977	23	.841
2	Experimental	.922	21	.097
	Control	.966	23	.594
3	Experimental	.912	21	.061
	Control	.960	23	.467

To investigate the exact nature of the interaction effect, a series of follow-up mixed model ANOVAs was conducted. First, I compared *Ratio of one-turn topic development* for the two groups for Session 1 compared to Session 2. There was no statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time on *Ratio of one-turn topic development*: $F(1, 42) = 2.116$, $p = .153$, $\eta^2 = .048$. Next, I compared *Ratio of one-turn topic development* for the two groups for Session 2 compared to Session 3. The result indicated a statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time for *Ratio of one-turn topic development*: $F(1, 42) = 6.512$, $p = .014$, $\eta^2 = .134$. This indicated that the change in the ratio from Sessions 2-3 was significantly different for the two groups. Finally, I compared *Ratio of one-turn topic development* for the two groups for Session 3 compared to Session 1. There was no statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time for *Ratio of one-turn topic development*: $F(1, 42) = 1.358$, $p = .250$, $\eta^2 = .031$. In sum, the results indicated that *Ratio of one-turn topic development* significantly decreased in the experimental group from Sessions 2-3, compared to the control group, while there was no difference in the change in the ratio between the groups from Sessions 1-2, nor in Session 3 compared to Session 1.

These results were predicted. As the learners may have become more aware of the co-constructive nature of interaction, they were expected to respond to their interlocutors by using more recycling and extending moves, which are an index of mutuality. *One-way topic development* signifies no interaction in a dyad. Therefore the ratio was expected to decrease. Another point is that, as in some aspects of the general characteristics, it took time for the awareness activities to exert an effect. One more point is the high ratio of one-turn topics for both groups in Session 1 (M = .41). These figures may reveal some of the characteristics of the original communication style of the learners in this study.

4.3.3.2 One- and *Two-turn topic development*

Table 4.14 shows descriptive statistics for *Ratio of one-* and *two-turn topic development.* In order to investigate the differences between the two groups over time, a mixed model ANOVA was run. There were no outliers, as assessed by an examination of studentized residuals for value's greater than ±3. The data was normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Table 4.15). There were homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) and covariances ($p = .131 > .05$), as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances and Box's M test, respectively. Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity was met for two-way interaction, $\chi^2(2) = .311$, $p = .856$. There was no statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time for the ratio of one and two- turns, $F(2, 84) = 2.005$, $p = .141$, *partial* $\eta^2 = .046$. This indicated that the change in this ratio over the sessions was similar for both groups. This suggests that the awareness-raising activities did not affect *Ratio of one-* and *two-turn topic development*.

Table 4.14 Ratio of one- and two-turn topic development

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental	Mean	.60	.65	.46
(21 dyads)	SD	.29	.17	.27
Control	Mean	.63	.63	.59
(23 dyads)	SD	.20	.20	.22

Table 4.15 Test of Normality
(Ratio of one- and two-turn topic development)

Session	Group	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
1	Experimental	.915	21	.067
	Control	.977	23	.856
2	Experimental	.985	21	.979
	Control	.946	23	.240
3	Experimental	.972	21	.773
	Control	.956	23	.388

This result was not unpredicted. Both groups were thought to continue to employ *One-* and *Two-turn topic development* to a considerable degree, possibly for different reasons, and that there was unlikely to be any significant difference between the groups. This expectation came partly from the high initial ratio of this one-way interaction (around 60%) for both groups. If this was part of their original communication style, change would not be easy. Another reason, which could apply especially to the experimental group, was related to the pressure to complete the task (Nakahama et al., 2001). In Pilot 2, some learners had reported that they had rapidly picked new topics so as to move on the discussion and complete the task. It is understandable the learners in the experimental group used this device because of the intrinsic pressure of a three-minute task activity when they had already spent some time on a single topic. Qualitative analysis of interactions and the learners' answers to the questionnaires was

expected to verify this conjecture.

4.3.3.3 Three- and more than three-turn topic development

Descriptive statistics for *Ratio of three- and more than three-turn topic development* are shown in Table 4.16. In order to investigate the differences in change over the three sessions, a mixed model ANOVA was applied. There were no outliers, as assessed by an examination of studentized residuals for value's greater than ±3. The data was normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Table 4.17). There was homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) and covariances ($p = .131 > .05$), as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances and Box's M test, respectively. Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity was met for two-way interaction, $\chi^2(2) = .311$, $p = .856$. There was no statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time for the ratio: $F(2, 84) = 2.005$, $p = .141$, *partial η^2* = .046. This indicated that the awareness-raising activities did not affect *Ratio of three and more than three-turn topic development.*

Table 4.16 Ratio of three- and more than three-turn topic development

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental	Mean	.40	.35	.54
(21 dyads)	SD	.29	.17	.27
Control	Mean	.37	.37	.41
(23 dyads)	SD	.20	.20	.22

Table 4.17 Test of normality
(Ratio of three- and more than three-turn topic development)

Session	Group	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
1	Experimental	.915	21	.067
	Control	.977	23	.856
2	Experimental	.985	21	.979
	Control	.946	23	.240
3	Experimental	.972	21	.773
	Control	.956	23	.388

These results were not expected. Three-turn topic development is regarded as a threshold for minimal two-way interaction. As such, it was initially expected that *Ratio of three- and more than three turns* in the experimental group would become significantly higher over time relative to the control group. For the unexpected results, a comparison between the results of analysis of the *Ratio of three- and more than three-turn topic development* and the *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development* (see next section) may provide an explanation. Three turns and four turns are regarded as thresholds for minimal two-way interaction and developed two-way interaction respectively. It seems that there exists a larger gap between three turns and four turns than is generally accepted. In three-turn topic development, that is (speaker) A→B→A interaction, each of the speakers A and B respond to their interlocutor once. A typical example of this is an interview, in which Speaker A asks a question, B answers it, and A responds with a comment. Here Speaker A's interactional style is that of an other-oriented speaker (Itakura, 2002) and they take a "floor-supporting" role, which is something associated with Japanese female learners (Norton, 2005, p. 294). In the light of this, this type of interaction could easily be taken by learners in either group in this study. Three-turn topic development is indeed a two-way interaction, but it would not

necessarily require enhanced mutuality to carry it out. This could be a factor for the lack of significance in the change between the two groups in *Ratio of three- and more than three-turn topic development.* A close examination of interaction through qualitative analysis was expected to uncover the nature of three-turn topic development.

4.3.3.4 Four- and more than four-turn topic development

Table 4.18 shows descriptive statistics for *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development.* In order to determine whether there were differences between the two groups over time, a mixed model ANOVA was run. There were no outliers, as assessed by an examination of studentized residuals for values greater than ± 3. The data was normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Table 4.19). There was homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) and covariances ($p = .786 > .05$), as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances and Box's M test, respectively. Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity was met for two-way interaction, $\chi^2(2) = 1.945$, $p = .378$. There was a statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time for *Ratio of four- and more than four turns*, $F(2, 84) = 3.319$, $p = .041$, *partial η^2* $= .073$. This indicated that the change in the *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development* in the experimental group was significantly different from the change in the control group.

Table 4.18 Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development

Group		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Experimental	Mean	.18	.20	.32
(21 dyads)	SD	.14	.13	.22
Control	Mean	.21	.21	.20
(23 dyads)	SD	.14	.15	.16

Table 4.19 Test of normality
(Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development)

Session	Group	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
1	Experimental	.919	21	.084
	Control	.931	23	.114
2	Experimental	.928	21	.128
	Control	.941	23	.189
3	Experimental	.949	21	.327
	Control	.915	23	.053

To investigate the exact nature of the interaction effect, a series of follow-up mixed model ANOVAs was conducted. First, I compared *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development* for the two groups for Session 1 compared to Session 2. There was no statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time on the ratio: $F(1, 42) = .168$, $p = .684$. $\eta^2 = .048$. Next, I compared the ratio for the two groups for Session 2 compared to Session 3. The result indicated that there was statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time on *Ratio of four- and more than four turns*, $F(1, 42) = 4.264$, $p = .045$, $\eta^2 = .092$. This indicated that the change in the ratio from Sessions 2-3 was significantly different for the two groups. Finally, I compared the ratios for the two groups for Session 3 compared to Session 1. The results indicated a statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time for *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development*: $F(1, 42) = 4.764$, $p = .035$, $\eta^2 = .031$. This indicated that the change in the ratios from Sessions 1-3 was significantly different for the two groups. In sum, whereas there was no significant difference in the change of *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development* between the two groups from Sessions 1-2, the ratio increased more markedly in the experimental group than in the control group in Session 3 as compared to Session 2 and

Session 1.

These results were expected. Four- turn topics are the threshold for a developed two-way interaction. If mutuality was fully enhanced in interaction through the awareness-raising activities, the learners would respond to each other by using more responding moves such as recycling and extending moves. This would lead to greater frequency of multiple-turn topics in interaction. The results are consistent with the other findings in that the effect of the awareness-raising activities was not immediate but took time to exert their influence.

4.4 Summary of the quantitative analysis findings

To address the first research question, to investigate the effect of the awareness-raising activities on the learners' interactional patterns, quantitative analysis of the learners' interactions before and after interventions was carried out. First, the changes in the general characteristics of the learners' discourses were compared between the experimental and control groups. Then the changes in the patterns of topic management were analysed.

With regard to the general characteristics, five variables were examined: (1) *Total number of words in dialogue,* (2) *Ratio of words within a dyad*, (3) *Turns in dialogue*, (4) *Number of topics in dialogue,* and (5) *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad*. The results of a Mann-Whitney U test indicated the following significant differences between the groups:

● The experimental group produced significantly more words than the control group in Session 3 compared to Session 1.

● The experimental group produced significantly more turns in dialogue than the control group in Session 3 compared to Session 2.

● The experimental group produced significantly more turns in dialogue than the control group in Session 3 compared to Session 1.

These findings indicate that the awareness-raising activities may have affected the amount of talk and the number of turns in the learners' interaction. The results further suggest that the enhancement of mutuality and the increased awareness in the interlocutor's dual speaker-listener roles are potential underlying factors. No statistically significant differences were found between the groups for *Ratio of words within a dyad* and *Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad,* which are related to the dimension of equality in interaction.

With regard to the patterns of topic development, this study focused on the evolution of topics based on the view that the number of turns in a topical sequence reflects the degree of joint interaction. The following four variables were examined: (1) *Ratio of one-turn topic development*; (2) *Ratio of one-* and *two-turn topic development*; (3) *Ratio of three-* and *more than three-turn topic development*; and (4) *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development*. The results of a series of mixed model ANOVAs indicated the following significant differences between the groups:

● *Ratio of one-turn topic development* significantly decreased in the experimental group compared to the control group from Sessions 2-3.

● *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development* significantly increased in the experimental group compared to the control group from Sessions 2-3.

- *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development* significantly increased in the experimental group compared to the control group in Session 3 as compared to Session 1.

These findings indicate that the awareness-raising activities may have affected *Ratio of one-turn topic development*, which signifies no interaction and *Ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development,* which indicates developed two-way interaction. The results further suggest that mutuality may have been enhanced, which led to a decrease in the ratio of no interaction and an increase in developed two-way interaction.

These findings of the quantitative analyses suggest that the awareness-raising activities may have enhanced mutuality in interaction, but they did not affect equality in the learners' interaction in terms of distribution of talk and topic initiation. They also indicate that effects of the activities took time to exert their influence. In order to investigate the features of these changes, a qualitative analysis was conducted by closely examining the learners' discourses.

Chapter 5

Findings and Discussion: Qualitative Analyses

This chapter goes deeper into the first research question by discussing the results of the qualitative analysis of the learners' interaction before and after the interventions. Next comes the discussion of the results of a qualitative analysis of the learners' replies to the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* which aimed to explore the second research question: the learners' awareness development and perceptions of their topic management. The rest of the chapter addresses the third research question by discussing the results of a qualitative analysis of the learners' replies to the *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group),* which aimed to establish the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities from the learners' perspective. The results of the analysis of the *Exit Questionnaire (Control Group)* are also presented.

5.1 Effect of the awareness-raising activities on the learners' topic management

5.1.1 Qualitative investigation of the first research question

The first research question, which investigates the effect of the awareness-raising activities on the learners' interactional patterns, was initially analysed quantitatively and then addressed qualitatively, employing methods drawn from Conversation Analysis (CA). The following sections discuss the analysis of six dialogues, two each selected from three dyads. The dialogues were selected from interactions before and after the two interventions (i.e. Sessions 1 and 3). This was because quantitative analysis

indicated that the awareness-raising activities took time to exert their influence. Some reflections from these dyads are also referred to here (Sections 5.2 and 5.3 deal with the learners' reflections as a group). Although the excerpts present only a small part of the interactions from the data set, they were chosen because they were regarded as representative of the changes that occurred.

5.1.2 Salient features of changes in the learners' topic management

5.1.2.1 Pair 1

Pair 1 (J1 and J2) has, as their general characteristics, asymmetrical features within the dyad in terms of quantity of talk and topic initiation throughout the sessions. Excerpt [5-1] shows how this dyad's members initiated and developed their topics while engaging with their interlocutor's ideas when they worked on their first task in Session 1. In this task, they were discussing which photograph stood out as special. Newly introduced topics are underlined and in bold. An arrow highlights the point of analysis.

Excerpt [5-1]   (Task A -- Photographs Task)

1 J2:   J1, um, I think (.) in the photograph I think the **wedding** picture (.)
   J1:   Mmm.
   J2:   is most uh, special (.) because one of the (.) one of the most precious
         time for the (1) family is the wedding I think.
2 J1:→ I think that picture, **climbing** is the most special because the
         moment is only once (.)
   J2:   Mmm.
   J1:   so it is one time in the life ((laughs))
   J2:   Mmm.
   J1:   so I think so.
   J2:   I see
   J1:   Mmm.

3 J2: → I think (.) yeah, I think those picture of the **running** (.)

she is trying to goal (.)

J1:   Mmm.

J2:   is special too (.)

J1:   Mmm.

J2:   because um (1) I used to be the track field (.) I used to enjoy the

track (.) track and field, and I used to run like those (.)

J1:   Mmm.

J2:   50 metres or so (.) so yeah, that moment I like too.

4 J1: → And maybe she is (.) uh (.) she don't think (.) uh (1) she is taken

picture.

J2:   Ahh.

J1:   So it is special and it is different (.)

J2:   Mmm.

J1:   from other pictures I think ((laughs)).

5 J2: → Mmm (.) and yeah (.) let me think about the other pictures (.)

J1:   Mmm.

J2:   and the picture of the **baby** (.) he (.) he or she just born.

J1:   Mmm.

J2:   It's (1) special one too (.) because it's the first picture that he's ever going

to taken (.)

J1:   Mmm.

J2:   ever taken (.) so (1) the picture of baby is very special (.)

J1:   Mmm I think so.

J2:   Mmm (.) maybe (.)

(Pair 1: 1st task in Session 1)

This dialogue consists of three single-turn topic sequences (*wedding*, *climbing*, and *baby)* and one two-turn topic sequence (*running*) over five turns. The dyad's opening exchange was typical, in Galaczi's (2004, 2008) term, of *parallel interaction.* The dyads worked on "separate tracks of topic development" (Galaczi, 2004, p. 154). The interaction then gradually took on *asymmetrical* features in terms of distribution of talk and topic initiation within the dyad.

These learners' way of introducing a topic was abrupt and showed little connection with the prior turn. They simply started a new topic, saying "I think…". However, both learners built on their topic without being asked. In so doing, they exclusively used informatives (Itakura, 2002). While the dyad generally supported their topic with a general reason, J2 used her experience to develop her second topic*, running*. Although providing personal experience through a chain of informatives is often associated with a self-oriented communication style (Itakura, 2002), J2's informatives in this excerpt did not develop.

Now let us turn to how Pair 1 engaged with one another's ideas. Three out of four topics were single-turn topics, which immediately indicated the dyad's poor engagement with one another's subject. Indeed, both speakers failed to take up opportunities to extend their topics: after the interlocutor's building moves, each quickly closed the topic by introducing a new one. The only example of an other-initiated topic extension was provided in Turn 4 when J1 gave a second reason for the special importance of the picture of *running*. However, to this contribution from her partner, J2 made the only "pro-forma" link (Galaczi, 2008, p. 103) "and yeah", before introducing a new topic. Although both dyad members provided frequent listener support using back-channelling, it was mostly restricted to "mmm" and lacked variety. An active listener role, such as confirmation of comprehension, was rare. These features indicate low mutuality between the dyad.

Now let us see Pair 1's final task performance, in which they were discussing which type of shopping might be the most popular in the future (Excerpt [5-2]).

Excerpt [5-2]   (Task E -- Future Shopping Task)
  1 J2:   In future I think the buying (.) using **the Internet** to buy the buy

the (1) internet for the (.) to do the shopping is (.) will be the most
popular way (.)

J1:   Mmm.

J2:   because we use internet often nowadays.

2 J1:→ Mm. I think so (.) and (1) she use the=

J2:→ =Credit card

J1:   credit card. It is (1) become more popular in the future I think.

J2:   Mmm.

J1:   Mmm. It is very useful.

J2:   Uh huh (1) Mmm. Yes.

J1:   Mm

3 J2:→ Yeah (.) but (1) we still there (.) there will be still the **shopping
malls** (.)

J1:   Mmm.

J2:   and shopping malls will be the popular way to shop because people
can choose (.) they can see the actual items (.)

J1:   Mm.

J2:   before they buy things so (1) the shopping centre still remains (.) will
still remains in the future too (1) I think.

4 J1:   Mm. Me too (.) and maybe the shopping mall become more big (.) bigger
in the future (.) because if there're so many shops (.)

J2:   Mmm.

J1:   we can choose a shop and the items goods (.) so it is very useful (.) and
very convenient.

J2:   Mmm.

J1:   Yes (.)

5 J2:→ Mmm (.) but I don't think the shopping centre becomes bigger.

6 J1:→ Why?

7 J2:   Because I think in the future they just uh show the examples in the shop
and (1) people, people use the (.) use internet to buy (.) to (.) to (1) actual
items (1) the shop they just have the examples (.)

J1: Mmm.

J2: and like they (.) if somebody wants something they just (.) they just uh use the internet to (2) get the (.) get the items when they need it=

J1:→ =Oh okay (.)

J2: so they don't need much space in the shopping centre (.) so (1)

8 J1:→ So (.) people use the internet (.) and uh before they buy (.) buy online, they see the uh actual item in the shop (.) so (.) we need both ways of shopping (.) in the future.

9 J2: Mmm. that's (.) yeah, that's close. Like.

              (Pair 1: penultimate task in Session 3)

This dialogue consists of one two-turn topic sequence (*the internet*) and one more than four-turn topic sequence (*shopping malls*) over nine turns. The appearance of the multi-turn topic sequence suggests features of co-constructed interaction did emerge in their interaction.

All topics were introduced by J2. Instead of introducing a new topic out of the blue, which was the dayd's initial way, J2 made her topic shift with the word "but" (Turn 3), a common discourse marker used for topic initiation (Dings, 2007). Further, a cohesive link using the word "still" contributed to the interactional flow. Regarding J2's building move, she supported her topic by using informatives (Itakura, 2002) exclusively, as the dyad had initially done. It seems that there was no substantial change in either quantity or quality.

Regarding the dyad's engagement with one another's ideas, unlike the limited engagement in their first task, the dyad's performance displays increased mutuality and some collaborative features of topic development. This is illustrated in their exchange over the second topic, *shopping malls*. This topic sequence consists of initiation, building, extending, and recycling moves over seven turns. J2 introduced the new topic

and built on it, giving a reason for this. J1 produces, in Lam's term (2018), a "contingent response" to J2's contribution. To this, J2 expressed her disagreement. J1 prompted J2 to explain by asking, "Why?". Lastly, J1 summed up the discussion, with which J2 broadly agreed. This exchange illustrates how the dyad learned to co-construct interaction and push the discussion further. A further sign of collaboration is in the alignment activity (Dings, 2007, 2014), specifically in the dyad's collaborative completion of the sentence (Turn 2). These features mark a sharp contrast to their first task performance. The analysis suggests that these changes may have come from each learner's close monitoring of what their partner was saying. This may explain why they could manage to complete a sentence together (Turn 2), express disagreement (Turn 5), offer prompts for elaboration (Turn 6), and indicate an explanation was understood (Turn 7), without any delays.

Despite signs of collaborative features, Pair 1's interactions continued to show asymmetrical features within the dyad in terms of quantity of talk and topic initiation. How did the learners perceive this feature? Regarding the amount of talk, J1 commented in the *Exit Questionnaire* that she was shocked to see how little she had spoken in the first task activity, so she made efforts to increase her talk and reported perceiving some progress. Regarding topic initiation, the written feedback indicates that both learners were aware of the level of their contribution. J1 commented, in the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire*, that she did not change the topic in Session 1 because she was passive, but in Session 3 she said that she did not perceive any need to change the topic because they were having a lively conversation. On the other hand, J2 commented that she often made quick topic shifts because she was eager to express her opinion. In the *Exit Questionnaire*, J2 reported finding herself making too little response to her partner's

ideas and just moving to her new topic, so she deliberately tried to engage with her partner's ideas by agreeing or disagreeing with her, and she said she felt a difference. These learners' comments are consistent with the researcher's analysis. Yet, they did not reveal how the dyad actually perceived the distribution of labour, especially concerning their contribution to topic initiation.

Now let us move to another pair's interactions.

5.1.2.2 Pair 10

Pair 10 (J19 and J20) show, as their general characteristics, an imbalanced distribution of talk within the dyad and low (participatory) dominance (Itakura, 2001). Excerpt [5-3] shows their interaction before the interventions. The dyad was discussing which activity was likely to be the most popular with people who do not usually take much exercise.

Excerpt [5-3]   (Task B -- Sports Task)

  1 J20: Uh (.) and which (3) is the most popular among people who don't usually
       →do much exercise? How do you think? (3) um

  2 J19: Okay (.) I think (.5) I understand the meaning of the question (1)

      J20: Mmm.

      J19:→Um (3) Yeah. Um (.) I think (.) the **right down (.) lower picture** (.)

      J20: Mmm.

      J19: there are a few women (.) dance (.) um doing some exercise (.)

      J20: Mmm.

      J19: this is the most popular (.)

      J20: Mmm.

      J19: because it is so easy (.) to do.

      J20: Mmm. Mmm.

      J19: Anyone can do this (.) even children, or the elder people (3)

      J20:→Mmm. (3)

J19: →Yes. How about you?

3 J20: Um (2) I think **this** is popular too.

J19: Mmm.

J20: I think swimming (.)

J19: Oh.

J20: in the middle (.)

J19: Okay

J20: is also most popular because I (.) I was not good at (.) um doing sports (.) at all (.)

J19: Uh huh.

J20: but I went to the swimming school and I (3) um and gradually I could swim like any pattern (.) so um it is um it is such um exciting thing to me (.)

J19: Uh huh.

J20: I don't like sports using balls (.) ball sports ((laugh))

J19: Me too ((laugh))

J20: but swimming is um (3) yes, quite um interesting and easy to me.

J19: Mmm.

J20: So I think it's (.) most people (.) Also elderly people (.) can walk in the pool (.)

J19: Uh huh.

J20: →and children also can swim easily so (.) yes (3).

4 J19: uh huh (.) yeah other picture are little difficult (.) Especially the **tennis** picture is to the (.) ordinary people. (3) uh huh.

J20: Yes.

(Pair 10: penultimate task in Session 1)

This dialogue consists of three single-turn topic sequences (*exercise, swimming,* and *tennis*) over four turns. The pattern of interaction resembles '"solo' versus 'solo' interaction'" (Galaczi, 2008, p. 102), with each dyad member focusing on initiating and

developing their own topic as if they were on separate tracks. However, frequent long pauses between turns indicate low conversational dominance in the interaction.

With regard to Pair 10's topic shifts, the dyad introduced a new topic by pointing to the pictures saying, for example, "right down (.) lower picture" (Turn 2). This indicates that the learners had little trouble introducing the topics. The ways of introducing the first two topics did not sound abrupt because the first topic (*exercise*) was initiated in the opening exchange and the second topic, (*swimming*) was made in response to J19's prompting move, "How about you?". The last topic, *tennis*, was introduced by J19 after giving a pro-forma topic ratification "yeah". Regarding the pair's building moves, as in Pair 1's first interaction, the dyad supported their topics with general reasons and personal experience, but again these were not fully extended across turns.

As indicated by the absence of any multi-turn topic sequences, this interaction is characterized by low mutuality. There are always long pauses between turns, but none of the opportunities for topic extensions were taken up and each time the new topic was closed. Despite the occasional use of a confirmation of comprehension (e.g. okay), the listener roles tended to be limited to softly spoken back-channelling such as mmm and huh.

Now let us examine Pair 10's interaction in Session 3 in Excerpt [5-4]. They were working on Future Shopping Task.

Excerpt [5-4]   (Task E -- Future Shopping Task)
1 J20: Uh (.) these are the pictures of ways of shopping styles in the future. Which do you think will be most, most popular way to shop?
2 J19: Most popular way (3).
   J20: Mm.

J19: Mm. I think of course the (.) **internet shopping** is (.) popular even now so I think in the future this way is most popular. Yeah.

J20: Mm.

J19: →What do you think about that?

3 J20: →Yes, I definitely think internet shopping is the most popular even now, uh, because (.) even we stay in (.) inside the house, we can buy anything with one click and uh, if you have a credit card, uh, you can (.) you can buy anything, (.) and (.) and (.) for example, I usually use Amazon=

J19: →=Me too.

J20: Yes (.) it deliver, it delivers the items within (1) I think four days or so (.)

4 J19: →Yeah. It's usually very quick. Very convenient

J20: Yes.

J19: and they are not so expensive (.) Reasonably cheap.

5 J20: →Yes. So (3) other, mm, other things (3) but also, the **supermarket** is necessary for us (.) especially for food (.)

J19: Yeah.

J20: →uh, we can't buy food on internet, isn't it?

6 J19: →Yeah, there is the some services, uh of delivery food service, but we can buy food in very near places, so I choose the (.)

J20: Mm.

J19: direct way to get at the supermarket.

7 J20: Yes (.) and if you want the fresh food or fruit, and also fish or meat, we can't buy on the internet so (.) we sometimes we ask the shop staff to which to buy and they recommend it to how to cook with the items so it is very (.) mm (.) convenient and necessary for in the future, even in the future I think it is necessary (.)

J19: Mm.

J20: for us.

8 J19: →Yeah I agree (.) we can ask (.) at the supermarket (.) they know which is fresh (.) and uh cheap (2) and we can learn how to cook (.) some food.

J20: Mm (.) yeah (.)

J19: →**Other pictures**, mmm market (.) and using phone uh (.)

(Pair 10: penultimate task in Session 3)

This dialogue consisted of, in practice, one three-turn topic sequence (*internet shopping*) that signifies minimal two-way communication and one four-turn topic sequence (*supermarket*) that can be regarded as the threshold for developed two-way interaction. Despite the imbalanced distribution of talk between the dyad, this interaction indicated signs of collaboration.

With regard to Pair 10's ways of introducing a topic, J20's use of cohesive links to the previous turn with the words, "other things" and "but also" (Turn 5) stands out. This device spared the learner from making her topic shift abrupt. Pair 10's substantial change, however, is manifest in their building moves. Whereas informatives were used exclusively in Session 1, elicit: informs and elicit: agrees (Itakura, 2002) were added in their final session. The use of elicit: informs (J19's *"What do you think about that?"* in Turn 2) and elicit: agrees (J 20's *"uh, we can't buy food on internet, isn't it?"* in Turn 5) indicate the learners' efforts to involve each other in the interaction. These moves have features of an other-oriented communication style (Itakura, 2002), which benefits the speaker, too by allowing them to expand their topic with their partner's support. Note that the question *"What do you think about **that**?"* differs significantly in its effect on the life of the topic from Pair 10's customary question "How about you?" in earlier sessions.

The collaborative elements of the dyad's interaction were most obvious in their other-initiated topic expansion. When there was a request for involvement, each interlocutor helped the other to develop their topic: J20 supported her partner's choice of *Internet shopping* by providing a number of different reasons to shop in this way (Turn 3); and J19 provided strong listener support by adding her comment (Turn 6) and extending J20's ideas about *the supermarket* (Turn 8). These features make a marked

contrast to limited other-initiated topic extension and awkward silences between the turns observed in Session 1. In Session 3 the dyad appeared to be ready to engage with each other's ideas through close monitoring, which was also demonstrated in J19's timely back-channelling, "Me, too" (Turn 3). These features indicate the growth of enhanced mutuality between the dyad.

Now let us turn to some of the dyad's reflections. Low dominance is a general characteristic of their interaction, which was manifest in the long pauses between turns in Session 1. J19 commented, in the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire*: "my partner asked my opinion first in the opening exchange, so I gave my opinion; then I thought it was her turn, so I said 'How about you?' and waited." J19 also wrote (in the *Exit Questionnaire*) that she tried to change the pattern of each offering their thoughts in turn into an exchange of opinions. As a result, she reported that she found herself putting her points briefly and asking for her partner's ideas. The dyad's attitude to listening to their partner without interrupting them in Session 1 may have evolved into co-construction when they solicited their partner's engagement in the topic in progress. J20's commented in the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire*: "I just talked one-sidedly without thinking about involving my partner (Session 1)…; I tried to involve my partner by asking a question (Session 2)…; after I gave the reason for my choice, I asked my partner whether she agreed with me (Session 3)."

Now let us turn to one more pair's interactions before and after the interventions.

5.1.2.3 Pair 19

Pair 19 (J37 and J38) show, as their general characteristics, frequent use of questions, natural turn-taking with relatively rapid speaker change, and use of various forms of

back-channelling.

Excerpt [5-5] shows Pair 19's interaction in their first task activity. They were working on the Photographs Task.

Excerpt [5-5]   (Task A -- Photographs Task)

1 J38: The theme is which photograph do you consider to be the most special? which do you think?

   J37: Mmmm (2)

   J38:→I think this **wedding** photograph.

2 J37: Why?

3 J38: Because now I really, really want to marry ((laugh))

   J37: ((laugh))

   J38: And she is really beautiful in this dress I think (.) which do you think?

4 J37: Mmm I (2) it's difficult ((laugh))

   J38: Yes it is difficult (.) Mmm (.)

   J37:→Mmm (.) I think **this**?

   J38: This?=

   J37: =is special (2).

5 J38: Why?

6 J37: It's because our life (.) graduate from college yes, next year ((laugh)) very soon mmm ((laugh))

7 J38: So you want to graduate from college? ((laugh))

8 J37: Yes ((laugh)) and I want to take pictures (.) I take by iPhone.

9 J38:→Ah yes. ((laugh)) I think **this** is really cute. Yeah. A picture of a baby (.) he is yaw (.) yawning. I think this is a very special for the parents (.) I love baby ((laugh))=

   J37:→=((laugh)) Mmm (2)

   J38:→This is (.) **climbing mountain** (.) I think this is special, too.

   J37:→Mm, maybe. ((laugh)) (3).

   J38:→Do you like climbing?

10 J37: No ((laugh)) I have never climbed the mountain.

11 J38: I have climbed it for three times.

   J37: Really? ((laugh))=

J38: =((laugh)) It's really difficult but I could see many beautiful sceneries
and I took pictures (.) so hmm (.)

J37: ((laugh))

<div align="right">(Pair 19: 1st task in Session 1)</div>

This dialogue consists of one single-turn topic sequence (*baby*), two three-turn topic sequences (*wedding* and *climbing*) and one more than four-turn topic sequence (*graduation*) over eleven turns. Compared to the other dyads' interactions in Session 1, the number of turns and the ratio of multi-turn topics were much higher in this dialogue.

The dyad made four topic introductions, none of which was stepwise (Sacks, 1992). The last two topic shifts made by J38 were quite abrupt: one with the pro-forma topic ratification "Ah yes" and the other without even this much (Turn 9). Regarding building moves, J37 did not make any. However, when asked "Why?", she gave reasons. Nor did J38 build on her first topic (*wedding*). However, she built on her second topic (*baby*), offering a general reason through informatives and she used elicit: informs to develop her third topic (*climbing mountains*), "Do you like climbing?" (Turn 9). In acting like this, J38 seemed to play the role of an expert encouraging her partner to take part after her partner had failed to take up a number of prior opportunities (Turns 9).

Let us turn to how Pair 19 engaged with each other's ideas. The presence of three multi-turn topics suggests high mutuality but it does not necessarily guarantee what Damon and Phelps' (1989) refer to as enhanced mutuality, rich reciprocal feedback or idea sharing. Indeed, Excerpt [5-5] offers little other-initiated topic expansion. Regarding the first topic (*wedding*), J38 introduced the topic, then J37 asked "Why?", and J38 explained. Although this is apparently an exchange consisting of initiation, an extending move, and another extending move, what is happening here is that, at the request for more information from her partner ("Why?"), J38 is developing *her own*

topic. The next exchange (Turns 4-6) has the same pattern but with the roles switched. The only exception is J38's question "So you want to graduate from college?" (Turn 7), which encouraged her partner to develop her topic. Despite little other-initiated topic extension, the dyad provided each other with strong listener support through various forms of back-channelling such as a *non-word*, *short words*, *repetition*, and *laughter* (Negishi, 2002).

Now let us examine Pair 19's final interaction. In Excerpt [5-6], the dyad was discussing which activities were likely to be most popular with people of all ages.

Excerpt [5-6]   (Task F -- Activities Task)

1   J38:   Which activity do you think would be most popular with people of
             all ages?

J37:   All ages?

J38:   All ages ((laugh)) (2) **karaoke** I think

J37:   Mmm (.)

J38:   Mmm (.) for example (.) when I go to (.) sakura festival (.)

J37:   Mmm

J38:   many senior people do karaoke (.) under the sakura (.) cherry
             blossom

J37:   Mmm

J38:   Mmm (.) my grandfather and grandmother likes it very much (.) so
             maybe it's really popular in senior ages.

2   J37:→Mmm mmm I think this **bird watching** (.)

J38:   Mmm

J37:   it (.) karaoke or dancing ah some people are not good at that (.)

J38:   Ah

J37:   I think

J38:   Yes

J37:   but it's not only skills but I (.) um also I think these are tough for
             →older people (.) for older people (.) They=

J38:→=Can't do that (laugh)

J37:   so I think birdwatching is most pop (.) popular for all ages (.) I think.

3 J38:→Yeah (.) I see (.) but in the spring festival seniors were not good at **karaoke**

   J37: ((laugh))

   J38: but they really, really enjoy it

   J37: Enjoy it (.) I see

   J38: Yeah ((laugh))

   J37: Mmm

   J38: I was surprised greatly ((laugh))

4 J37: Um (.) but I am not good at standing in front of (.) many people (.)

   J38: Ah many people

   J37: or singing in front of many people (.)

   J38: Mmm

   J37: so (.) there are some people (.) not good at standing in front of many people ((laugh))

   J38: Mmm

   J37: So (.) yes (.)

5 J38:→Recently I heard that many people go to the karaoke alone one person (.)

   J37: one person ((laugh))

   J38: yeah, only one person=

   J37: =person

   J38: Yes.

6 J37: I once went to *hitori* karaoke one person ((laugh))

   J38: =((laugh))

   J37: once, one time (.) but I did not enjoy.

7 J38:→Ah really? Why?

8 J37: ((laugh)) I am not good at singing in front of other people but (.)

   J38: Mmm

   J37: singing with friends is more (.) fun (.)

   J38: Ah

   J37: I think

9 J38:→Ah yeah (.) I see (.) so with friends (.)=

10 J37:→=yes, exciting (.) so people of all ages (.)

(Pair 19: last task in Session 3)

This dialogue consists of one single-turn topic sequence (*bird watching*) and one

more than four-turn topic sequence (*karaoke*) over ten turns. Unlike in their first interaction, the dyad's final task performance reveals both dyad members' goal-oriented communication style (Young & Milanovic, 1992), and at the same time emerging signs of a "joint discourse" (Galaczi, 2014, p. 569).

As in their first task, J38 played the role of, in Kasper's (2004, p. 557) terms, "interaction manager" and initiated the sequence. She offered her partner the floor, but as had happened in Session 1, J37 did not take up the invitation. This led to J38's topic introduction, *karaoke*. She built on her topic with her experience, referring to her grandparents. This was followed by J37's topic shift, *bird watching*. This topic shift at first appeared abrupt because of no pro-forma link to the prior turn. She just said, "Mmm mmm I think this …" (Turn 2). However, in her building move J37 supported her choice by comparing her new topic with her partner's prior subject, *karaoke*. Thus, there was a connection between J37's topic initiation and the prior turn. As soon as J37's building move ended, the first topic *karaoke* was again taken up by J38 (Turn 3). This is an appending move. In doing so, J38 gave only a pro-forma topic ratification, "Yeah (.) I see (.) but…" . However, there was a connection with the prior turn because J38 supported her choice, *karaoke*, by refuting what her partner had said. Thus, the analysis indicates that the dyad's topic initiating and self-initiated topic extension had been strategic.

The dyad's ways of engaging with each other's ideas were in sharp contrast to their limited other-initiated topic expansion in their first task. The features of expert/novice interactional pattern had disappeared soon after the opening exchange. Both dyad members were goal-oriented in pursuing their topic. However, they were also attentive to what the other was saying. Their extending moves displayed their ability to

understand accurately what the other was saying and to introduce something new in relation to it. For example, J37's comment "but I am not good at standing in front of (.) many people…" shows that she understood that her (claimed) points had been refuted by her partner and she needed to give a different reason. To this, J38 suggested a new angle *hitori karaoke* (going to karaoke alone). Related to this new suggestion, J37 introduced her own experience. With J38's follow-up question "Why?" (Turn 7), J37 offered a self-deprecating and humorous response, that allowed the dyad jointly to achieve *their* conclusion.

Along with radical changes in their topic management, the dyad had engaged with each other throughout the sessions. This was evident in their frequent use of questions and the relatively rapid speaker change. J38 made the following comment in the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* in Session 1: "I thought my partner was not the type who is eager to express her opinion, so I asked her specific questions." J37 herself commented, in the *Exit Questionnaire*, that she found her communication style more passive than she realised, so she reported trying her hardest to give her opinions instead of waiting to be asked. J37's efforts were clearly shown in her comments in the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire*: "I basically agreed with what my partner said (Session 1)…; I questioned my partner (Session 2)…; I disagreed with my partner and used 'but' a lot (Session 3)." Regarding their final task, J38 left the comment that it was their best discussion with a good to and fro of opinion, where they came to a conclusion together. This view is consistent with the researcher's analysis.

5.1.2.4 Common features in interactions in the Experimental Group

The three dyads' dialogues exemplify characteristics frequently observed in the

experimental group in their initial interactions: abrupt topic shifts, frequent use of prompting moves and non-verbal communication (laughter), limited other-initiated topic development, low dominance, and separate tracks of topic development. Most of these features indicated low mutuality between a dyad, which was initially indicated by the quantitative analysis: as much as 60% of the topical sequences was taken by one- and two-turn topics (Section 4.3.3.2). The result of the qualitative analysis not only supports this finding but illustrates how a topic can decay quickly. It further suggests that low mutuality may have resulted from poor monitoring of the partner's talk and each speaker's eagerness to volunteer their opinion, as indicated in Pair 1's interaction. By revealing their typical patterns, the qualitative analysis supports the result of the quantitative analysis that three-turn topics can be coped with easily by learners.

The three dyads' interactions also exemplify the following characteristics, that were commonly observed in the experimental group as a whole in Session 3: strategic ways of making a topic shift, use of comparisons in building moves, more variety in responses and use of questions, rapid pick up of new topics towards the end of interaction, a goal-oriented communication style, increased mutuality, and features of collaborative interaction. These features make a marked contrast to the learners' initial conversations.

Enhancement of mutuality was initially suggested by the quantitative analysis, through the significant increase in the ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development, compared to the control group. The results of the qualitative analysis are not only consistent with this finding but also illustrate how the learners became more engaged with one another's ideas by displaying more variety in their response and use of questions not only in prompting the partner's contribution but also in developing both

self- and other-initiated topics. The use of *comparison* in building moves as a support type was also observed to help to develop and deepen a discussion.

A goal-oriented communication style, such as was apparent in Pair 19's interaction, was not always observed. Yet, avoidance of engagement, which had earlier often been manifested in abrupt topic shifts and long pauses, was observed much less in Session 3. The qualitative analysis also supports the finding of the quantitative analysis that no significant change was found in the number of topics discussed in the experimental group, compared to the control group. As shown in Pair 10's interaction, the learners, perhaps from pressure to cover more topics in the task activity, used the device of *rapid pick up of new topics* especially after staying on a single topic over multiple-turns.

Most importantly, many of the learners' final interactions demonstrated some features of collaborative interaction, even emerging signs of joint discourse. Related to this, Galaczi (2014) presents a wise insight in her paper on interactional competence across proficiency levels. Referring to CEFR descriptors: at C1, learners "relate contributions to those of other speakers", whereas at C2 they can "interweave contributions into joint discourse" (CEF, 2001, p. 29); Galaczi (2014, pp. 568-569) argues that, "the idea of creating joint discourse is fundamental in distinguishing between C1 and C2". Indeed supporting one's partner to develop their topic differs radically from engaging critically with each other's ideas and jointly developing the topic. Pair 19's final interaction shows signs of joint discourse and modest signs were observed in the other dyads' interactions, too. If this interpretation is correct, it would suggest that the awareness-raising activities had indeed raised interactional competence in the learners in the experimental group.

5.1.3 Summary of the qualitative analysis (learners' interactions)

In order to further address the first research question, which investigates the effect of the awareness-raising activities on the learners' interactional patterns, qualitative analysis was conducted. The findings of the analysis not only supported the results of quantitative analysis that the activities may have enhanced mutuality in the learners' interaction, but also revealed features of the changes. As clearly demonstrated in the three dyads interactions, the learners became more engaged with one another's ideas. Indeed each learner helped their partner's topic development by reformulating their ideas and extending them while also providing listener support through timely back-channelling. And most importantly, the learners' final interactions demonstrated some features of collaborative interactions, and further, signs of joint discourse. These results of the analysis were consistent with reflections provided by the three dyads themselves.

The qualitative analysis also built on the results of the quantitative analysis that the activities did not affect equality in the learners' interaction: asymmetrical features indeed persisted in some dyads in terms of distribution of talk and topic initiation. Yet, the qualitative analysis found active involvement in some learners who spoke less and initiated fewer topics, as shown in Pair 1's interaction in Session 3. This suggests that the learners may have had different perceptions of equality in distribution of labour.

The learners' perspectives of their topic management require further exploration. At the same time, a fundamental question must be addressed: was their awareness actually developed?

5.2 Awareness development in learners

5.2.1 Second research question

The second research question asked: *Did Japanese intermediate learners of English perceive their topic management differently before and after experiencing awareness-raising activities? If so, in what way?* To address this question, the learners' replies to the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* (Appendix 5) were analysed qualitatively, using the KJ method. Owing to the possibility of subjectivity in the analysis, a Japanese university student with an MA in education volunteered to participate in the process of classification. The previous section presented reflections from three dyads (Pairs 1, 11, and 19). Here the learners' responses as a group are discussed.

5.2.2 Awareness development in learners

5.2.2.1 Learners' perspectives on topic initiation

The questionnaire had six questions. Question 1 concerned topic initiation: *What percentage of the topics discussed in the interaction was started by you?* Table 5.1 shows the figures calculated by the researcher based on the learners' replies, compared to the researcher's overall calculations.

Table 5.1 Ratio of topic initiations within a dyad based on the learners' reports and the researcher's calculations

Calculated		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Based on the	Median	.71	.73	.67
learners' reports	Interquartile range	.40	.27	.28
The researcher's	Median	.71	.67	.53
calculations	Interquartile range	.38	.33	.29

To investigate the extent of the discrepancies revealed, inter-rater agreement was checked. The result for the intraclass correlation coefficient was .610, indicating a moderate, but not high level of agreement. However, considering that the learners had provided rough estimates (by specifying "about"), it was assumed that they had given a relatively accurate record. This indicates that they were aware of the level of their topic initiation contribution in each dialogue. However, as the results of the quantitative analysis indicate, their awareness did not lead to a better balanced distribution within the experimental dyads, compared to the control group.

5.2.2.2 Learners' perspectives on building moves

Question 2 targeted the learners' perspectives on self-initiated topic development: *Did you try to support your ideas? If yes, how? If no, why not?* The proportion of learners who reported supporting their topics in both of the two interactions increased from 73.8% to 83.3 %, and to then 88.1% (Table 5.2). This result suggests the potential of awareness-raising activities on learners' building moves.

Table 5.2 Proportion of those who supported their ideas

Learners who	Session 1 (n = 42)	Session 2 (n = 42)	Session 3 (n = 42)
Supported their topic in both interactions	31	35	37
Supported their topic in one of the two interactions	7	5	4
Did not support their ideas in either interaction	4	2	1

Table 5.3 shows the results of the learners' analysis of why they did not support their ideas. For example, in Session 1 there were a total of 14 valid comments (segments) from 11 learners, who reported not having supported their ideas in one or two of their interactions. The results indicate that *passive attitude* remained, for some learners, a potential hindrance to developing their ideas throughout the sessions: they reported developing their ideas only when they were asked. Further, one learner commented: "When I was speaking, I thought I was supporting my ideas but I discovered from the transcript that actually I hadn't." (This information, like all the learners' comments, was given in Japanese and translated for this study.) This suggests that learners can create self-images that differ from reality, which can make it difficult for them to achieve self-improvement without the opportunity offered by a transcript and/or recording of their performance.

Table 5.3 Reasons for not supporting their ideas

Reason	Session 1 14 segments (11 learners)	Session 2 8 segments (7 learners)	Session 3 5 segments (5 learners)	Sample comment
Passive attitude	28.6%	25.0%	60.0%	I developed my ideas only when I was asked.
No ideas	28.6%	0%	20.0%	I couldn't come up with any ideas.
Limited English proficiency	21.4%	25.0%	0%	I couldn't express my ideas in English.
Focus on listening	14.3%	0%	20.0%	I just focused on listening.
Discussion too fast	0%	37.5%	0%	The discussion went so fast, and I couldn't finish.
Other	7.1%	12.5%	0%	I had little confidence in my reasons.

Table 5.4 illustrates the results behind the learners' analysis of how they supported their topics in either one or two interactions in each session. Their comments can be broadly classified into *with reason*, *with several reasons, type of support*, and *intention.*

Table 5.4   Learners' comments on how they supported their topics

Means	Session 1 82 segments (38 learners)		Session 2 85 segments (40 learners)		Session 3 86 segments (41 learners)	
(With) reason	53.7%		51.8%		40.7%	
(With) several reasons	6.1%		3.5%		7.0%	
Support types	(Total)	36.6%	(Total)	41.4%	(Total)	48.9%
	* My experience	(17.1%)	* My experience	(15.3%)	* Comparison	(15.1%)
	* Example	(7.3%)	* Example	(9.4%)	* My experience	(14.0%)
	* Comments related to the topic	(3.7%)	* Comparison	(7.1%)	* Example	(7.0%)
	* Checked my opinion with my partner	(3.7%)	* Guesswork	(2.4%)	* Comments related to the topic	(3.5%)
	* Merits and demerits of the option	(2.4%)	* Merits and demerits of the option	(2.4%)	* Checked my opinion with my partner	(2.3%)
	* Others	(2.4%)	* Others	(4.8%)	* Guesswork	(2.3%)
					* Merits and demerits of the option	(2.3%)
					* Others	(2.4%)
Intention	(Total)	3.6%	(Total)	3.6%	(Total)	3.5%
	* Restating	(2.4%)	* Restating	(1.2%)	* Wanting to be succinct	(2.3%)
	* Avoiding difficult words	(1.2%)	* Clarity	(1.2%)	* Avoiding difficult words	(1.2%)
			* Avoiding difficult words	(1.2%)		

Total is not always 100% due to rounding.

There are a number of points here. One is the change in percentages for two broad categories, *with reason* and *support types*. While the figures for *with reason* dropped gradually from 53.7% to 51.8% to 40.7%, *support types* increased from 36.6% to 41.4% and to 48.9%. This could be interpreted as those learners who had reported *with reason* in earlier sessions now explaining features of their topic development moves in more detail. The excerpt below quotes typical comments. It clearly shows that each learner's awareness had developed over time.

Excerpt [5-7] J 9
- I gave a reason. (Session 1)
- I supported my opinion with my experience. (Session 2)
- I supported my choice by comparing its merits with other options. (Session 3)

Another point is the considerable increase in the use of the *comparison* support type. The figure increased from 0% in Session 1 to 15.1%, which ranked highest in Session 3 among *support types.* This may suggest that the learners distinguished *comparison* from other methods, regarding it as a useful device. Indeed, qualitative analysis of the learners' interactions revealed that by using comparison the learners linked their ideas to their partner's or via other options (available in the visual stimuli). This could often deepen the discussion. Lastly, let us take another support type, *my experience*, which the learners reported frequently using. Their findings are consistent with the results of the qualitative analysis of their discourse.

5.2.2.3 Learners' perspectives on topic shifts

Question 3 concerned topic shift: *Did you change the topic? If yes, how? If no, why not?* The proportion of learners who reported changing the topic in both of the two

interactions in each session initially went up but then dropped: i.e. 33.3% to 54.8% to 40.5% (Table 5.5). These figures do not necessarily indicate a high frequency of topic shifts.

Table 5.5 Proportion of those who changed the topic

Learners who	Session 1 (n = 42)	Session 2 (n = 42)	Session 3 (n = 42)
Changed the topic in both interactions	14	23	17
Changed the topic in one of the two interactions	17	15	20
Did not change the topic in either interaction	11	4	5

Table 5.6 shows the learners' analysis of reasons for not changing the topic. It indicates that (some) learners may have initially been too *passive* to introduce a new topic. This echoes references to *passive attitude* as a reason for not supporting ideas. In Session 2, *time pressures*, which was also reported as a reason for not supporting a speaker's ideas, seem to have troubled some learners. The whole picture, however, seems to have changed in Session 3. *No perceived necessity* ranked highest (40.9%), which could indicate that the learners (or some learners) felt satisfied with the current topic. The second largest number of comments, *having my hands full just speaking*, may also suggest, in a positive sense, their active involvement in expressing themselves about the topic in progress. These results are consistent with the qualitative analysis of the learners' interaction in Session 3. If that was indeed the case, the learners' comments may provide some explanation for the results of the quantitative analysis: that is a

significant increase in the ratio of multi-turn topic development in Session 3 for the experimental group, compared to the control group.

Table 5.6   Reasons for not changing the topic

Reason	Session 1 33 segments (28 learners)	Session 2 20 segments (19 learners)	Session 3 22 segments (25 learners)	Sample comment
My partner's topic shift	24.2%	30.0%	4.5%	My partner changed topics before I did.
Passive attitude	21.2%	15.0%	9.1%	I was just following my partner's lead.
Having my hands full just speaking	15.2%	15.0%	18.2%	I had my hands full just saying anything at all.
No perceived necessity	12.1%	15.0%	40.9%	There was a lot more to say about the topic.
Time pressures	12.1%	20.0%	13.6%	I was worried about time, so I didn't change the topic.
No skill to shift topic	6.1%	5.0%	4.5%	I didn't know how and when to change the topic.
No other topics left	3.0%	0%	9.1%	There were no other subjects I wanted to talk about.
Other	6.0%	0%	0%	Changing the topic was scary.

Total is not always 100% due to rounding.

Regarding the learners' perspectives on how they changed the topic, their comments can be classified into a number of categories such as *giving their opinion on a new topic; asking a question*; and *pointing to a new topic* (Table 5.7). This indicates that the learners were conscious how to introduce a new topic. Indeed as shown in Table 5.6, *no skill to shift topic* accounted for only a small percentage of the reasons for not

changing the topic. Along with the results of the qualitative analysis of the learners'

dialogues, these findings may indicate that the learners failed to introduce new topics

not because it was difficult but possibly because of their *passive attitude* (Sessions 1 and

2), *time pressures* (Session 2), or *no perceived necessity* (Session 3).

Table 5.7 Learners' comments on how they changed the topic

Method	Session 1 50 segments (31 learners)	Session 2 70 segments (38 learners)	Session 3 51 segments (37 learners)
Gave my opinion on a new topic	44.0%	54.3%	58.8%
Asked a question (e.g. "How about A?")	32.0%	25.7%	25.5%
Pointed to a new picture	18.0%	15.7%	11.8%
Other	6.0%	4.3%	4.0%

Total is not always 100% due to rounding.

Excerpt [5-8]'s typical comments indicate the speaker's growing precision in her

description of the later sessions. Note that she reported starting a topic shift with "but",

a discourse marker often used for topic initiation (Dings, 2007).

Excerpt [5-8] J 7
- I told my partner which topic I was going to choose. (Session 1)
- I changed the topic by asking my partner, "How about ….?" (Session 2)
- After listening to my partner, I changed the topic by saying, "Yes, but uhh I think …" (Session 3)

5.2.2.4 Learners' perspectives on involvement of the partner in their topic development

Question 4 targeted the learners' involvement of their partner: *Did you involve your partner when you developed your ideas? If yes, how?* The proportion of learners who reported not having involved their partner in either interaction is: 50% in Session 1, 57.1% in Session 2, and 40.5% in Session 3 (Table 5.8). Several learners left additional comments such as, "It never occurred to me to involve my partner when I was speaking". These responses may suggest the learners' unfamiliarity with the concept.

Table 5.8 Proportion of those who involved their partner in developing their ideas

Learners who	Session 1 (n = 42)	Session 2 (n = 42)	Session 3 (n = 42)
Involved their partner in developing their ideas in both interactions	7	7	8
Involved their partner in developing their ideas in one of the two interactions	14	11	17
Did not involve their partner in developing their ideas in either interaction	21	24	17

Due to the small number of comments obtained, tracing the learners' awareness development was difficult. Among these few, Excerpt [5-9] is typical. As the sessions proceeded, her description became more specific, which suggests her awareness development.

Excerpt [5-9] J 32
- The idea of involving my partner never occurred to me. (Session1)
- I tried to involve my partner by asking a question. (Session 2)
- After I gave my opinion with reasons, I said to my partner, "Do you agree with me?"

(Session 3).

One point is the variety of means the learners reported using (Table 5.9). This suggests that conscious efforts were made by some learners. Among devices, *asking questions* ranked highest throughout, which suggests that the learners perceived *asking question*s to be a useful method. Note that the learners included non-verbal communication such as eye-contact and pausing, both of which are elements of interactional competence (Markee, 2000).

Table 5.9   Learners' comments on how they involved their partner
in developing their ideas

Method	Session 1 28 segments (21 learners)	Session 2 26 segments (18 learners)	Session 3 35 segments (25 learners)
Asking questions	64.3%	42.3%	54.3%
Referring to common ground	10.7%	15.4%	5.7%
Referring to what my partner just said	7.1%	7.7%	8.6%
Using non-verbal communication (e.g. maintaining eye-contact, pausing)	3.6%	7.7%	8.6%
Speaking more	0%	11.5%	0%
Giving my personal experience	0%	3.8%	5.7%
Other	14.3%	11.5%	17.2%

Total is not always 100% due to rounding.

5.2.2.5 Learners' perspectives on engagement with the partner's topic development

Question 5 targeted the learners' perspectives of their engagement with their partner's ideas: *How did you respond to your partner's ideas*? This question received the largest number of comments in the questionnaire, which may indicate their greater concern about their responses. Their comments can be broadly classified into nine categories: *back-channelling*, *non-verbal*, *short response*, *just (dis)agreeing*, *completing the partner's sentence*, *recycling, extending*, *little response*, and *others* (Table 5.10). Throughout the sessions, *back-channelling, extending,* and *just (dis)agreeing* were the most frequently mentioned.

Table 5.10   Learners' comments on how they responded to their partner's ideas

	Session 1 133 segments (42 learners)		Session 2 142 segments (42 learners)		Session 3 147 segments (42 learners)	
Back-channelling		33.8%		31.0%		25.2%
Extending	(Total)	32.4%	(Total)	32.4%	(Total)	40.1%
	* Asked questions	(10.5%)	* Asked questions	(9.2%)	* Asked questions	(13.6%)
	* Disagreed with reason(s)	(6.8%)	* Added my own comments	(9.2%)	* Disagreed with reason(s)	(7.5%)
	* Added my own comments	(6.0%)	* Agreed with reason(s)	(4.2%)	* Added my own comments	(6.8%)
	* Supported my partner's opinions with my own experience	(3.8%)	* Disagreed with reason(s)	(4.2%)	* Expressed my own ideas	(5.4%)
	* Agreed with reason(s)	(3.0%)	*Expressed my own ideas	(4.2%)	* Agreed with reason(s)	(3.4%
	*Expressed my own ideas	(2.3%)	* Supported my partner's opinions with my own experience	(1.4%)	* Supported my partner's opinions with my own experience	(3.4%)
Just (dis)agreeing		15.8%		19.0%		13.6%

Non-verbal response	(Total)	9.8%	(Total)	4.9%	(Total)	4.1%
	* Facial expression	(3.8%)	* Facial expression	(2.1%)	* Facial expression	(3.4%)
	* Laughter	(6.0%)	* Laughter	(2.8%)	* Laughter	(0.7%)
Short response		1.5%		0.7%		0.7%
Recycling		1.5%		4.2%		6.1%
Completing the partner's sentence		0.8%		2.8%		2.0%
Little response		2.3%		1.4%		1.4%
Others		2.3%		3.5%		6.8%

Total is not always 100% due to rounding.

A quantitative analysis of the learners' dialogues in Session 3 indicated a significant increase in the ratio of four- and more than four-turn topics, as compared to the control group. This suggests the learners becoming more engaged with their interlocutor's ideas. Therefore, it was expected that the learners' comments would also become more detailed and specific over the sessions. However, the learners' replies indicated that they were able to notice, distinguish, and explain fully in their own words how they responded to their partner right from the outset. This tendency is clearly shown in the excerpt below, which displays typical comments.

Excerpt [5-10] J 2
- My partner commented on "sport" as a whole, but I focused on one sport and described what I thought. (Session1)
- I disagreed by referring to the task question. (Session 2)
- I referred to the word my partner used, and then gave my ideas. (Session 3)

Indeed the ways of responding that the learners had reported remained exactly the same from Session 1 to Session 3. However, the ratio of each category did change: while *back-channelling*, *just (dis)agreeing*, and *non-verbal response* decreased, *extending, recycling,* and *completing the partner's sentence* increased. This indicates that the learners had observed themselves engaging with their partner's ideas more actively in Session 3 by helping their partner's topic development through more extending and recycling moves, while still providing listener support through back-channelling and non-verbal reactions. Such perspectives appear consistent with the results of both the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the learners' dialogues. Further, the learners' self-analysis indicates that their awareness in this area was present from the outset. It may be possible to claim that this is why the learners achieved substantial change once this awareness was stimulated.

5.2.2.6 Learners' perspectives on task completion

Question 6 targeted the learners' views of the task demand: *Did you try to move the discussion on so as to get the task completed? If yes, how?* Half the learners reported yes during both interactions in Sessions 1 and 2, and the figure increased to 64.3% in Session 3 (Table 5.11). These percentages indicate that the learners were, on the whole, conscious of their task assignment.

Table 5.11   Proportion of those who tried to move on the discussion
so as to get the task completed

Learners who	Session 1 (n = 42)	Session 2 (n = 42)	Session 3 (n = 42)

Tried to move on the discussion in both interactions	21	21	27
Tried to move on the discussion in one of the two interactions	10	18	10
Did not try to move on the discussion in either interaction	11	3	5

Table 5.12 summarizes the devices reported by the learners. What was noticeable was the variety of means in the learners' attempts, which may suggest their strong concern with completing the task.

Table 5.12   Learners' comments on how they tried to move on
the discussion to get the task completed

Means	Session 1 65 segments (31 learners)	Session 2 78 segments (39 learners)	Session 3 75 segments (37 learners)
Asking questions	21.5%	16.7%	17.3%
Rapidly picking new topics	20.0%	16.7%	17.3%
Speaking more	10.8%	10.3%	4.0%
Adding comments to my partner's opinions	4.6%	5.1%	9.3%
Back-channelling	4.6%	2.6%	1.3%
Giving opinion with reasons / examples	4.6%	6.4%	12.0%
Giving my opinion clearly	4.6%	3.8%	5.3%
Avoiding silence	3.1%	3.8%	2.7%
Following my partner's lead	3.1%	0%	2.7%
Listening to my partner closely	3.1%	1.3%	2.7%
Responding concisely	3.1%	0%	0%

Summarizing	3.1%	3.8%	2.7%
Comparing different options	1.5%	5.1%	8.0%
Agreeing with the partner	0%	7.7%	0%
Other	12.3%	16.7%	14.6%

Total is not always 100% due to rounding.

There are two points here. One is, again, the use of questions. *Asking questions* was perceived by the learners as a useful device that could serve various functions. The other is *rapidly picking new topics*, which ranked either the highest or tied highest in all sessions. The qualitative analysis of the learners' dialogues did indeed find this behaviour in some learners especially at the end of dialogues in their later sessions. It is interesting that some learners acknowledged that they had rapidly introduced new topics to get the task done.

5.2.3 Summary of the qualitative analysis findings (*Awareness-raising Questionnaire*)

To address the second research question, which explored the learners' awareness development and perceptions of their topic management, the learners' replies to the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* was analysed qualitatively.

With regard to topic initiation, their relatively reliable record of their ratio of topic initiation indicated that the learners were aware of the degree of their topic initiation in each dialogue. Yet, the proportion of those who reported changing the topic in both tasks went up and down, rather than showing a steady increase. As reasons for not changing the topic, *no skill to shift topic* accounted for only a small percentage

throughout the sessions. The learners also specified how they had changed the topic, for example by *pointing to a new picture.* This indicated that they failed to introduce new topics not because it was difficult but for other reasons such as *my partner's topic shift*, *passive attitude*, and *time pressures* in early sessions, and *no perceived necessity* in the final session. These perceptions are consistent with the qualitative analysis of the learners' discourse.

Regarding self-initiated topic development, the learners' awareness seemed to have developed gradually, as indicated by the steady increase in those who reported supporting their topics in both tasks. Their awareness development was further suggested by their comments on how they supported their topics: *with reason* dropped gradually, while *support type* increased considerably. This suggested that those learners who had earlier noted *with reason* could later explain the features of specific *support types* in detail. As *support type*, the use of *my experience* was frequently reported, and *comparison* increased substantially in Session 3. These comments echo the findings of the qualitative analysis of their discourse. With regard to *involvement of their partner in their topic development*, analysis indicated that the learners may not have been familiar with the concept, as indicated by the figures: that is, around half the learners reported not doing so in either task in any session.

Unlike *self-initiated topic development*, the learners' awareness in *responding to their partner* seemed to be present from the beginning. This area attracted the largest number of comments. These demonstrated that the learners were able to notice, distinguish, and explain fully in their own words right from the outset how they responded. Their existing interest may explain why the learners achieved substantial change in their engagement with their partner, and why the ratio of multi-turn topics

increased, which had already been suggested in the quantitative and qualitative analysis. Finally, analysis of the learners' views of task completion indicated that they were largely conscious of this. What stands out was the frequently reported use of *rapid pick up of new topics* to get the task completed. This may also offer some explanation to the quantitative finding that the number of topics discussed in the experimental group's dialogues did not significantly decrease compared to the control group.

Thus, analysis of the learners' replies to the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* suggest that, overall, there was a level of awareness development among the learners. The data indicated that each learner identified the features of their topic management, distinguished them, and described them in detail, with gathering frequency and greater ease over time. Thus, analysis indicates that the learners came to perceive their topic management differently, despite some difference in degree depending on the area of topic management.

5.3 Usefulness of Awareness-raising activities

5.3.1 Third research question

The third research question asked: *What are the perceptions of the usefulness of awareness-raising activities among Japanese intermediate learners of English?* To address this question, the learners' replies to the *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)* (Appendix 6) were analysed qualitatively, using the KJ method.

5.3.2 Learners' views of the awareness-raising activities

5.3.2.1 Learners' initial awareness of their communication style in English

The questionnaire had six questions. Question 1 concerned the learners' initial awareness of their communication style: *Before analysing your interaction, how aware were you of your communication style when you spoke in English?* While eight of the 42 learners reported that they were largely conscious of it, 19 learners reported that they were either not aware or barely so (Figure 5.1). These results show that there was considerable variance among the group even though all the participants (other than one) attended a university that strongly emphasizes language education.
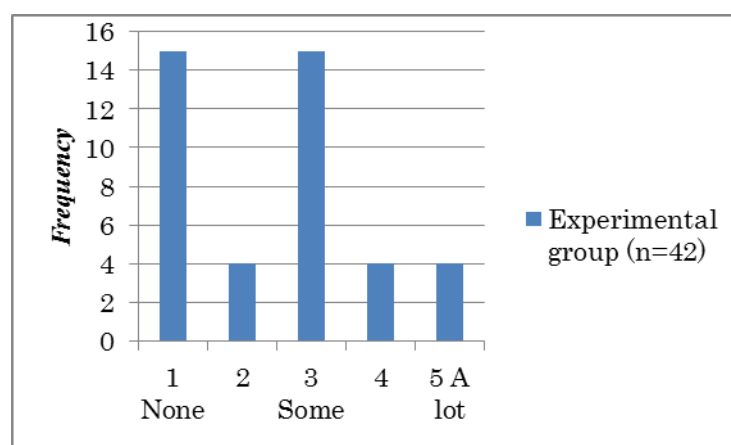
Figure 5.1   Learners' prior awareness of their communication style in English

5.3.2.2 Learners' views of the difficulty/ease of self-analysis

Question 2 targeted the learners' views of the difficulty/ease involved in self-analysis: *How difficult did you find analysing your conversation? What did you find difficult/easy?* Eleven learners found self-analysis easy or very easy; half of the group reported experiencing some or considerable difficulty (Figure 5.2)
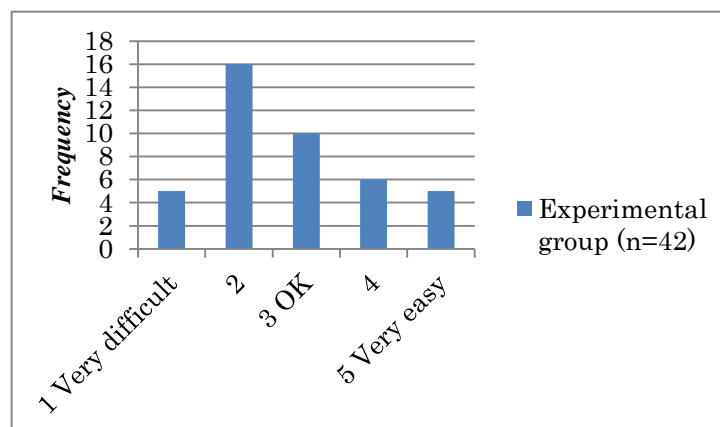
Figure 5.2 Learners' perceived difficulty/ease in self-analysis

Regarding what they found difficult/easy, 55 comments were received from 40 learners. Table 5.13 illustrates the results of 22 positive comments from 17 learners. The largest number of comments (31.8%) noted *the aid of the transcript and recording*, followed by *reflecting after a short interva*l (27.3%). These indicate that analysing with the aid of a transcript and recording of a conversation made two days earlier can facilitate awareness-raising.

Table 5.13 Learners' perceptions of what they found easy in self-analysis

What the learners found easy	22 segments (17 learners)	Sample comment
Recalling with the aid of the transcript and recording	31.8%	Thanks to the transcript and recording, it was easy.
Reflecting after a short interval	27.3%	The conversation has remained fresh in my mind, so it was easy.
Analysing my own talk	18.2%	I found it easy to analyse what I said.
Analysing what little I said.	9.1%	I didn't speak a lot, so it was easy to check what I said.

	13.6%	It was easy because I didn't say anything complicated.
Other		

Table 5.14 illustrates the results of 33 negative comments from 23 learners. As shown by its frequency (21.2%), overcoming discouragement after facing inadequate English can be a major challenge. One learner even described looking over her poor English as painful. The absence of sample answers (12.1%), which had already been an issue in the pilot studies, was again referred to. These results indicate that self-analysis can pose a psychological and cognitive challenge for some leaners.

Table 5.14   Learners' perceptions of what they found difficult in self-analysis

What the learners found difficult	33 segments (23 learners)	Sample comment
Overcoming discouragement after confronting my poor English	21.2%	Overcoming discouragement because of my poor English was most difficult.
Reconciling discrepancies between my intention and reality	18.2%	What I wanted to say was different from what I actually said. This confused me.
Doing unfamiliar exercises without sample answers.	12.1%	I hadn't done this kind of exercise before. Sample answers would have been helpful.
Looking for features from not much talk	12.1%	It was difficult to find anything standing out from the little I said.
Looking at what I said objectively	9.1%	I found it difficult to look at what I said objectively.
Working out what I was saying from the scripts	9.1%	I had difficulty working out what I was talking about from my fragmented sentences.
Other	18.2%	I couldn't remember.

5.3.2.3 Learners' views of identified characteristics in their communication style

Question 3 concerned the learners' identification of their communication style: *How much did you learn about your communication style in English by analysing your conversation? What did you learn?* The majority of the learners reported that they had learned something; a total of three learners said that they had experienced little or no benefit (Figure 5.3).
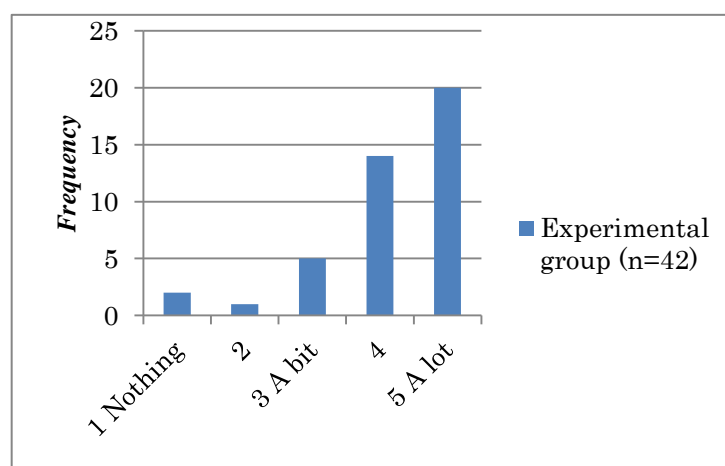
Figure 5.3   How much the learners learned about their communication style

Regarding what the students learned, 40 learners provided 110 comments. The areas in which the learners reported learning something covered *topic management* (55.5%), *vocabulary* (14.5%), *grammar* (11.8%), and *pronunciation* or *speaking speed* (7.3%). The high percentage for *topic management* is understandable. This is the area that the group had been working on. Also, the question was specifically about their *communication style*. Nevertheless as much as 33.6% of the learners' comments concerned their vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation or speaking speed. These results imply that, despite repeated awareness-raising activities and focus on the question, when reflecting on their interaction, learners' attention was often fixed on their

manipulation of English.

Let us turn to the content of the comments, here specifically on their discoveries in their topic management. There were 61 comments, which can be roughly divided into three categories: *initiating and developing a topic* (21 comments), *responding to the speaking partner* (37 comments) and *interactional patterns as a dyad* (3 comments). Table 5.15 illustrates a further categorization of 21 comments from 16 learners about *initiating and developing a topic*. *Organization* concerned 33.3%, followed by *involving the partner* (23.8%), *supporting ideas* (9.5%) and finally *topic initiation* (4.8%). One point is the low percentage of comments on *topic initiation* made by only one learner. This may indicate that topic initiation was not an area of concern for many learners. Hence, lack of concern may offer another reason, in addition to *passive attitude*, *time pressures*, and *no perceived necessity* (Section 5.2.2.3) explaining why the awareness-raising activities did not affect the learners' topic initiation contribution.

Table 5.15   Learners' findings related to initiating topics and developing ideas

Comments about	21 segments (16 learners)	Sample comment	
		Perceived good points and neutral overviews (8 segments)	Perceived drawbacks (13 segments)
Organization	33.3%	I gave my conclusion first and then my reasons. I found this effective.	I didn't sound persuasive because I just said what came into my mind.
Involving the partner	23.8%		I am poor at involving my partner in developing my ideas.
Supporting ideas	9.5%	I am good at fleshing out what I say with my ideas and experience.	

Topic initiation	4.8%		I left topic introduction to my partner.
Other	28.6%	I am learning how to develop my ideas more clearly.	I was more passive in expressing myself than I thought I was.

The second category, *responding to the speaking partner,* had 37 comments from 30 learners. This means that more than 70% of the learners reported that they had made discoveries in their responses. These figures were much higher than the figures for *initiating topics and developing ideas* (21 comments from 16 learners). These higher figures echo the fact that the learners had provided the largest number of comments for Question 5 on the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire*: *How did you respond to your partner's ideas?* These findings indicate the learners' greater concern about their engagement with their partner's ideas. Further, compared to the comments on *initiating topics and developing ideas*, there were many more negative observations. This could indicate that the learners noticed more points for improvement.

Table 5.16 presents the categorized results of the learners' comments. *Back-channelling* ranks highest (29.7%), followed by *way of responding* (24.3%), *attentiveness* (21.6%) and *laughter* (10.8%). Note that some learners homed in on *attentiveness*, which is a key element in interaction. Another point is the high frequency of comments on back-channelling and laughter, in total, 40.5%. This result is consistent with the replies to Question 5 on the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* (Section 5.2.2.5). Back-channelling and laughter are interactional features, frequently discussed with Japanese speakers (e.g. Cutrone, 2005; Nakai, 2002). It is significant that the learners perceived these interactional features on their own.

Table 5.16 Learners' findings related to responding to their speaking partner

| Comments about | 37 segments (30 learners) | Sample comment | |
		Perceived good points and neutral overviews (6 segments)	Perceived drawbacks (31 segments)
Back-channelling	29.7%	By using back-channelling, I can show my interest.	I back-channel too often, and always er and mmm.
The way I responded	24.3%	I often repeated what my partner said to check if I understood.	I gave almost no response to what my partner said.
Attentiveness	21.6%	I concentrated in silence until my partner had finished.	I didn't listen closely to my partner. I was only thinking about what I would say next.
Laughter	10.8%		I often laugh it off when I can't understand.
Other	13.5%		Because I wasn't confident, I avoided speaking.

Total is not 100% due to rounding.

Lastly, there were three comments from three learners on *interactional patterns as a dyad*. One said, "I noticed that we took turns in speaking, just as in a textbook. That's very different from when we talk in Japanese." Along with other comments, this demonstrates that the learners were able to examine their interaction objectively.

5.3.2.4 Learners' reports on their efforts to change

Question 4 concerns how the learners dealt with their findings: *Did you try to change the way you spoke with your partner after analysing your conversation?* Although three learners reported having made very little effort, the majority said that they did, despite

differences of degree (Figure 5.4).
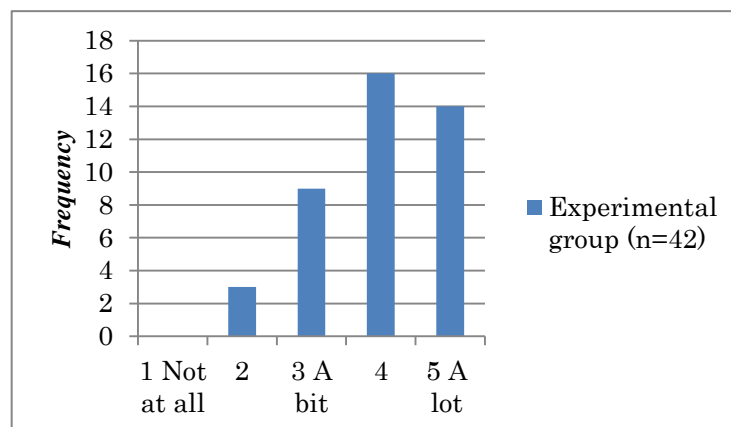
Figure 5.4   Learners' efforts to change

5.3.2.5 Learner's perceived changes in their interaction

Question 5 targeted the learners' perceived changes: (1) *Were there any changes in the way you spoke with your partner in the task after analysing your conversation? If yes, were they conscious or unplanned?*; and (2) *If there was any change, either conscious or unplanned, describe what you noticed.* Thirty-five learners (83.3%) reported that they did experience changes in their interactions (Figure 5.5).
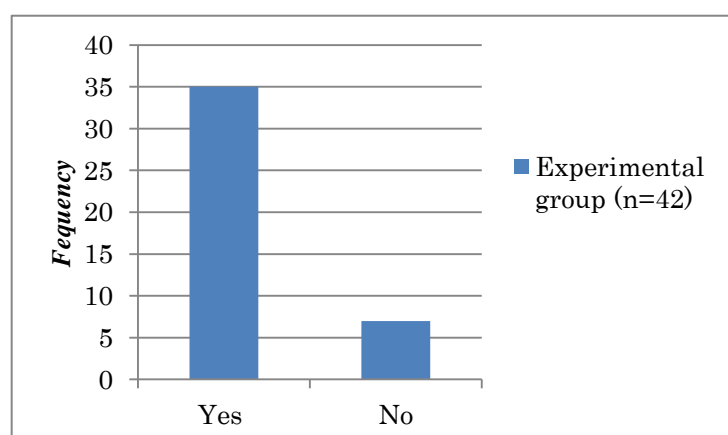
Figure 5.5   Learners' reports on change

This result is interesting. In the previous question, three learners noted that they had made little attempt to change, although two reported some changes nevertheless. On the other hand, six learners who reported having tried to change had experienced no change. Two of these participants left additional comments. One was "I think that change in interaction can be made not as a result of reflection but on how much one is able to talk about the assigned topic." Indeed the possibility of the effect of topics on topic management cannot be completely discounted. The other comment was, "The more conscious I became of my interactional pattern and the harder I tried to improve it, the more difficult I found it to change." This comment homes in on an important point. Awareness enhancement does not always connect to behavioural change.

Figure 5.6 provides further information about the nature of the changes. The perceived changes were reported as *changes due to their efforts* by 25 of 35 learners; *unplanned changes* by 2 learners; and *both conscious and unplanned changes* by eight learners.
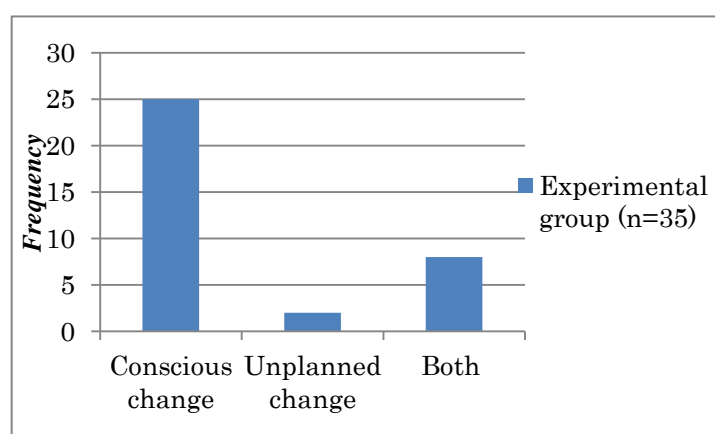
Figure 5.6   Types of change reported by the learners

So what changes did the learners notice? Thirsty-five learners provided 88 comments. As shown in Table 5.17, *responding to the partner* ranked highest (23.9%),

followed by *interaction as a dyad* (18.2%), *supporting my ideas* (14.8%), and *amount of talk* (10.2%). It is understandable that the frequency of *responding to the partner* was highest because this is the area where 30 out of 42 learners reported having identified characteristics of their communication style. Possibly, the learners had noticed negative aspects in their responses and made efforts to improve them, which then led to the current perceived changes.

Another point is that the comments that related to areas of interaction that the learners had been directed to look out for in the awareness-raising activities accounted for 45.5% of the total. The breakdown is: *responding to the partner,* (23.9%), *supporting my ideas* (14.8%), and *topic shift* (6.8%). The figure of 45.5% was lower than estimated. However, considering some learners' claims that not all changes were planned, these results are understandable. The ranking order of the three categories again echoes the learners' replies to the earlier question about the areas in which they identified characteristics of their communication style.

The most interesting point, however, concerned the learners' comments categorized as *interaction as a dyad*, which accounted for the second largest percentage, 18.2%. It should be noted that the question was meant for change in *each individual's* interaction, not change in *a dyad's* interaction and that was clear in the question written in Japanese. Nevertheless, 16 learners, that is 38.1% of the group, pointed to changes in their *dyad's* interaction and described them, typically using *we*, not *I* (see Table 5.17). Further, the changes described indicate a more collaborative interaction. These comments indeed suggest that the learners', or at least some learners', changes in their views on interaction, focused not on an individual but on their dyad. These changes, if my observation is correct, could be significant.

Table 5.17   Features of learners' perceived changes in interaction

Perceived changes in	88 segments (35 learners)	Sample comment
Responding to the partner	23.9%	I added more comments to support my partner's ideas.
Interaction as a dyad	18.2%	In the earlier sessions, we responded to each other with just back-channelling, but we began to work together and exchange opinions.
Supporting my ideas	14.8%	I began explaining my thoughts in detail and brought in my experience.
Amount of talk	10.2%	The amount of talk increased.
Pauses / silence	9.1%	There were fewer, and shorter, pauses and silences.
Topic shift	6.8%	I didn't hesitate so much to change a topic when I thought we had run out of things to say.
Volume and/or speed	5.7%	I talked louder and faster.
Other	11.4%	I became more relaxed.

Total is not 100% due to rounding.

5.3.2.6 Learners' views on the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities

The final question explored the learners' views on the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities: *Was analysing your conversation helpful? If yes, in what way? If no, can you say why?"* As shown in Figure 5.7, the great majority perceived the self-analysis favourably.
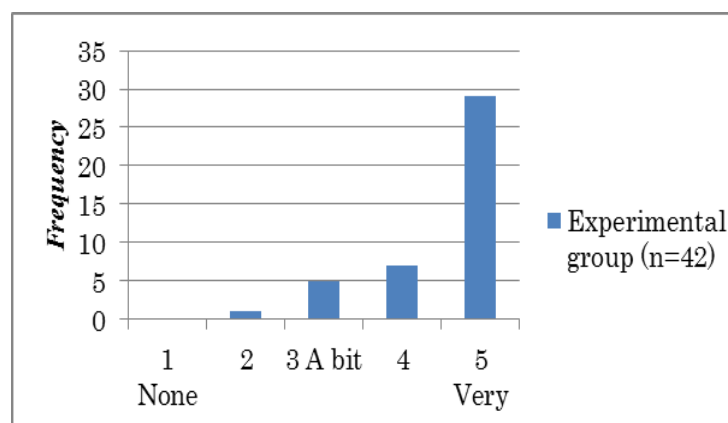
Figure 5.7 Learners' perception of the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities

To the follow-up question "In what way was it helpful/not helpful," there were 92 positive and one negative comment. Among the positive ones, *improving my communication style* which mostly concerned topic management accounted for the largest number (45.7%). These comments were made by 33 learners. This means that 78.6% of the experimental group recognized the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities in improving their topic management. The higher percentages of comments on other areas, such as *motivation* (22.8%), *recognition of my current ability* (6.5%), *grammar* (5.4%), and *vocabulary* (4.3%), could indicate that the learners perceived the value as going beyond topic management and touching on their L2 learning more broadly (Table 5.18).

Table 5.18 Learners' views on the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities

Usefulness in	92 segments (41 learners)	Sample comment
Improving my communication style	45.7%	I identified characteristics of my communication style and how I usually

		respond to my partner. This helped me improve my interaction.
Motivation	22.8%	I saw my progress. This has motivated me to study English harder.
Recognizing my current speaking ability	6.5%	I became aware of the level of my spoken English.
Identifying my problem areas in grammar	5.4%	I found where I tend to make grammar mistakes.
Increasing my vocabulary	4.3%	I increased my vocabulary by checking for better expressions afterwards.
Other	15.3%	The transcript helped me to learn from how my partner worked on the tasks.

Now let us turn to one negative evaluation made by one learner. She wrote, "I don't think reflecting on interaction on one's own can lead to improving one's communication style because it is subjective." This is an insightful comment. There are indeed calls in the literature of SLA for direct instruction of specific problem areas identified by a teacher (e.g. Galaczi, 2004). The current study takes the view that more initiative should be given to learners to identify features of their interaction and work on them (e.g. Walsh, 2003). However, as this learner mentioned, self-analysis of interaction has its limitations.

5.4 Exit Questionnaire (Control Group)

The learners' replies to *the Exit Questionnaire (Control Group)* were analysed to assess whether the *Task-related Questionnaire* had accomplished one of its aims: not leading these learners to analyse their topic management. Twenty-six of the 46 learners in the control group completed the questionnaire.

The target question was: "Did you learn anything when you looked at the

transcript of your interaction and listened to the recording? If so, what?" The analysis showed that 22.4% of 67 comments concerned *grammar,* followed by *vocabulary* (19.4%) and *pronunciation and speaking speed* (17.9%). Only two comments (3.0%), both from the same learner, concerned *interactional style.* Data were obtained from only 26 leaners, but the trend was that the learners were so strongly focused on the manipulation of their English that topic management was unlikely to have aroused interest in a significant number of the remaining 20 learners. Although the possibility of the learners' analysing their interaction subconsciously could not be denied, the results indicate that the activities may actually have hindered the control group from analysing their topic management to some extent.

5.5 Summary of the qualitative analysis findings (Exit Questionnaires)

To address the third research question, to explore the learners' views on the usefulness of the awareness-raising activities, the learners' replies to the *Exit Questionnaire* (*Experimental Group)* were qualitatively analysed.

The analysis revealed that there was considerable variance among the group regarding their initial awareness of their communication style in English and the half the learners reported having difficulty in self-analysis. The big challenge for some learners was, they said, overcoming discouragement after facing their inadequate English and the absence of sample answers. Nevertheless, the majority reported having noticed some features of their interaction. More than half of their comments referred to their discoveries in topic management, especially their responses to their partner. However, discoveries in topic initiation were reported by one learner. More than 90% of the learners reported that they had tried to make changes and more than 80% reported

observing changes in their interactions. Some of these changes were reported as unplanned. Regarding the areas of their perceived changes, *responding to the partner* ranked highest. This result supports the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the learners' discourse: this is the area in which marked changes emerged. Most interestingly, the second largest number of comments concerned *interaction as a dyad*. This suggests that some learners changed their view on interaction, and began to focus not on themselves, but on the dyad. The great majority acknowledged the usefulness of self-analysis: 78.6% of learners perceived its value in improving their communication style, in particular, topic management, and some students mentioned its usefulness across a broad area of L2 learning.

However, the learners' comments also raised a number of issues related to the limitations of self-analysis. One is that it can pose a psychological and cognitive challenge. Another is more fundamental to self-analysis: when more ownership is given to learners, the initiative to notice is more within their control. These issues are raised again in the final chapter.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

6.1 Effect of the awareness-raising activities on learners' topic management in subsequent tasks

The current study was motivated by the desire to build a solid understanding of how interactional competence can be developed in Japanese learners of English. In the literature on SLA, while there is a call for the direct instruction of specific problem areas of interactional competence (e.g. Sayer, 2005), there are advocates of the view that learners should be given ownership of the development of their interactional competence (e.g. Walsh, 2003). The current study, which shares the latter view, investigated the effect of learners' participating in awareness-raising activities through self-analysis on their subsequent task performance.

6.1.1 Major Findings for Research Question 1

The first research question queried how participating in awareness-raising activities affected the learners' interactional patterns, in particular, their topic management. This was investigated both quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative analysis revealed the following findings: regarding the general characteristics, the experimental group produced significantly more words than the control group in Session 3 compared to Session 1, and markedly more turns in dialogue than the control group in Session 3 compared to Sessions 1 and 2; regarding the patterns of topic management, compared to the control group, the experimental group showed a significant decrease in the ratio of

one-turn topic development from Sessions 2 to 3, and a significant increase in the ratio of four- and more than four-turn topic development in Session 3 compared to Session 1 and Session 2. In negotiation-based tasks, the number of turns can reflect the degree of joint interaction (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000). One-turn topics signify no interaction in the dyad, while four-turn topics can be regarded as the threshold for developed two-way interaction. The increase in the ratio of multi-turn topics suggested the enhancement of mutuality in interaction. In the analysis, attention was also paid to the variables, which showed no significant differences between the experimental and control groups for categories such as number of topics in dialogue and ratio of three- and more than three-turn topics because of their unexpected results. However, the ratio of words within a dyad and the ratio of topic initiation within a dyad called for closer study. This is because these variables are directly related to the dimension of equality in interaction.

Thus, quantitative analysis indicated that the awareness-raising activities may have enhanced mutuality in interaction, but they may not have affected the dimension of equality. To investigate whether the dyads' discourse actually demonstrated features of enhanced mutuality and signs of co-construction, a qualitative analysis was conducted using methods drawn from CA. The analysis revealed a sharp contrast between the learners' interactions in their initial session and their final performance. Regarding initiating and developing their topics, the learners became more strategic. Topic shifts occurred in a more stepwise fashion. In supporting their topics, the learners frequently made comparisons between their choices and their partner's together with other options available in visual stimuli. They were also now using elicit: informs and elicit: agrees tactfully in addition to informatives (Itakura, 2002) to develop their topics. These devices helped them to involve their interlocutor and deepen the discussion. The

analysis even identified, in some dyads, a goal-oriented communication style (Young & Milanovic, 1992). Qualitative analysis also highlighted a tendency for the learners to pick new topics one after the other, having stayed on a single topic for multiple-turns. This behaviour may explain why the number of topics did not significantly decrease in the experimental group.

The learners' ways of engaging with each other's ideas in Session 3 made an even more marked contrast to their initial task performance. While in Session 1 the dyads often worked on separate tracks of topic development, in their final session there was much more engagement with each other's ideas and more variety was observed in their responding moves, which included recycling and extending moves in addition to minimal acknowledgement. Whereas the evidence of close monitoring of the interlocutor's talk was often lacking in their initial interactions, the dyads seemed to be engaged in "constantly monitoring, determining, and responding" (Jacoby & Ochs, 1995, p. 176) in their final session. This was clearly demonstrated in the dyads' alignment activities (Dings, 2007, 2014) such as collaborative completion of a sentence, timely questions for clarification and the showing of comprehension. Topics often evolved beyond three-turns to four and more than four turns with the dyads shifting smoothly between speaker and listener roles. Quantitative analysis had suggested a gap between three-turn topics and four-turn topics, and qualitative analysis supported this suggestion by revealing patterns of three-turn topics: whereas four-turns often required rich reciprocal feedback between a dyad, third-turn topics could be easily coped with by one dyad's member playing a floor supportive role (Norton, 2005). Indeed, the features found in the learners' final interactions indicated enhanced mutuality, features of co-construction, and in some dyads clear signs of joint discourse.

Qualitative analysis also supported the results of the quantitative analysis that the awareness-raising activities may not have affected equality in the learners' interaction. Indeed asymmetrical features persisted in some dyads in terms of distribution of talk and topic initiation. However, qualitative analysis also found that those learners who spoke less and introduced fewer topics than their interlocutor were not necessarily unwilling to take part. These learners were often found to be actively involved in discussion, mostly helping their interlocutor develop their topics. By equality, the current study referred to work distribution between a dyad and measured it in terms of distribution of talk and topic initiation. The results of qualitative analysis suggested that the learners may have had different perceptions of equality in work distribution.

Thus, qualitative analysis not only supported the results of quantitative analysis but also revealed features of the changes in the learners' topic management before and after the two interventions. They also provided explanations for some of the unexpected results provided by the quantitative analysis. However, several questions still needed further exploration such as ones about the learners' perceptions of equality in work distribution and the demand inherent in the tasks.

6.1.2 Major Findings for Research Question 2

The second research question asked whether learners perceived their topic management differently before and after experiencing awareness-raising activities: and if so, in what way. This was investigated by qualitatively analysing the learners' replies to an *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* using the KJ method.

The analysis indicated definite awareness development in the learners: over the sessions, they had become more capable of identifying the features of their topic

management; they began to distinguish their features more clearly, and to describe them in detail, with gathering frequency and ease. This indicates that these learners came to perceive their topic management differently after experiencing the awareness-raising activities. However, the degree and patterns of awareness development seemed to vary depending on the area of topic management. While the learners' awareness in many areas including self-initiated topic development seemed to have gradually deepened, their awareness in responding to their partner seemed to be present from the beginning. The learners showed, from the outset, their ability to notice, distinguish, and explain how they engaged with their partner's ideas. This was the area that had attracted the largest number of comments in the questionnaire. Their strong interest in this area may explain the findings of the quantitative and qualitative analyses of their topic management: why the learners achieved substantial change in the way they responded.

There are two more points to be noted regarding the learners' perception of topic management. First, is the issue of topic initiation. The learners' relatively accurate calculation of the ratio of topic initiation suggested that they were aware of their topic initiation contribution in each dialogue. Further, the analysis indicated that the learners were conscious how to introduce a new topic. They failed to shift topics not because it was difficult but for other reasons such as passive attitude, or time pressure in the earlier sessions; or, in the final session, seeing no need to initiate another topic. These perceptions are consistent with the qualitative analysis of the learners' dialogues. Yet, the analysis of the learners' replies to the *Awareness-raising Questionnaire* still left a question not fully addressed as to how they had perceived the equality of work distribution, especially concerning topic initiation.

The other point is the learners' views of task completion. Analysis indicated that

the learners were, on the whole, conscious of completing each task assignment and a rapid pick up of new topics was frequently reported as a means to get the task completed. Their perception is consistent with the results of the qualitative analysis of their dialogues. Both qualitative analyses offered some explanation for the finding of the quantitative analysis that the number of topics discussed did not significantly decrease in the experimental group.

6.1.3 Major Findings for Research Question 3

The third research question asked how Japanese intermediate learners perceived the usefulness of awareness-raising activities. The question was investigated by qualitatively analysing the learners' replies to the *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)* again using the KJ method.

The analysis found that the great majority of the learners acknowledged the usefulness of self-analysis of their interaction. The largest number of comments noted its value in improving their communication style, which mostly concerned topic management. However, the analysis also showed that some learners had perceived the usefulness of across a broader area of second language learning, including motivation, recognition of their current speaking ability, grammar, and vocabulary.

The final analysis also revealed a number of interesting findings. One is about the learners' awareness of their communication style. Analysis found considerable variance among the learners regarding their initial awareness of their communication style in English: more than one third reported that they were unaware of this aspect before taking part in this study. In a subsequent question about what the learners had learned about their *communication style* by analysing their conversation, over one third of their

replies concerned vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. This figure was unexpected. Considering the recent emphasis on developing learners' interactional competence in English education, these results should be noted.

Another point is that approximately half the group reported perceiving some or considerable difficulty in the awareness-raising activities. The biggest challenge for some learners was overcoming discouragement after facing evidence of their inadequate English and the absence of sample answers. These results indicated that self-analysis can pose a psychological and cognitive burden for some learners.

The learners' replies to what they had learned about their communication style also revealed interesting results. The largest number of comments concerned topic management. Of these, only one comment from a single learner referred to topic initiation. This result may indicate the learners' overall lack of concern about topic initiation. Indeed the degree of topic initiation may not have aroused much interest even after the learners acknowledged the low ratio of their topic contribution. If they had perceived their contribution to be insufficient, as suggested in the other qualitative analyses, they could have increased the ratio by, for example, simply pointing to a new picture. Yet, the quantitative analysis revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups in the change of the ratio of topic initiation within a dyad. The final analysis provides support for what the qualitative analysis of the learners' dialogues had suggested: that the learners may have had different perceptions of work distribution. How they actually perceived is not covered in this study.

Lastly, is the issue of how the learners dealt with their findings and what changes they perceived. The majority reported that they had tried to make changes and more than 80% reported observing changes, planned and/or unplanned, in their interactions.

Regarding what changes the learners noticed, the largest number of comments referred to changes in the area of responding to a partner. This result was consistent with the results of earlier analyses. The most unexpected finding was that the second largest number of comments concerned interaction as a dyad, (16 out of 42 learners). Considering that the question was meant (and clearly specified) to address change in *each individual's* interaction, not change in a *dyad's interaction*, these results are worth noting. They had begun to focus on the dyad, not on themselves alone. If this interpretation is correct, this is a significant change.

Analysis of the learners' replies to the *Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)* revealed how the learners perceived their overall experience of participating in the awareness-raising activities: they reported that they had noticed something not quite right in their topic management, tried to make changes, and observed some shift in their next interaction. Their comments support my claim that their awareness was enhanced and this affected their subsequent task performance.

6.1.4 Potential and limitations of self-analysis through awareness-raising activities

Given these findings, let us look again at the usefulness and drawbacks of the awareness-raising activity through self-analysis. All the analyses indicated that the learners' participation in the awareness-raising activities had affected their topic management. The most significant effect, however, seems to be found in the change in the learners' perceptions on interaction. This is because the learners' enhanced awareness of the co-constructed nature of interaction seemed to underpin changes in their topic management.

This activity, however, is not free from drawbacks. As indicated in the qualitative

analysis, self-analysis of dialogue requires cognitive and emotional effort. Strong motivation to improve one's spoken English is also needed. Another limitation is more fundamental to self-analysis. If learners do not notice anything wrong, the chances of bringing about change may not be high. In the *Exit Questionnaire* (*Experimental Group*), eight out of 35 leaners reported noticing both conscious and unplanned changes, and another two said that they had noticed unplanned changes only. This means that, while unplanned changes did occur, the perceived changes were mostly the result of the learners' conscious effort. This is consistent with what is called a weaker version of the Noticing Hypothesis: that is, that "people learn about the things they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to" (Schmidt, 2001, p. 40). Hence, if learners are not worried about their topic contribution, for example, the chances of change are slim. This may have been the case with the learners in this study.

If the teacher directly points out problem areas in the learner's interaction and shows them how to improve, this may be a quick solution. However, that defeats the learner's ownership of exploring their own interactional style. Behaviour such as topic management seems to be deeply tied to each individual's ways of thinking and it may vary depending on context. Take topic initiation as an example. In pedagogical task activities, the idea of distribution of work within a dyad/group is appreciated in terms of providing learners with an equal opportunity for learning. In real-life interactions involving decision-making, if someone does not raise a topic, excluding the case where the interlocutor picked the same topic for discussion, that choice will never be made. Yet, in both contexts, people can be actively involved in discussion mostly by taking the role of responding and developing the initiated topic. Those people may feel they are making as *equal* a contribution as their interlocutor. Indeed, as suggested in the analyses

in this study, people may have different perceptions of work distribution. In topic management cultural influence also cannot be ignored. Thus, in order to make long-lasting changes in their topic management, it would seem important for the learners themselves to be deeply involved in exploring their communication style.

While the current study has uncovered the drawbacks entailed in self-analysis, it has also demonstrated that the learners were indeed keen observers and capable of making changes of their own accord. Hence it may be important to help them identify the characteristics of their communication style by themselves. If this is done in an appropriate way, it will not deny learners' ownership of exploring their communication style.

6.2 Theoretical and methodological implications

The findings of this study have a number of theoretical implications. First, the fact that participating in the awareness-raising activities through self-analysis were found to have a positive effect on the topic management of the students taking part is consistent with the contention that instruction is more effective than no instruction for pragmatic features (Taguchi, 2015b). In particular, the results of this study provide some support, as described above, for the claim that implicit instruction involving activities that work on the levels of "noticing and processing" (Taguchi, 2015b, p. 36) can be as effective as explicit teaching including direct explanation of the target features.

Along the same lines, the findings of this study support the weaker version of the Noticing Hypothesis: "people learn about the things they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to" (Schmidt, 2001, p. 40). This was confirmed by the learners' final comments, that unplanned changes did occur but their

perceived changes were mostly the result of conscious effort.

The most important contribution of the current study, however, is that it provides empirical support for the claim that the use of analysis has benefits in developing interactional competence in learners (e.g. Hall, 1999; Wong, 2002). The findings specifically support giving learners ownership in identifying the features of their interaction, and improving them (e.g. Walsh, 2003). The findings here indicated that the learners were keen observers and capable of making changes of their own accord. This study also uncovered some drawbacks entailed in self-analysis including the issue of noticing.

This study has implications for research methodology, too. In order to make a viable interpretation of a complex phenomenon such as awareness development, it is important to collect data from multiple sources. This allows data sources to complement each other, as the two questionnaires in this study did.

6.3 Implications for teaching in Japan

As in many countries, the primary goal of language education in Japan is for learners to develop the ability to communicate. The ability to interact with others, in particular, has been recognized as an integral element of speaking ability, as highlighted in the country's new National Curriculum Guidelines for secondary schools (MEXT, 2017, 2018), but this has yet to be underpinned by teaching material. There is a need to develop a systematic foundation for instruction based on empirical studies.

This study offers classroom teachers some insight into how interactional competence may be developed in their students. The findings suggest the usefulness of promoting learners' awareness through self-analysis to improve, in particular, their topic

management. In teaching, as the learners' replies to *the Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)* indicate, learners are not necessarily aware of their English communication style. This acknowledgement is important. Just showing learners transcripts and recordings of their task performances may not necessarily direct their attention to their communication style. As the qualitative analysis of the task-related activities undertaken by the control group participants indicates, learners tend to be more concerned with grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. They need to experience appropriate awareness-raising activities. While this study did not provide metalanguage, it may facilitate learners' reflection on their interaction, which is what happened in Walsh's (2003) study.

It needs to be acknowledged that self-analysis is not an optimal activity for all types of learners. As earlier discussed, it imposes certain cognitive and emotional challenges. A strong motivation to improve one's spoken English is vital. Furthermore, if learners are to *achieve* change in their topic management, their proficiency level may need to be higher than intermediate. This does not mean, however, that learners at a more basic level cannot benefit from reflecting on their topic management. In that sense, although the target group was intermediate leaners, the techniques apply to learners across all proficiency levels. Lastly, in real world classrooms, awareness-raising activities may need a phased introduction, using, for example, a questionnaire that focuses on one or two aspects of topic management. The goal here is to stimulate learners' awareness. That is what I did with my students at lower intermediate level and observed a difference in their subsequent performance.

6.4 Limitations of the current study

The first limitation of this study concerns quantifying interactional discourse. With regard to the general characteristics of interactions, in order to explore the dimension of equality, this study focused work distribution within a dyad and measured it in terms of distribution of talk and topic initiation. As indicated in the analyses of the learners' interaction and their comments, the framework used in this study reflected only one view of equality and what the study provided is just one interpretation. There is a need to acknowledge other possible interpretations.

With regard to the patterns of topic development, based on the view that, in negotiation-based tasks, the number of turns can reflect the degree of joint interaction (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000), this study classified topic sequences as follows: (1) one-turn topics (no interaction); (2) one and two turns (one-way communication); (3) three and more than three turns (three-turn topic development as the threshold for minimal two-way interaction); and (4) four and more than four turns (four-turn topic development as the threshold for developed two-way interaction). This analytical framework provides only one view of interactional discourse and, as such, has limitations. For example, in the classification, the topic sequence IB→ M (minimal acknowledgement)→ E is regarded as a three-turn topic but two-way interaction. In this sequence, although the second turn consists of only a minimal acknowledgement, it can be interpreted that both dyad members are engaged in taking the discussion in a direction together. Yet, another interpretation is possible: that this sequence may not be regarded as 'two-way communication' because the most of talk/work is done by one dyad member. In that sense, topic sequences such as IB → E or IB → R, which are classified as two-turn topics but one-way interaction, may be achieving a richer discussion of the topic in progress, depending on what and how much the speakers do.

The scope of minimal acknowledgement in the case of L2 learners could be further investigated. Another shortcoming of the classification concerns prompting moves, in particular, "How about you?". In this study this move was typically observed at the end of a first or third turn, leading to a fresh topic initiation by the partner. The question was occasionally made at the end of two turns, but in those cases the learners continued to give their opinions about the prior topic rather than introduce a new one. However, the classification holds the possibility that the use of a prompting move at the end of two turns allows the sequence to be classified as a two-turn topic but one-way interaction, which could overlay the speaker's effort to promote two-way communication. Another weakness of the framework is that those sequences involving sequence closing thirds, which refer to minimal response designed to propose closing of a sequence (e.g. "great"; "okay"), were counted as two-turn topic sequences. This means agreement sequences, which tend to be sequence-closing (Schegloff, 2007), were viewed as one-way interaction, which can provide a biased view of interaction. In order to describe the complexity of interaction, there is a need to explore frameworks which incorporate different interpretations.

Another limitation is that this study did not incorporate a delayed post-test; this was due to the difficulty of arranging a delayed test in the limited time allowed to the researcher to work with participants by their university. There was also concern about controlling for other factors which might affect interaction, including subsequent English classes at the university. The exclusion of a post-test meant that whether there is a sustained effect of the awareness-raising activities could not be investigated.

Another weakness concerns controlling for variables that can affect interaction. To obtain valid results, this study controlled for the kind of task given, gender pairing,

age, baseline English language proficiency, and occupation (student) of the participants. However, the theme of the tasks, to which one of the participants attributed the variation she noted in her interaction, could not be controlled for due to the research design. The degree of acquaintance (Norton, 2005) was also difficult to control for because of the restricted availability of participants, The exclusion of a preliminary speaking test, due to practical constraints of time and cost, also prevented the researcher setting a strict control for participants' proficiency level (Galaczi, 2014; Lam, 2018). Hence, the possibility exists that these variables may have affected the learners' topic management.

Lastly, the generalizability of the findings from this study may be limited. In order to control for the effect of gender pairing on interaction, this study targeted only female learners. Further, all but two of the participants were recruited from a single women's college in Tokyo. While this allowed for the control of a number of variables, it has introduced limitations to the generalizability of this study.

6.5 Suggestions for future research

Despite the constant evolution of the notion of interactional competence since the 1990s, there is still a shortage of intervention studies on how interactional competence may be developed in learners. As one such study, the present work has suggested the potential when learners practise awareness-raising activities through self-analysis. One direction for future research could be to expand this study into other contexts with tighter controls for variables such as the degree of acquaintance and participants' proficiency levels, incorporating a post-delayed test for evaluating the sustained effects of awareness-raising activities. The use of a different range of awareness-raising activities and analytical frameworks could be another element in a follow-up study. On the other

hand, revising the activities could involve questioning to what extent ownership should be given to learners of identifying the features of their interaction and dealing with their discoveries. Regarding the analytical framework for quantification, the one used in this study only reflects one view of topic management. An analytical framework which incorporates more interpretations, including learners' voices, merits exploration.

Another avenue for future research could be to explore the possibility of combining two specific paths to acquiring interactional competence, as suggested by Hall (1999): through interacting with more competent participants and through learners' conscious and systematic study of interactional features. Reflecting on interaction with more competent speakers, who might employ a different communication style, could make it easier for learners to notice the features of their own topic management. Learners might notice what is missing in their topic management and even try to incorporate some elements into their communication style of their own accord. This could well lead to sustainable change in their topic management.

Intervention studies such as the ones mentioned above may need to be small scale, to enable close observation of interaction. Hence, individual contributions would necessarily be limited. However, considered as a whole, each new study throws a bright light onto the path to understanding how interactional competence can be developed in learners.

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Appendix 1: Information sheet sent to participants

Interactional patterns of Japanese learners of English in decision-making tasks

Information for Participants (Japanese learners of English)

Invitation

My name is Yoshiko Shiroyama, a doctoral candidate at the UCL Institute of Education, University College London (http://www.ioe.ac.uk). I would like to invite you to take part in a research study. Before you decide, please read the following information carefully as it describes the purpose of the study and what your participation would entail.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of the study is to investigate the interactional patterns of Japanese learners of English in decision-making tasks in pairs.

What will you be asked to do?

You will be asked to attend 4 sessions over a period of a week. In the 1st session, you will be asked to work in pairs on two three-minute decision-making tasks in English. Including the guidance, the 1st session will take half an hour. In the 2nd and 3rd sessions, you will be asked to answer a questionnaire in Japanese about your previous task performance before working in the same pairs on another two tasks in English. Each of these 2nd and 3rd sessions will take about 80 minutes. In the 4th session, you will be asked to complete two questionnaires in Japanese about your communication style when you speak English. This final session will take 80 minutes. All your task performances will be audio recorded.

Who will be chosen?

For this study, I am looking for female learners of English over 18 whose first language is Japanese. If you fit the criteria, you are warmly invited to take part.

Do you have to take part?

It is entirely your decision whether to participate in this study and you can decide to stop at any time, without having to give a reason.

Appendix 1

What are the risks and benefits?

Every effort will be made to preserve your anonymity: you will be given a pseudonym to ensure that you cannot be identified; and all the hard and electronic data will be kept securely in a locked cupboard or in password-protected documents on a password-controlled server to which only my supervisor and I will have access. Some results may be published in relevant academic journals or presented at academic conferences, but you will not be identifiable in any publication or presentation resulting from this research. If you would like to have a copy of the published results, please let me know and I will send you one.

The benefits of taking part in this research are: (1) You will have the opportunity to practise English. (2) You may help to improve how spoken English is taught to Japanese learners. (3) I am offering a small cash payment as a token of my appreciation for your time.

Contact for further information

Should you have any concerns or questions about the research, please feel free to contact me:

Appendix 2: Research consent form

Interactional patterns of Japanese learners of English in decision-making tasks

From November 2015 to February 2016

* Please tick each box

I have read the information leaflet about the research.

☐

I will allow the researcher to audio-record my performance during the decision-making tasks.   ☐

I agree to answer the questionnaires that are part of this exercise.

☐

Name _____

Signed _____   Date _____

Researcher's name _____

_____   _____
Signed   Date

Appendix 3: Background questionnaire

1. Name _____

2. Age   _____

3. Have you ever taken an international language test (e.g. IELTS, TOEFL, TOEIC, or EIKEN)?

   (Yes or No): _____

   If yes, what was your score?

    ・IELTS (Overall) _____   (Speaking) _____

    ・TOEIC _____

    ・TOEFL _____

    ・EIKEN _____

4. When did you start learning English? _____

5. How long have you been learning English?   _____

6. Where did you learn English? (Please tick each relevant category)

(1) At

   (   ) Primary school   (   ) Secondary school

   (   ) University   (   ) Post-graduate school

(2) Outside school

   (   ) English conversation classes   (   ) Extra curricula activities

(3) Others: (Please specify)   (e.g) Having native English-speaking friends

   _____

7. Have you ever lived/studied in an English-speaking country ? _____

8. If you answered yes in (7), for how long ? _____

Thank you

Appendix 4: Decision–making tasks

(1) Task A (Photographs Task) (Adapted written prompts)

- People often enjoy keeping photographs. Which of these photographs do you think would be the most special if this were your life?

(Cambridge First Certificate in English 2010)

(2) Task B (Sports Task) (Adapted written prompts)

- Some people find these activities easy; others find them difficult. Which activity do you think might be most popular with people who don't usually take much exercise?
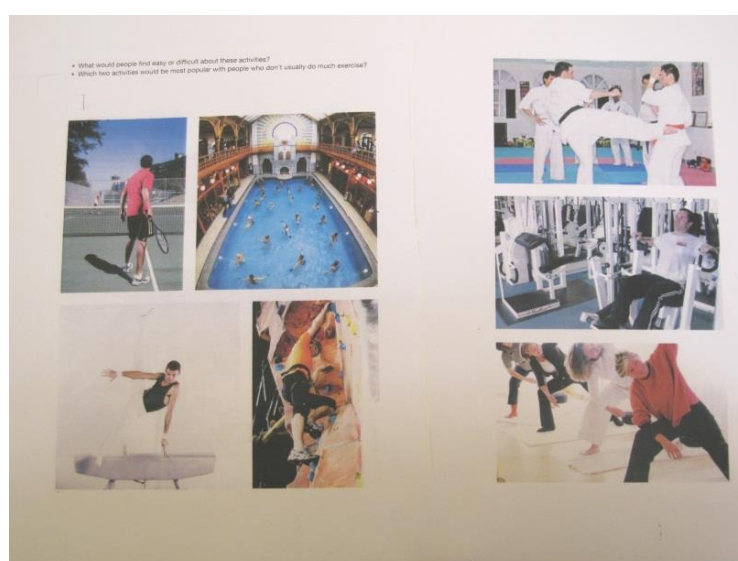
(Cambridge First Certificate in English 2010)

Appendix 4

(3) Task C (Jobs Task) (Adapted written prompts)

● Each of these jobs has advantages and disadvantages. Which job do you think would be the most interesting to do for a short time?

(Cambridge First Certificate in English 2012)

(4) Task D (Happiness Task) (Adapted written prompts)

● These things are generally considered to be important for a happy life. Which one do you think is the most important?
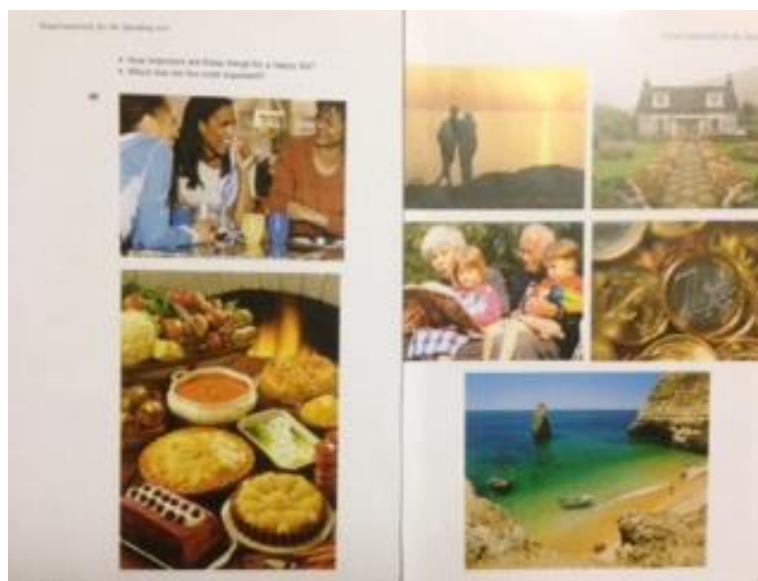
(Cambridge First Certificate in English 2012)

Appendix 4

(5) Task E (Future Shopping Task) (Adapted written prompts)

- Different ways of shopping have their advantages and disadvantages. In the future, which do you think is likely to be the most popular way to shop?

(Cambridge First Certificate in English 2012)

(6) Task F (Activities Task) (Adapted written prompts)

- These activities are popular with many different kinds of people. Which activity do you think might be most popular with people of all ages?

(Cambridge First Certificate in English 2010)

Appendix 5: Awareness-raising Questionnaire

Name (   )

Before you answer the questions, look at the script of your earlier session and listen to the recording. While you are answering the questions, feel free to look at the transcript and listen to the recording many times as you like. If you can, provide evidence for your answer, quoting from the transcript.

(1) What percentage of the *topics discussed in the interaction were started by you?
 (e.g.) about 60%

  * How do I count a topic?
    When you worked on the decision-making task, you were provided with several photographs or illustrations as visual stimuli. Please regard any talk related to one picture or illustration as talk about one topic.

(2) Did you try to support your ideas? If yes, how? If no, why not?

(Evidence)

(3) Did you change the topic? If yes, how? If no, why not?

(   ) Yes   (   ) No

(Evidence)

(4) Did you involve your speaking partner when you developed *your* ideas? If yes, how?

(   ) Yes   (   ) No

(Evidence)

Appendix 5

(5) How did you respond to your speaking partner's ideas?

(Evidence)

(6) Did you try to move on the discussion so as to get the task completed ? If yes, how?

(   ) Yes   (   ) No

(Evidence)

Thank you

Appendix 5

Awareness-raising Questionnaire (Japanese)

Name (   )

＊質問に答えていただく前に、先回行っていただきましたタスクの録音をお聞きになりながら、スクリプトをご覧ください。質問に答えていただきます時には、お好きなだけ、録音を聞かれたり、スクリプトをご覧になってください。質問には日本語でお答えください。

(1) やり取りのなかで、話し合われた話題のうち、あなたから話し始められた話題の割合はどのくらいですか？　　　(例)　60%　半分程度

　* 話題（トピック）とは？
　　タスク活動で使用しましたカードには、何枚かの絵や写真がありました。その絵や写真の１つずつを話題として数えてください。従って、１つの絵や写真に関連した話はすべて１つの話題について話されたことになります。

| |
| |
| |

(2) ご自分のお考えを展開、進展(サポート)しようとされましたか？もし、そうならば、どのようにされましたか？されなかった場合は、なぜですか？

| |
| |
| |
| (スクリプトの中から該当箇所を抜きだしてください) |
| |

Appendix 5

(3) やり取りの中で話題を変えられましたか？もし、そうならば、どのように変えられましたか？されなかった場合は、なぜですか？

　　(　　) はい　　(　　) いいえ

```
(スクリプトの中から該当箇所を抜きだしてください)
```

(4) あなたがご自身のお考えを展開、進展されたときに、相手の方を巻き込もうとされましたか？もし、そうならば、どのようにされましたか？

　　(　　) はい　　(　　) いいえ

```
(スクリプトの中から該当箇所を抜きだしてください)
```

Appendix 5

(5) 相手の方のお考えにどのように応じられましたか？

(スクリプトの中から該当箇所を抜きだしてください)

(6) タスクを完了するために議論を進めようとされましたか？もし、そうならば、どのようにされましたか？

( ) はい　　( ) いいえ

(スクリプトの中から該当箇所を抜きだしてください)

ありがとうございました

Appendix 6: Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group)

Name (   )

*Assign a rating on a scale of 1 to 5, by circling a number; then answer the questions.
For Question (5), tick yes or no before answering the questions.*

(1) Before analysing your interaction, how aware were you of your communication style when you spoke English?

1_____ 2_____ 3_____ 4_____ 5
Not at all   A bit   A lot

(2) How difficult did you find analysing your conversation?

1_____ 2_____ 3_____ 4_____ 5
Very difficult   OK   Very easy

   * What did you find difficult?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

(3) How much did you find out about your communication style in English through analysing your conversation?

1_____ 2_____ 3 _____ 4_____ 5
Nothing   A bit   A lot

   * What did you find out?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix 6

(4) Did you *try* to change the way you spoke with your partner in the task after analysing your conversation?

1_____ 2_____ 3 _____ 4_____ 5
Not at all   A bit   A lot

(5) Was there any change in the way you spoke with your partner in the task after analysing your conversation?

  Yes ( )   No ( )

 * If yes, were they conscious changes or unplanned changes?
 (If yes, did you make the changes consciously or were the changes unplanned?)

………………………………………………………………………………………….

 * If there was any change, whether conscious or unplanned, please describe what you noticed.

…………………………………………………………………………………………

(6) Was analysing your conversation helpful?

1_____ 2_____ 3 _____ 4_____ 5
 None   A bit   Very

 *If yes, in what way? If not at all, can you say why?

………………………………………………………………………………………
Thank you.

Appendix 6

Exit Questionnaire (Experimental Group) (Japanese)

Name (   )

＊選択式の質問について、あてはまる番号に直接○をつけてください。その後で、記述式の問いについてお答えください。質問（５）については、はい・いいえのいずれかを選んでから、お答えください。

(1) このリサーチに参加する以前に、あなたは英語で話すときのご自分のコミュニケーションスタイルをどのくらい意識していましたか？

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5

全然意識していなかった　　　　　　少し意識していた　　　　　　非常に意識していた

(2) ご自分の会話を振り返ることは、どのくらい難しかった/容易でしたか？

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5

大変難しかった　　　　　　　　　　普通　　　　　　　　　　大変容易だった

＊ どのようなことが難しかった/容易でしたか？

Appendix 6

(3) このリサーチで自分の会話のスタイルを振り返るなかで、ご自分の英語で話すときのコミュニケーションスタイルについてどのぐらい発見がありましたか？

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5

何も発見はなかった　　　　　　　　　　　　少しあった　　　　　　　　たくさんの発見があった

* どのような発見がありましたか？

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                             │
│                                             │
│                                             │
│                                             │
│                                             │
│                                             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

(4) 会話を振り返った後で、次のタスクに取り組んだときに、あなたは自分の話し方を変えようと<u>しましたか</u>？

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5

まったくしませんでした　　　　　　　　　　少ししました　　　　　　非常にしようとしました

(5) 会話を振り返った後で、次のタスクに取り組んだときに、あなたの話し方に何か変化がありましたか？

はい　（　　　）　　　　　いいえ（　　　）

* もし変化がありましたら、それは意識的に行った変化でしたか？意図しなかったものでしたか？

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                             │
│                                             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

Appendix 6

＊ 意識的に行ったものであれ意図しなかった変化であれ、どんな変化に気が付かれましたか？

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(6) 会話を振り返ることは役に立ちましたか？

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5
まったく役に立たなかった　　　　　　　　少し役に立った　　　　　　　　大変役に立った

＊ もし役に立ったと思われましたら、どんな風に役に立ちましたか？また、役に立たないと思われた方は、どうして役に立たないと思われましたか？

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ありがとうございました

Appendix7: Task-related Questionnaire
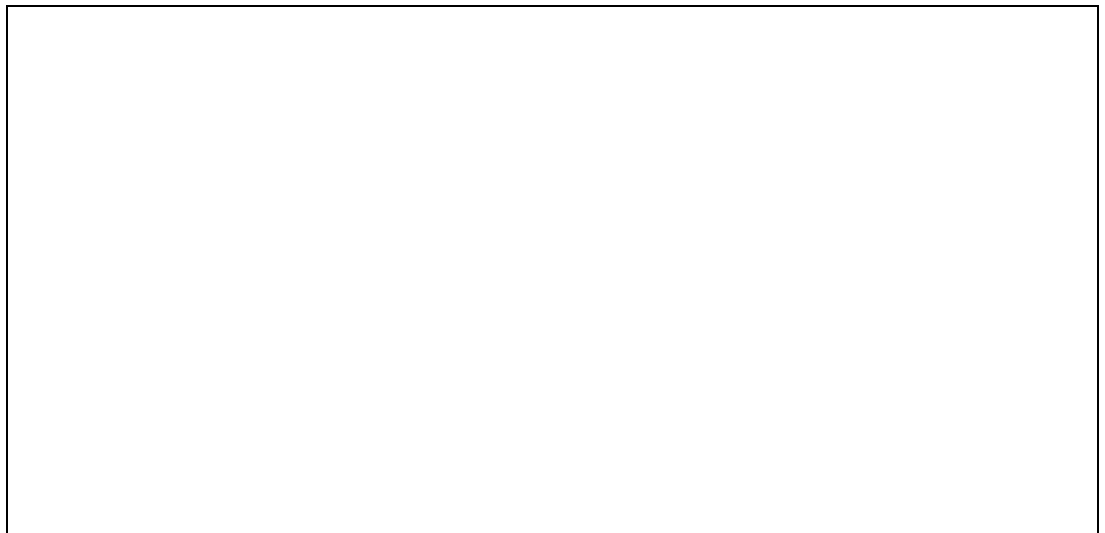
Name (   )

Before you answer the questions, look at the script of your earlier session and listen to the recording. While you are answering the questions, feel free to look at the transcript and listen to the recording as many times as you like.

(1) Imagine that you are writing a short report for the college blog and base it on the ideas you and your partner expressed earlier. The context is to report the results of a recent survey. Write no more than 5 sentences. You can use imaginary people in your report.

<u>Example</u>
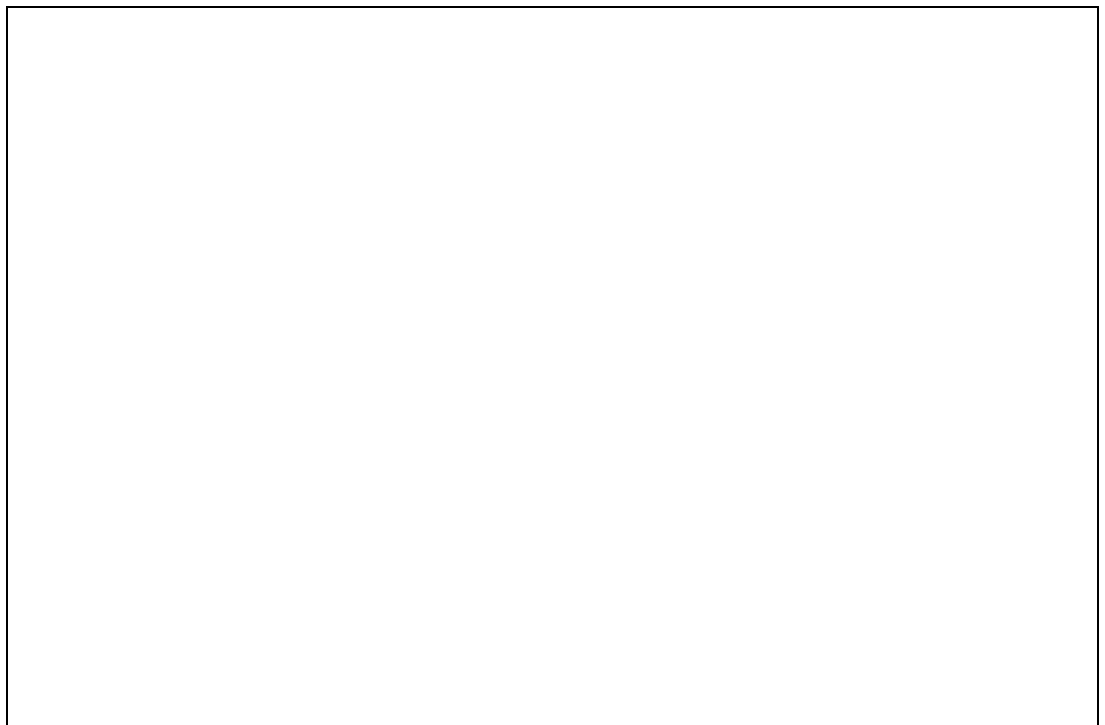
A recent survey into the importance of friends, which questioned people of all ages in Japan, reported that the majority appreciate friendship when their life runs into difficulties or when they feel depressed. Half of the respondents also said that they enjoy sport more when they are with friends. On the other hand, a small number of people reported that they prefer travelling with friends rather than going away alone.

Appendix 7

(2) Did you agree with any of your speaking partner's ideas and opinions? If so, give as many specific examples as possible, using the transcript.

   (e.g.) I agreed with my partner when she said that it was most important to have friends when we feel depressed.

(3) Summarize your and your speaking partner's conclusions.

Appendix 7

(4) What are your general thoughts about: "Keeping photographs"?

  Task A- "Keeping photographs"
  Task B- "Sports for people who don't usually exercise much"
  Task C- "Temporary jobs"
  Task D- "A happy life"
  Task E- "Shopping in the future world"
  Task F- "Activities for people of all ages"

Thank you

Appendix 7

Task-related Questionnaire (Japanese)

Name (   )

*質問に答えていただく前に、先回行っていただきましたタスクの録音をお聞きになられながら、スクリプトをご覧ください。質問に答えていただきます時には、お好きなだけ、録音を聞かれたり、スクリプトをご覧になってください。質問には日本語でお答えください。

(1) 大学のブログに、やり取りの中のあなたと相手の方の考えに基づいて、短いレポートを書いていると想像してください。内容は、最近のアンケート調査を行った結果についてです。5文以内で、まとめてください。レポートの中では、調査対象の人々について自由に想像してください。

（例）日本の全世代を対象にした「友達の大切さ」についての最近の調査によると、大多数の人が人生で困難に出会ったときや気持ちが落ち込んだときに、友情のありがたさを感じると答えている。また、半数の回答者が、友達と一緒だとスポーツをもっと楽しめると答えている。反面、一人で旅行するより、友達と旅行するほうがいいと答えた人の割合は、少数であった。

(2) やり取りをされる中で、相手の方の考えや意見に同意されましたか？もし、されたことがありましたら、スクリプトを見て、具体的にすべてあげてください。

（例）相手の人が、「気持ちが落ち込んでいる時に、友達がいてくれて一番ありがたいと思う」と言った時に、同意した。

(3) あなたと相手の方のタスク活動の質問に対する結論は何でしたか？

Appendix 7

(4) 一般的に「写真を保存しておくこと」についてあなたはどう思いますか？

    Task A: 写真を保存しておくこと
    Task B: 普段運動をしない人にとってのスポーツ
    Task C: 短期的な仕事
    Task D: 幸せな人生
    Task E: 未来のショッピング
    Task F: 全ての人々のための活動

ありがとうございました

Appendix 8: Exit Questionnaire (Control Group)

Name (   )

1. For each session, you were asked to answer the following four questions:

(Questions)

   (1) Imagine that you are writing a short report for the college blog and base it on the ideas you and your partner expressed earlier. The context is to report the results of a recent survey. Write no more than 5 sentences. You can use imaginary people in your report.

   (2) Did you agree with any of your speaking partner's ideas and opinions? If so, give as many specific examples as possible, using the transcript.

   (3) Summarize your and your speaking partner's conclusions.

   (4) What are your general thoughts about: "Keeping photographs"?

*Which one of these questions did you find most difficult to answer?

* Why was it difficult?

Appendix 8

2. You were asked to work on six different decision-making tasks. *(For this question, the students were provided with the pictures they had used for their tasks).*

  * Did you find the challenge level similar for each task, or different?

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  │   │
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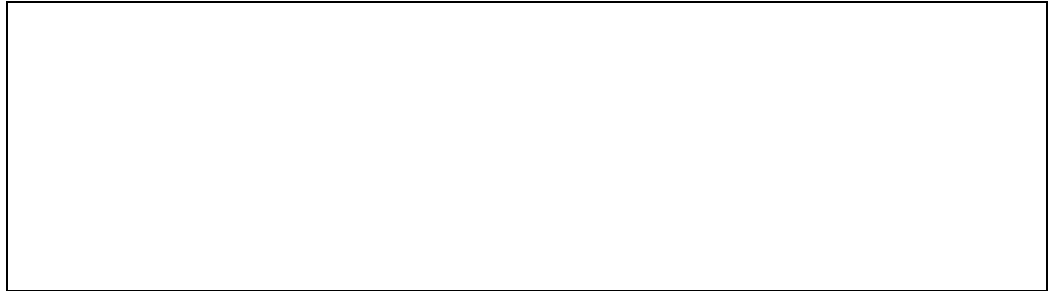
  * If different, can you describe what made it different?

  ┌──┐
  │   │
  │   │
  │   │
  │   │
  └──┘

3. Did you learn anything when you looked at the transcript of your interaction and listened to the recording?

  ┌─────────────┐
  │   │
  │   │
  └─────────────┘

 * If so, what?"

  ┌──┐
  │   │
  │   │
  │   │
  │   │
  └──┘

Appendix 8

4. What worked for you about the way you were taught English at school or, later at university, or anywhere else?

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
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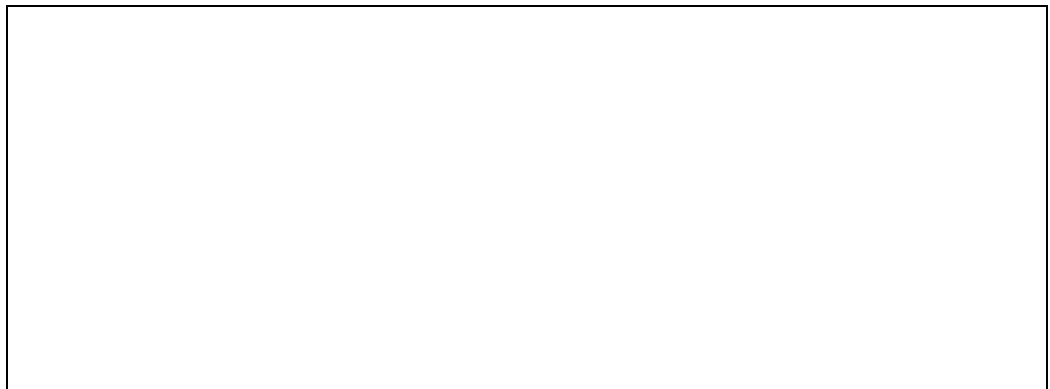
* In what way could the teaching of English at school, university, or elsewhere be improved? Please list anything that occurs to you and elaborate.

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Thank you

Appendix 8

Exit Questionnaire (Control Group) (Japanese)

Name (   )

(1) 質問用紙には、以下の４つの質問がありました。

(Questions)

(1) Imagine that you are writing a short report for the college blog and base it on the ideas you and your partner expressed earlier. The context is to report the results of a recent survey. Write no more than 5 sentences. You can use imaginary people in your report.

(2) Did you agree with any of your speaking partner's ideas and opinions? If so, give as many specific examples as possible, using the transcript.

(3) Summarize your and your speaking partner's conclusions.

(4) What are your general thoughts about: "Keeping photographs"?

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* 一番難しいと感じたれた質問はどれでしたか？

* その質問のどのようなことが難しかったですか？

Appendix 8

(2) 全部で６つのタスクに取り組んでいただきました。（この質問に答えるために、タスク活動で使用された絵が、配布されています。）

* 取り組みやすさに違いはありましたか？

* 取り組みやすさに違いがあった場合は、その理由は何だったと思いますか？

(3) ご自分のインタラクションのスクリプトを見たり、録音を聞いたりする中で、何か発見がありましたか？

* もしありましたら、それはどのような発見でしたか？

Appendix 8

(4) 今まで受けてきた学校、大学等での英語の授業について、どのようなところが、あなたにとって良かったと思いますか？

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* また、どのようにしたら、学校、大学等での英語の授業がもっと良くなると思いますか？心に浮かんだアイディアをあげてください。

ありがとうございました

Appendix 9: Transcription Conventions

[Beginning of overlapping utterances

]   End of overlapping utterances

=   A turn latched immediately to a previous speaker's turn with no overlap

(.3)   The length of a pause

.   Falling intonation at the end of the turn

?   Rising intonation (not necessarily a question)

((   )) Non-verbal element, e.g., ((laughs))

( ) Doubtful transcription

→ Highlights point of analysis

Note. Adapted from Atkinson and Heritage (1984)