Promoting Awareness and Regulation of Social and Affective Behaviours during L2 Speaking Tasks through Written Reflection

by

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B.A., The University of Winnipeg, 1986

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Supervisory Committee

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Abstract

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This small scale action research explored the use of guided written reflection as a means to assist learners to gain self-awareness of their social and affective strategic behaviours during classroom speaking tasks, to improve collaboration, and to increase oral output. Four research questions addressed: (1) the social and affective strategies learners use to complete classroom speaking tasks, (2) the changes in social and affective strategies that learners demonstrate in written reflections over four weeks, (3) whether there is a difference in the amount of oral output produced by the experimental group (EG) and the comparison group (CG), and (4) the EG group members' perceptions of the reflection process. Two groups of English as an additional language (EAL) learners completed eight dyadic classroom speaking tasks. Immediately after completing each task, five EG participants responded in writing to questions in a reflection journal addressing emotions, vocabulary, interactions with interlocutors, and strategic goals; the six CG participants were not provided with the same opportunity to reflect. In the EG, over four weeks, the strategy *justifying performance* decreased, while *complimenting* increased. Although EG participants' oral production did not increase, part E of Oxford's (1989) SILL showed a significant increase in *I encourage myself to speak*. Of fourteen participants who completed a final anonymous questionnaire, 64% felt that the reflection process helped them to speak more, and 93% felt that it helped them to work effectively with their classmates.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Acronyms

LLS: Language learning strategies

SRL: Self-regulated learning

SLA: Second language acquisition

NS: Native speaker

NNS: Non-native speaker

L1: First language

L2: Second language

GLL: Good language learners

CS: Communication strategies

PS: Production strategies

SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

LSUII: Language Strategy Use Inventory and Index

S^2R: Strategic self-regulation

FL: Foreign language

PI: Participation instruction

SPEAK: Speaking Proficiency English Assessment Kit

SA: Self-assessment

ESL: English as a second language

Vocd: Vocabulary diversity

TOEFL®: Test of English as a Foreign Language

IELTS™: International English Language Testing System

CHILDES: Child Language Data Exchange System

MLU: Mean length of utterance

TTR: Type-token ratio

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Background

Learning an additional language can be a long and daunting undertaking, requiring years of ongoing cognitive effort to develop the ability to use and understand complex morphological, syntactic, and phonological systems. What is often overlooked by teachers and learners, however, is that the social and affective challenges associated with language learning can be equally difficult. Unfamiliar social and cultural contexts combined with a limited ability in the target language can result in negative feelings, such as embarrassment, frustration, or disappointment. These negative emotions and feelings of social awkwardness may have unfortunate effects on cognitive processes and motivation, and ultimately, they can cause learners to abandon their goals. Learners are particularly vulnerable to negative emotions when it comes to speaking, a modality that often requires on-line performance in unfamiliar social and cultural environments, in the presence of strangers (e.g., testing situations, in the classroom, or in the target language community).

Most researchers (e.g., Donato, 1994; Rubin, 1975; Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995, 2005) accept that a willingness to speak is a beneficial (if not essential) ingredient in language learning, particularly as learners progress beyond introductory levels. Unfortunately, encouraging students to overcome negative emotions and engage in social interactions that require producing the target language (either with classmates or native speakers) is not always easy. This issue represents a real world problem that teachers and learners grapple with on a daily basis (Donato & MacCormick, 1994; Osboe et al., 2007; Tsou, 2005; Zeungler, 1993).

Applied linguists have invested four decades examining strategies that individuals use to learn additional languages. The vast majority of research has focused on cognitive (e.g.,

memorizing and translating) and metacognitive (e.g., planning, monitoring, and evaluating) strategies; unfortunately, social and affective strategies have not garnered the same degree of attention, despite a consensus among researchers that they play a significant role in the language learning process (Bown & White, 2010b). The work that has been done thus far has focused primarily on anxiety in testing situations. Recently there has been a call for more research into the role of affect in language learning in both the field of applied linguistics (e.g., Dewaele, 2005; Bown & White, 2010b; Pavlenko, 2005), as well as in the field of educational and cognitive psychology (Pekrun et al., 2002; Meyer & Turner, 2007). Thus, the purpose of this study is multifold: to further elucidate the role of social and affective strategies and behaviours used by learners during classroom speaking tasks, as well as to investigate the use of reflection as viable tool to assist language learners to regulate emotions that may hinder their speaking, and to strategically deploy social skills necessary for effective, collaborative interactions with others. Findings in this area could be used to enhance language learning strategy models (e.g., Oxford, 2011; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) and to design instruction and interventions that may help students support one another in their efforts to speak in a second language. If students experience greater emotional well-being and social support, the likelihood that they will engage in and persevere at learning to speak an additional language may be improved.

1.2 Outline

The thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature, including the literature addressing theoretical work in applied linguistics pertaining to language learning strategies (LLS), research in educational psychology addressing both social cognitive theories of self-regulated learning (SRL) and emotion, and finally, recent relevant empirical research. This

literature review offers a discussion of key issues facing the field of LLS research, and establishes the necessary theoretical background for this research. Chapter 3 describes the study's methodology, including the participants, the procedures, and the analysis of the data. Chapter 4 presents the study's results for each research question, and Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the results as well as the implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research. Finally, Chapter 6 is the conclusion to this thesis.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This section provides a review of the literature pertaining to social and affective strategic behaviours associated with speaking in an additional language. The scope of this subject is broad and encompasses theoretical and empirical research from a variety of disciplines. Thus, this review draws from LLS work done in applied linguistics (with particular emphasis on the modality of speaking), research addressing affect in both applied linguistics and cognitive psychology, and theories of self-regulated learning (SRL) in educational psychology.

The literature is discussed in four main sections: (1) the role of oral output in language learning, (2) an overview of language learning strategy research, (3) interdisciplinary perspectives, and finally, (4) empirical research addressing social and affective strategy use as well as research pertaining to the modality of speaking.

2.2 The Role of Output in Language Learning

Why encourage language learners to speak in the target language? In fact, not all researchers agree that oral production is always beneficial or essential for the acquisition of an additional language. It has been suggested that learners may benefit from a "silent period" (Krashen, 1981, 1982), particularly in the early stages of learning. How or whether this silent period contributes to language learning is still uncertain (Ellis, 1999). Krashen's well-known *Input Hypothesis* (1982, 1985), claimed that rich, comprehensible input is sufficient for the successful acquisition of an additional language; according to Krashen (1998), there have been many reported cases of individuals attaining extremely high levels of competence in an additional language without any output at all.

Swain (1985), in a study examining learners in a Canadian French immersion program (where, presumably, comprehensible input was provided in abundance) found some interesting results: learners' receptive skills (reading and listening) were virtually indistinguishable from those of native French speakers; however, the immersion students' productive skills (writing and speaking) did *not* achieve the same levels of success. Learners' lexical and syntactic accuracy in written and spoken French were lower than their native speaking counterparts, even after as many as 12 years in an immersion program. Furthermore, Swain noted that learners did not talk as much in their French classes (where French was the medium of communication), as they did in their English classes. Swain found that the immersion students' oral output in French classes, 50% of the time, consisted of one or two words; and only 14% of their utterances were longer than a clause. These observations in French immersion research led Swain to propose the *Output Hypothesis* (1985, 1993, 1995, 2005), which states that when producing language, learners are more likely to notice the gaps that exist in their interlanguages (Selinker, 1972), and that noticing gaps can lead them to make modifications. According to Swain (1995), output has three functions: it can trigger noticing; it can allow for hypothesis testing; and it plays a metalinguistic (reflective) function.

In short, students must "notice" their discourse to be able to work with it. The concept of noticing discourse is not new to applied linguistics. Schmidt (1990) posited that consciousness is a fundamental element in second language acquisition (SLA). Schmidt's (1990) *Noticing hypothesis* maintained that intake (the comprehended input that enters into the processing system) is not subliminal, but rather consciously noticed by the learner. Intake leads to output, and according to Swain, there is evidence to support the hypothesis "that output can stimulate noticing; that it raises learners' awareness of gaps in their knowledge; that in short, it plays a

consciousness-raising role. Furthermore, noticing can trigger cognitive processes that have been implicated in second language learning" (1995, p. 130).

Support for encouraging learners to produce oral output also comes from researchers examining conversational interactions. Although opportunities for conversation in language classrooms has often been viewed as one stage of a synthetic approach where learners synthesize and practice the discrete items (e.g., grammar rules, pronunciation, vocabulary) that they have been taught, many researchers now accept that conversational interaction itself is also "a crucial site" (Long & Robinson, 1998, p. 22) not only for practice, but for language learning. Long (1996) has suggested that the feedback learners receive during NS-NNS [native speaker – non-native speaker] interactions are characterized by a number of negotiation moves, such as clarification requests, comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and *or*-choice questions (where a native speaker offers a choice of possible responses immediately after posing a question to a NNS). When communicative problems are encountered, NSs often seem to make use of these negotiation moves in order to make their language more comprehensible to NNSs. Drawing from a large body of research, Long (1996) proposed the *Interaction hypothesis:* "I would like to suggest that negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (pp. 451–452). Long and Robinson (1998), while acknowledging the indisputable role of input in second language acquisition, have questioned whether the positive evidence it provides is sufficient (particularly for adults). They point out that some L1-L2 contrasts are unlikely to be learned from positive evidence alone and cite, as an example, the English constraint barring adverb placement between the verb and the direct object; a French

speaker would have to notice the *absence* of this word order in English. In other words, according to Long and Robinson, target language input (positive evidence) provides learners with information about what *is* an acceptable utterance in a target language, but input alone may not be the most efficient route to learning what is not grammatically acceptable. Negative evidence (information about what is not acceptable in a language) obtained during conversational negotiation may, at times, be more efficient and helpful to learners.

Long's work primarily addressed interactions between NSs and NNSs; however, there is empirical evidence (Adams, 2007; Fuji & Mackey, 2009; Leeser, 2004; Mackey et al., 2003; Pica et al., 1996; Williams, 1999, 2001) to suggest that in NNS-NNS interactions learners can also give and receive valuable feedback; but in order for that to occur, they must speak and interact.

In addition to interaction research, in which quantitive methods predominate, other researchers have chosen to examine language learning from a sociocultural perspective. Sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978) views language learning as a process that is situated in a social context; it is an inter-mental process, where learners collaborate to co-construct knowledge. Learners are supported and assisted by other more able experts, such as a teacher, parent, or more advanced learner. The metaphor of scaffolding (Bruner, 1974) is now widely used to illustrate the concept of temporary assistance provided by more able others until the novice can function independently. Sociocultural theory has provided the framework for much of the qualitative research on second language acquisition and typically seeks to discover *how* learners and teachers collaborate in order to expand their linguistic knowledge. Working from this perspective, Donato and MacCormick (1994) have provided further evidence that conversational interaction during collaborative tasks may be beneficial not

only in NS-NNS interactions, but also between NNS-NNS. According to Donato (1994), collaborative interaction between peers facilitates language acquisition because the roles of learners as novices and experts are fluid, allowing learners to co-construct knowledge.

In short, over the past four decades, there has been mounting quantitative and qualitative evidence to suggest that, in addition to rich comprehensible input, oral language production occurring during peer interactions (as well as during NS-NNS interactions) can, in many instances, benefit and facilitate language acquisition as well as speaking proficiency and fluency in a target language. Regrettably, despite the evidence that conversational interactions can be beneficial to language acquisition, learners often do not seek out opportunities to use the target language (e.g., Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Donato and MacCormick (1994) voiced concern for this problem, and expressed what many language teachers feel:

> Functional practice strategies, or the active social use of the new language in real, communicative situations (e.g., seeking out foreign language speakers, attending foreign language events, finding ways to use the new language with others, etc.), although strongly supported in the literature, were infrequently invoked by these language students (i.e., Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). In other words, the types of strategies that most directly benefit students in developing language ability were the ones that they appeared most resistant to using. This finding is indeed distressing" (pp. 453-454).

2.3 Overview of Language Learning Strategy (LLS) Research

2.3.1 Background.

With the publication of a seminal article entitled *Interlanguage* (Selinker, 1972), applied linguists' focus shifted away from the *product* of language learning, to the *process* of language learning. This shift was important because it meant that the erroneous patterns exhibited in language learners' attempts to produce the target language were no longer regarded in negative

terms, as evidence of unsuccessful acquisition of the target language; a learner's interlanguage was viewed by Selinker as a valid, evolving system of language in its own right and (more importantly for researchers) as data that could provide insight into the psychological processes involved in second language learning. According to Selinker, the linguistic errors that learners make provide valuable data which can lead to

> the postulation of certain theoretical constructs, many of which have been set up to deal with other problems in the field. But they also help to clarify the phenomenon under discussion. These constructs, in turn, give us a framework within which to we can begin to isolate the psychologically relevant data of second language learning. The new perspective which an examination of this phenomenon gives us is thus very helpful both in an identification of relevant data and in the formulation of a psycholinguistic theory of second language learning (Selinker, 1972, p. 211).

Selinker hypothesized that there were certain *psycholinguistic* processes underlying a learner's interlanguage, including *strategies of second language learning.*

Following soon after Selinker's (1972) article, a series of research studies commonly referred to as the *good language learner studies* (Rubin, 1975, 1981; Stern, 1975; Naiman et al., 1978) appeared. These studies examined successful language learners, with the goal of identifying the factors that contributed to their successful second language acquisition.

In 1975, two researchers, working independently, took the first steps to identify strategies used by good language learners (GLL). Stern (in Naiman et al., 1978) differentiated between *strategies* and *techniques;* where *strategies* are "general, more or less deliberate approaches" (Naiman et al., p. 4), and *techniques* are more specific: "observable forms of language learning behaviour are employed" (p. 4). Stern suggested an inventory of ten LLS as follows (as cited in Naiman et al., 1978, p. 5):

(1)	**Planning Strategy**	A personal learning style or positive learning strategies.
(2)	**Active Strategy**	An active approach to the learning task.
(3)	**Empathic Strategy**	A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers.
(4)	**Formal Strategy**	Technical know-how about how to tackle a language.
(5)	**Experimental Strategy**	A methodical but flexible approach, developing the new language into an ordered system and constantly revising it.
(6)	**Semantic Strategy**	Constant searching for meaning.
(7)	**Practice Strategy**	Willingness to practice.
(8)	**Communication Strategy**	Willingness to use the language in real communication.
(9)	**Monitoring Strategy**	Self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.
(10)	**Internalization Strategy**	Developing L2 more and more as a separate reference system and leaning to think in it.

Stern's strategy inventory was adjusted somewhat in 1978 when Naiman et al. published *The Good Language Learner*; a list of *techniques* mentioned by the interviewees was presented for sound acquisition, grammar, vocabulary, listening comprehension, learning to talk, learning to read and learning to write.

In Joan Rubin's (1975) early work, LLS were defined as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p. 43). Rubin provided the following list of the qualities of a GLL (pp. 45-47):

> 1. The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser.
> 2. He/she has a strong drive to communicate or to learn from a communication.
> 3. The good language learner is often not inhibited.

> 4. In addition to focusing on communication, the good language is prepared to attend to form. The good language learner is constantly looking for patterns in the language.
> 5. The good language learner practices.
> 6. The good language learner monitors his own and the speech the speech of others.
> 7. The good language learner attends to meaning. He/she knows that is not sufficient to pay attention to the grammar of the language or to the surface form of speech.

In 1981, Rubin refined her initial seven strategies into two general groups: direct strategies and indirect strategies. Six categories of strategies comprised the direct group: *clarification/verification, monitoring*, *memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning*, and *practice*; and two strategies were included in the indirect strategy group: *creates opportunities for practice* and *production tricks*.

Both Stern's and Rubin's early lists of strategies presented a number of problems, and as Stern (1975) pointed out, his ten strategies were highly speculative. Nonetheless, these early attempts to identify strategies paved the way for four decades of strategy research to follow; the significance of strategy research in the field of applied linguistics was acknowledged when, in 1980, Canale and Swain proposed a theoretical framework for communicative competence which included three main components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence.

2.3.2 Definitions.

After four decades of research into language learning strategies, applied linguists continue to grapple with a number of significant problems that have not yet been adequately resolved. Perhaps the most important issue hindering LLS research concerns the fact that there is a wide

variation among researchers in the terminology they use to discuss LLS, as well as how they define strategies.

Firstly, the GLL (e.g., Rubin, 1975) has not always been adequately defined in the literature. This is not only a theoretical issue, but also one which has significant methodological implications. Macaro (2010) points out in his review of 48 LLS studies, that researchers have operationally defined success in a number of ways (e.g., proficiency, ability, expertise, and achievement), and that language learning success (the dependant variable in much of the research) has not been adequately defined or justified, a condition that makes comparisons between studies difficult. Many studies equate success with proficiency; however, as Macaro (2010) argues, proficiency does not provide information about the intensity of effort expended; proficiency represents a *product* (a snapshot of a student's ability at one point in time); it is the *process* that is significant to LLS research. Macaro makes the point that success can only be measured longitudinally and in context.

In addition to problems associated with defining *the good (*or *successful) language learner*, the biggest issue facing LLS research has to do with applied linguists' failure to adequately define *strategies.* Cohen (1998) pointed out that the range of terminology used in the literature further complicate matters; indeed, the terms *strategy, operation, routine, process, procedure, action, tactic, technique, plan,* and *step* have all been used. Applied linguists must resolve this semantic dilemma and find agreed-upon definitions if research in this area is to move forward.

The term *strategy* has been defined in the literature in a variety of ways. Oxford (1989) defined strategies as "behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable" (p. 235). In 1990, she provided a more comprehensive

definition of LLS, describing them as "specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability*"* (p. 8). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) described LLS as "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p. 1). Cohen (2011) provided the following definition: "Thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target-language performance" (p. 7). These definitions serve to illustrate the range of ways that strategies have been conceptualized.

Macaro (2006) has identified and discussed in detail a number of issues and questions that have arisen from the various attempts to define strategies. (1) There is no consensus about whether strategies are neurological processes, cognitive operations, or behavioural acts involving motor skills. (2) Many lists of strategies indicate a size-abstractness dilemma, with some strategies being very specific; others are general, and some are very concrete; others are abstract. (3) There is debate concerning what level of consciousness or awareness defines a strategy. (4) It is unclear whether strategies can be transferred across learning contexts.

In an attempt to address some of these issues, Macaro (2006) has proposed placing LLS within a cognitive framework, defining them as "the raw material of cognitive processing" (p. 325). He suggests that strategies are conscious mental actions undertaken with a goal, in a particular context, and need to be distinguished from subconscious activity (although subconscious processes have the potential to be modified when brought to conscious attention).

"Given that the framework situates strategies in the domain of cognitive behaviour, not overt motor behaviour, a strategy is more appropriately described in terms of thinking rather than doing" (p. 327). Macaro, in situating LLS in the cognitive domain, diminishes the role of social interaction in language learning. From a teaching perspective, a cognitive framework is not practical.

To address the size-abstractness dilemma, Macaro suggests an approach to strategy identification that would require describing a strategy in such a way that it would be reduced to the lowest relevant level of articulation within the boundaries of conscious cognition. This represents an enormous undertaking, which (Macaro estimates) may result in the identification of hundreds of strategies.

2.3.3 Language learning strategy taxonomies.

In order to classify strategies, a number of systems have been proposed. Much of the work done in the 1970's and 1980's consisted of identifying strategies and creating lists; unfortunately, there is no theoretical basis for many of the taxonomies that have been created.

Tarone (1977, 1980, 1981) has suggested that strategies used to learn a language represent only one type of strategy within a broader perspective, and that strategies should be classified according to their *purpose* (i.e., language learning, communication, or production). Tarone (1980) defined *communication strategies* (CS) as "mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (p. 420). Examples of CSs include *transfer*, *overgeneralization*, *mime*, *avoidance* and *appeal to authority*, among others. Thus, CSs are motivated by a desire to communicate meaning, whereas *language learning strategies* (LLS) are motivated by a desire to learn the target language. Alternately, some researchers have argued that CSs are a type of LLS. Tarone (1981) concedes

that it is impossible to know what has motivated the learner: a desire to communicate or a desire to learn the language or both; furthermore, the use of a CS may result in language learning; thus the distinction between the two types of strategies has been somewhat fuzzy. Production strategies (PS), according to Tarone (1981), are attempts "to use one's linguistic system efficiently and clearly, with a minimum of effort. Production strategies are similar to CSs in that they are attempts to use one's linguistic system, but PSs differ in that they lack the interactional focus on the negotiation of meaning" (Tarone, 1981, p. 289).

Tarone, examined CSs from an interactional perspective; however, other researchers (e.g., Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991) view CSs as primarily psychological processes, arising from linguistic gaps. They argue that "product-based taxonomies are inadequate for practical and theoretical reasons" (Nakatani & Goh, 2007, p. 219).

Other researchers (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990) have classified LLS according to broad *types* (e.g., cognitive, metacognitive, or social/affective). The two most influential and widely used taxonomies are those developed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990). O'Malley and Chamot created a taxonomy based on the work that had been done in cognitive processing theory, taking the position that "second language acquisition is a complex cognitive skill" (p. 19). In this classification system, strategies are defined as "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (1990, p. 1).Their list of core learning strategies includes 20 independent strategy types in three general categories: metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective. Unfortunately, the authors make almost no mention of the social/affective category, stating that "Affective strategies are of less interest in an analysis such as ours which attempts to portray strategies in a cognitive theory" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 44). Nonethless, three individual

strategies are listed in O'Malley and Chamot's social/affective category: *cooperation, questioning and clarification,* and *self-talk*.

At about the same time as O'Malley and Chamot proposed their taxonomy, Oxford (1990) also published what was to become a dominant work in the field of strategy research. Following Rubin's (1981) lead, strategies in Oxford's (1990) system are classified as either direct or indirect. The direct class includes three categories: *memory, cognitive*, and *compensation* strategies, while the indirect class also includes three categories: *metacognitive, affective*, and *social* strategies. Oxford's classification system differs from O'Malley & Chamot's, in that social/affective category is viewed as two distinct groups rather than as one.

Oxford's six categories include a number of individual strategies. The affective category includes the following three: *lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself*, and *taking your emotional temperature*; the social category includes three: *asking questions, cooperating with others,* and *empathizing with others*.

Although cognitive theory may provide a framework for examining cognitive and metacognitive LLS, as of yet, there is no theoretical basis for social or affective LLS. In addition, some of the strategies outlined in taxonomies are not easily categorized in practice. As a consequence, researchers have expressed dissatisfaction and frustration with existing taxonomies: "The taxonomies of strategies are atheoretical. When there is no theory to inform coding decisions within and across studies, they are rather arbitrary. We consider this a general weakness of all studies investigating strategy use" (Swain et al, 2009, p. 54).

2.3.4 Strategy instruction.

From the beginning, much of the LLS research has been motivated by a desire to help struggling language learners benefit by developing a deeper understanding of what it is that

GLLs do to be successful. The early work done by Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975, 1981), assumed that the strategies used by GLL could be identified and taught to other learners in order to help them become more effective language learners. "I would like to suggest that if we knew more about what the successful language learners did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners to enhance their success record" (Rubin, 1975, p. 42). However, the feasibility of teaching LLS remains a source of debate among teachers and researchers.

Three positions can be identified regarding the teachability of LLS; some researchers believe that LLS should be explicitly taught to learners (e.g. Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990); others have challenged the idea that LLS can or should be directly taught (e.g., Kellerman, 1991; Reese-Miller, 1993; Rossiter, 2003). A third possibility (and the position taken in the present study), lies somewhere in between the first two: learners can benefit by being actively involved in reflecting on his or her own strategic behaviour within the context of a specific goal (e.g., Donato & MacCormick, 1974; Huang, 2010, 2012).

Regarding the first perspective, research has provided mixed results; some researchers have reported positive findings in response to explicit strategy instruction (e.g., Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1995; Nakatani, 2005), and others have reported negative findings (e.g., O'Malley, 1987; Rossiter, 2003; Wenden, 1987). Macaro (2006) has expressed the opinion that overall "learner strategy instruction (or "training") appears to be effective in promoting successful learning if it is carried out over lengthy periods of time and if it includes a focus on metacognition" (p. 321).

Researchers opposed to direct strategy instruction (e.g., Huang, 2012; Reese-Miller, 1993) have expressed doubts about whether the benefits of strategy instruction justify the lengthy periods of time required. Reese-Miller, in particular, voiced strong opposition in 1993 to the direct teaching of LLS and pointed out that although correlations had been found, she was

unwilling to sacrifice valuable classroom time for strategy instruction when there had not yet been a demonstrated causal relationship between strategy awareness and L2 learning success. Kellerman (1991) took the position that learners already have strategies from their first language and can simply transfer them to their second language. He recommended that teachers should simply "teach the learners more language and let the strategies take care of themselves" (p.158). Donato and MacCormick (1994) also expressed doubts that higher mental processes could be directly taught with uniform success, and write that LLSs

> are generated from the primary social practice of the classroom culture. Stated another way, learning about and using any strategy, efficient or otherwise, are by-products of socialization into the classroom practices of language learning. The implication of this assertion is that learning about strategies should not be understood only in terms of direct instruction. Rather, they are developed in "communities of practice" where individuals, initially inexperienced and unaware, are apprenticed into full participation into the socio-cultural practices of the community in which they live (p. 454).

The third position (the one adopted in the present study) may be a practical compromise between the first two positions. This approach may require less classroom time and involves raising learners' awareness of their own strategy use through reflection. Reflection has been effectively used by many researchers (e.g., De Saint Léger, 2009; Donato & MacCormick, 1994; Huang, 2010, 2012). Teachers have a long tradition of using reflection in the classroom, most frequently to focus learners' attention on cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Rogers' (2001) critical examination of seven major theoretical approaches to reflection indicated a consensus among researchers that reflection is primarily a cognitive process; however, Boud et al. (1985) emphasized the importance of the emotions of the individual in the reflective process. Learners may be unaccustomed to reflecting on their social and affective behaviours in the classroom, where the focus is typically on cognitive processing; however, as Rogers (2001) argues,

"Ultimately, the intent of reflection is to integrate the understanding gained into one's experience in order to enable better choices or actions in the future as well to enhance one's overall effectiveness" (p. 41). Rogers summarized four common elements among the seven theoretical approaches to reflection:

> These included reflection as a cognitive and affective process or activity that (1) requires active engagement on the part of the individual; (2) is triggered by an unusual or perplexing situation or experience; (3) involves examining one's responses, beliefs, and premises in light of the situation at hand; and (4) results in integration of the new understanding into one's experience (p. 41).

In addition to these essential elements, a number of environmental factors play a role (e.g., feedback, access and connection to others, stimulation by others, and challenging performance demands).

2.3.5 Research methods for LLS research.

LLS research poses a number of challenges, not only theoretical, but also methodological: strategies are often covert; participants are often unable to remember or articulate what strategies they use; the modality and the language chosen to report strategic behaviour may determine the quality or restrict the amount of data that is gathered; and finally, data gathering methods are not feasible in all contexts or for all purposes. In short, strategy research is fraught with difficulties and limitations.

Various methods have been used to examine speaking strategies including oral interviews, written questionnaires, observations, verbal reports, diaries and dialogue journals, and stimulated recalls.

A number of strategy questionnaires have been developed; however, two of the most recognized are Oxford's (1989, 1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), and

Cohen and Chi's (2002) Language Strategy Use Inventory and Index (LSUII). Although the SILL is most commonly used, it is not without critics (e.g., Locastro, 1994, Dörnyei, 2005; Tseng et al., 2006). Locastro, in a study examining strategic behaviours used by adult Asian learners of English, suggested that the SILL may not be transferable across sociocultural domains; while Dörnyei (2005) argued that the SILL was psychometrically flawed, and that it does not reflect the general view in strategy theory. According to Dörnyei, it is not *frequency*, but *quality* of strategy use that is important.

Written reports and diaries have been used to good effect by a number of researchers (e.g., Carson & Longhini, 2002; Donato &MacCormick, 1994; Garrett & Young, 2009). The best results have been found when participants report immediately upon task completion, and when reporting is done in the language they feel most comfortable using. Stimulated recall has been employed as a method to address problems arising due to memory constraints, and to obtain more accurate and detailed reports (e.g., Guo, 2012).

Observation presents obvious limitations in collecting strategy data, particularly when strategies are not overt. There are obvious dangers in attempting to label an outwardly observable action or behaviour as a specific strategy; nonetheless, observation has proved effective in some situations and has been useful as a means of corroborating participants' reports (e.g., Guo, 2012; Huang, 2011).

Modality of data collection is another important consideration influencing methodology. Huang (2010) investigated the outcomes of reporting in different modalities as well as in different groupings (individual vs. group reports). She found that members of the individual spoken reflection group and the individual written reflection group were similar in their strategy

use; however, individual spoken reflection group reported more approach and affective strategies.

As a result of the limitations associated with each of these data collection methods, success in gathering detailed, accurate information regarding language learners' strategic behaviour remains elusive, and researchers have had to make the most of the tools that are currently available.

2.4 Interdisciplinary Perspectives

2.4.1 Social cognitive theories of self-regulated learning.

Recently, some researchers in the field of LLS research (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005; Oxford, 2011) have moved towards paradigms of strategic behaviour that incorporate theories of self-regulated learning (SRL) in educational psychology. Dörnyei (2005) has rejected LLS as a viable field of study altogether in favour of SRL, questioning the very existence of strategies, while others have adopted SRL as a framework for continued LLS research (Oxford, 2011). Indeed, the social cognitive basis of SRL may provide the wider framework needed to explain not only the cognitive processes, but also the social and affective processes involved in strategic learning, which cognitive theories have largely ignored. "Many researchers describe metacognitive monitoring as the hub of self-regulated learning. Monitoring in self-regulated learning is more than just cognitive monitoring. It involves sophisticated checking system, in which learners compare where they are with where they should be (or would like to be) with respect to different kinds of goals. Thus, self-regulated learners monitor progress with respect to goals and standards associated with cognition, motivation, behavior, and affect" (Hadwin, 2008, p. 176).

Models of SRL have been proposed by a number of researchers (e.g., Winnie & Hadwin, 1998; Zimmerman, 1989; Pintrich, 2000). Hadwin (2008) defined self-regulated learning (SRL) as: "the deliberate planning, monitoring and regulating of cognitive, behavioral and affective processes towards completion of an academic task" (para. 2). Thus, affect is recognised as a significant factor in self-regulation (Schutz & Davis, 2000; Hadwin, 2008). Furthermore, researchers (Boekaerts, 2011; Goetz, Frenzel, Pekrun, & Hall, 2005) have proposed that students can learn "intelligent processing" of emotions, a process which involves using cognitive abilities to perceive, reflect on, and regulate emotions.

Zimmerman (1989) proposed a theory of social cognitive self-regulation as "actions and processes directed at acquiring information or skill that involve agency, purpose, and instrumentality perceptions by learners" (p. 329), suggesting that self-regulation goes beyond thoughts and cognitive processes to include actions.

Winne and Hadwin (2011) describe strategic SRL as a recursive process involving four metacognitive phases: (1) defining the task, (2) planning, (3) enacting, and (4) evaluating (reflection). In their view, SRL promotes "strategic approaches to adopting and adapting learning methods rather than scripted techniques for studying. This self-regulatory approach engages students to research their own learning, developing metacognitive knowledge and skills to improve the quality of their learning" (Winnie & Hadwin, 2011, p. 1).

Recently, Oxford (2011), drawing from theories of SRL, has developed a model of strategic language learning which she refers to as *Strategic Self-Regulation* (S^2R). Oxford's S^2R model represents an attempt to address many of the issues that have plagued the field of LLS theory. The size dilemma discussed by Macaro (2006) is dealt with by making use of a hierarchical system of tactics, strategies, and metastrategies. In this model, Oxford (2011)

classifies strategies into three main interconnected groups: *cognitive*, *affective*, and *sociocultural-interactive* (SI). As well, Oxford has proposed a model where each of these categories of strategies is controlled by metastrategies which effectively are responsible for planning, organizing, monitoring and evaluating. In previous models, the term *metacognition* referred to the monitoring and regulation of not only cognition, but also affect, and social behaviour. Oxford, however, has suggested that each of these three categories should have its own meta-level and proposes three categories: meta-cognitive strategies, meta-affective strategies and meta-SI strategies. Tactics, in Oxford's scheme, are the specific manifestations of a strategy by a particular learner in a particular situation. Whereas strategies and metastrategies occur in the mind and are unobservable, tactics are often observable. While Macaro (2006) has estimated that there may be hundreds of strategies, Oxford goes even further, suggesting that the number of tactics is theoretically infinite, as they may be deployed in any number of contexts by different individuals to attain a variety of goals and represent the creative choices and preferences of the learner.

Oxford's S^2R also tackles the problem of the conscious/unconscious issue by differentiating between strategies and skills. In the S^2R model, the definition of self-regulated L2 learning strategies has been based on Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris' (2008) definition and are "deliberate, goal-directed attempt to manage and control efforts to learn the L2" (p. 12). Skills, on the other hand, are automatic and out of awareness. It is not possible to know whether an action is a strategy without knowing whether it is deliberate or not.

2.4.2 A cognitive-motivational model on the effects of emotions.

In addition to providing theories of SRL, researchers in educational psychology have also suggested models of affect in learning contexts (Pekrun et al, 2002). Although scholars

acknowledge that affect plays a significant role in learning, Pekrun et al. (2002) point out that there is a dearth of research in this area. This need for further attention given to affect in language learning (and in education generally) has been voiced by many researchers (Bown & White, 2010a, 2010b; Pekrun et al., 2002). Furthermore, within the research that has been done on affect, there are significant gaps. The results of five exploratory studies (Pekrun et al., 2002), revealed that eight emotions were most frequently reported by participants in academic settings: hope, enjoyment of learning, anger, pride, relief, boredom, shame, and anxiety. Despite this emotional diversity, a survey of the research investigating academic emotions (Pekrun et al., 2002) revealed that anxiety was the emotion examined in the vast majority of studies; the other emotions have been largely neglected. In addition, there have been very few studies examining students' regulation of their emotions. Scholars (Bown, 2006; Bown & White, 2010b; Linnenbrink, 2007; Pekrun & Schutz, 2007; Schutz & Davis, 2000) have called for further research in this direction as well as greater interdisciplinary collaboration to address the issues in this field (Pekrun & Schutz, 2007). These gaps need to be addressed as research in the affective domain has important implications for second language acquisition.

A review of the literature reveals that terms such as *affect, mood,* and *emotion* are a source of debate among cognitive psychologists. While some researchers use the three terms interchangeably (e.g., Shell & Husman, 2008), other researchers (e.g., Rosenberg, 1998) equate affect with emotion but view mood somewhat differently. In Rosenberg's terms, emotions (and affect) are short, intense episodes with identifiable triggers, while moods are general affective states which are longer lasting and do *not* have identifiable referents. A further differentiation is made between affective *states* and affective *traits*. Moods and emotions (states) are considered transitory, whereas affective traits are generally viewed as enduring components of an

individual's personality. Pekrun (2006) identifies emotions as "multi-component, coordinated processes of psychological subsystems including affective, cognitive, motivational, expressive, and peripheral physiological processes" (p. 316). For the purpose of this study, the term affect is used interchangeably with emotion and is limited to transitory states that occur during and immediately after speaking tasks rather than enduring personality traits.

Researchers (e.g., Boekaerts, 2011; Dewaele, 2005; Pavlenko, 2005; Pekrun, 2002) have recently shown increased interest in the role that emotions play specifically in learning contexts. With this focus in mind, Pekrun et al. (2002) introduced the term *academic emotions* to identify those emotions "that are directly linked to academic learning, classroom instruction, and achievement (e.g., enjoyment of learning, pride of success, or test-related anxiety)" (p. 92); although, in the literature, the term *achievement emotions* is also widely used. Emotions have typically been categorized as positive or negative; however, the cognitive-motivational model suggested by Pekrun et al. (2002) includes a second dimension to further classify emotions: *activating* or *deactivating* (whether or not an emotion is arousing). This second dimension allows for four possible categories in Pekrun's model: (1) positive activating emotions (enjoyment, hope, and pride), (2) positive deactivating emotions (relief), (3) negative activating emotions (anger, anxiety, and shame), and (4) negative deactivating emotions (boredom and hopelessness).

Pekrun et al. (2002) have suggested a control-value theory to explain the source of academic emotions. According to this theory, antecedents to emotions can be individual appraisals or environmental/social factors. Individual appraisals include both control and value beliefs. Control beliefs refer to the beliefs that a learner has regarding his or her ability to control academic outcomes, while value beliefs refer to the subjective values and goals that a learner attributes to learning the subject matter – both intrinsic and extrinsic. Control and value beliefs

are both considered to be necessary antecedents to academic emotions. For example, "it is assumed that learning-related enjoyment presupposes that the student has a sense of being able to master the material (high control) and intrinsically values the material (high interest)" (Pekrun et al., 2002, p. 101). In contrast to enjoyment, anxiety is typically characterized by a pattern of low control, combined with high value.

In addition to individual appraisals, this theory suggests that social (or environmental) factors can be antecedents to academic emotions. These include: quality of instruction; whether or not learner autonomy is supported; feedback; achievement expectancies; and social relatedness and support in the classroom. Environmental or social antecedents are mediated by individual appraisals, so that an environmental trigger may result in enjoyment of learning for one individual, and anxiety in another. Pekrun et al.'s control-value theory of academic emotions model (2002) suggests that emotions are not simply *products* of individual and social/environmental antecedents – emotions also *precede* learning and influence outcomes such as motivation, the ability to focus cognitive resources on a task, and the strategic behaviour.

According to Pekrun et al.'s theory, emotions may predict motivational outcomes. Anxiety, for example, although categorized as a negative activating emotion, will be mediated by individual control-value beliefs and may result in activation and motivation for some individuals, but may result in freezing for others. Boredom, on the other hand, is generally considered to be a negative deactivating emotion, and thus, predicts a low level of motivation.

Affect also has important implications for cognitive processes. Anxiety, for example, has been shown to have a detrimental effect on working memory in testing situations (Hembree, 1988). In addition, researchers (Meinhardt & Pekrun, 2003) believe that strong emotions (both

positive and negative) use cognitive resources and can direct a learner's attention toward the source of the emotion and away from the learning task.

Pekrun et al. (2002) suggest that emotions may have implications concerning learners' strategic behaviours: "It may be assumed that positive academic emotions facilitate the use of flexible, creative learning strategies such as elaboration, organization, critical evaluation, and metacognitive monitoring. Negative emotions, on the other hand, may trigger the use of more rigid strategies, such as simple rehearsal and reliance on algorithmic procedures" (p. 97).

2.5 Empirical Research

Although the strategy research has addressed the modalities of listening, reading and writing, in the past, little work has been done with specific reference to the effects of strategy training on *speaking* in a second language (Lam & Wong, 2000; Hassan et al., 2005). Likewise, there is a dearth of research on social and affective LLS. Hassan et al. (2005), in their review of published and unpublished LLS training research, found that the majority of studies addressed cognitive or metacognitive interventions; none specifically targeted social or affective training. Although there has been a recent increase in the number of social and affective intervention studies done since 2005, Hassan et al.'s report highlights the significant need for ongoing research in this field.

A number of studies have examined the frequencies of strategic behaviours. One consistent finding has been a lower frequency of reported social and affective strategy use (Guo, 2012; Huang, 2010; Swain et al., 2009). It is, however, important to note that the *frequency* with which a strategy is used may not necessarily correlate with performance (e.g., Guo, 2012). Researchers agree that strategies can only be defined as good or successful relative to their goal, and may vary in usefulness according to the learner, the context, the target language, the

modality, and the goal. Not all strategies may be useful in all situations, nor does a greater number or frequency of strategies does not necessarily mean greater success. As Wolters (2003) has pointed out with reference to motivational strategies:

> The need to use a motivational regulation strategy may only be triggered when students experience problems with their ongoing level of motivation, learning, or performance. It is possible that students will sometimes begin and complete a task with a consistently high level of motivation and thus may not experience any obstacles that interrupt their initiation, engagement, and persistence at the task. During such times students are unlikely to engage any regulation strategies intended to influence their motivation. This reasoning suggests that students who express highly adaptive motivational beliefs and attitudes may sometimes use motivational regulation strategies less frequently than students with less adaptive beliefs and attitudes may" (p. 191).

It also seems that some strategies (or strategy clusters) are more beneficial in some contexts than others. Swain et al. (2009), for example, found negative correlations between the use of metacognitive strategies and speaking performance in a testing context. The authors hypothesized that due to the online nature of speaking, metacognitive strategies may take up working memory at the expense of cognitive resources necessary for the task. The strategy of *justifying one's performance* was also found to have a negative correlation with poor speaking performance. This seemingly negative strategy may have been used to bolster self esteem and as a method of self-talk in response to poor performance, rather than as a strategy to directly enhance performance.

Recently, several researchers (e.g., Bown, 2006; Bown & White, 2010; Carson & Longhini, 2002; Garret & Young, 2009; Naughton, 2005; Rossiter, 2003; de Saint Léger, 2009; Tsou, 2005) have made contributions to understanding social and affective strategy use, as well as strategy use in speaking contexts.

Garret and Young (2009) examined the results of Garret's verbal reports to Young during an 8-week intensive Portuguese course. The two met twice a week to discuss Garret's experiences and emotions. Four main topics emerged as eliciting emotional responses from Garret: her own awareness of her knowledge of Portuguese, her inner teacher voice, social relations with her peers and teachers, and her response to Portuguese culture. Among the four emotional triggers, the majority of her emotions were in response to social relations in the classroom. Although Garret's experiences were individual and subjective, they serve to highlight the significance of social cohesion in a classroom language learning context and the importance of shared experience and understanding among learners. As the researchers report:

> During Week 1, she (Garret) felt very uncomfortable about not being able to speak with her classmates and not knowing more about who they were, why they were taking the class, or their prior experience with Portuguese... Once the students did a collective task together in the target language, Garrett felt more comfortable contributing because she realized that even though their levels differed, everyone was struggling to communicate. She felt this created a stronger cohesion in the class (p. 218).

For Garret, social relationships and a sense of cohesion among the class were factors influencing both her emotions her willingness to contribute in class.

Naughton (2005) examined the effects of explicitly teaching learners strategic interaction patterns during discussion talks. The participants were 45 Spanish speakers at a university in Spain studying English. The researcher taught the learners in an experimental group four interaction patterns: the use of follow-up questions, requesting and giving feedback, repair, and requesting and giving help. "If learner-learner interaction is to lead to the social construction of knowledge about the FL [foreign language], peer collaboration is essential, and a cooperative learning approach seems to be an adequate way of promoting this type of behavior" (p. 179). In

Naughton's study, participation was operationalized as the number of turns taken. Participants working in groups of three were asked to discuss topics chosen by the researcher for 7.5 minutes during a pretest and post test. The experimental group (EG) increased the number of turns taken over the eight weeks, while the comparison group (CG) decreased. Results indicated that, on the pretest, the EG did not produce significantly more turns than the CG; however, on the post test, eight weeks later, they did produce significantly more turns. Results of a *t* test, however, indicated that the changes that occurred (in both the EG and CG) from pretest to post test were not statistically significant. In terms of strategy use (defined as follow-up questions, requesting and giving feedback, repair, and requesting and giving help), the EG demonstrated a significant increase over the eight weeks, while the CG showed no significant change.

In a similar study, Tsou (2005), expressing concern about her students' levels of participation in speaking tasks, examined participation instruction (PI) as a tool to increase Taiwanese students' levels of oral participation (operationally defined as turn-taking during teacher-fronted discussions). PI instruction consisted of a number of activities such as emphasizing the importance of participation, explaining to learners that they were free to ask questions and interrupt or discuss topics with teachers during class, watching videos of American classrooms and discussing the participation behaviours, and explicitly teaching functional expressions such as: "*'I have something to say'... 'Could you explain it'... 'So you were saying'* " (p. 49). Tsou hypothesized that explicitly teaching PI would (1) increase participants' oral output, and (2) increase their proficiency in the target language (English). She found that PI did *not* significantly increase participants' oral classroom participation over the 12 week period; however, the experimental group on average, significantly increased scores in motivation as well as scores on the Speaking Proficiency English Assessment Kit (SPEAK).

In another study, Watanabe and Swain (2008) examined learner interactions and proficiency levels. They focused on one particular factor influencing peer interactions: learner *perceptions* of peer proficiency levels. Although in this study the tasks were written rather that oral, the results have some interesting social and affective implications for peer assistance: the "*measured* proficiency difference did not necessarily affect the nature of peer assistance; rather, *perceived* proficiency seemed to influence how each learner interacted with peers" (p.115). In addition, the researchers also examined collaboration and proficiency levels, and concluded that collaborative patterns were more likely to predict learning than a partner's proficiency level. Successful collaboration requires the group members to respect one another's perspectives and trust each other's opinions.

A descriptive study carried out by Bown and White (2010a) examined the emotions of students learning Russian at a Midwestern U.S. university in an individualized, self-instructed program. Like Garret and Young (2009), these researchers found that social antecedents were one of the primary factors influencing affective states. In addition, this study provided concrete evidence of learners intelligently processing their emotions by using affective strategies to complete a task or achieve a goal.

In 2009, de Saint Léger examined the use of self-assessment (SA) among 31 advanced learners of French at a postsecondary institution. SA was introduced in an attempt to encourage student to participate more actively in classroom speaking tasks. While SA served to increase learners' awareness of problematic aspects of their learning, it is not clear whether this awareness led them to take concrete steps to modify their behaviour. Students' reaction to the SA process was positive overall, and in an anonymous questionnaire administered at the end of the term, 70% of students reported thinking that SA was beneficial and should be kept as a part of

the program for future classes. In addition, data from the SA questionnaires suggested that learners perceived improvements in their spoken French, particularly in vocabulary, fluency, and confidence. These reports, as de Saint Léger points out, are purely subjective, and one limitation of this study is the lack of data (such as speech samples collected at various points throughout the semester) to validate the learners' perceptions.

In 2002, Carson and Longhini published a case study of Carson's natural (immersion) language learning experience during an eight week period in Argentina. Carson's diary entries suggested that she used affective strategies infrequently; however, the diary-keeping process was beneficial, as it permitted Carson to develop an awareness of the situations that triggered her anxiety, specifically talking with unfamiliar people. This study offers some interesting insight into strategies used in acquiring a second language in a natural language learning context rather than in a classroom; however, it is limited by the fact that Carson, a professor of applied linguistics, is not representative of a typical of second language learner.

Rossiter (2003) investigated the effects of direct instruction of affective strategies such *consciousness-raising*, *relaxation training*, *visualization*, *positive self-talk*, *humour*, *risk-taking*, and *monitoring emotions* on L2 oral proficiency and self-efficacy. This intervention included 31 adult ESL students enrolled in a full-time program at a Canadian university. One group was provided with 12 hours of affective strategy instruction over a ten-week period; the other group received no treatment. Results of this study showed no significant differences between the two groups with regard to proficiency or levels of self-efficacy. It is possible that affective strategy use is a very individual and subjective matter, and that direct training is not effective; the teacher involved in the research reported that although the strategy instruction was generally well received, at times the experimental group seemed uncomfortable with the training, and that

during the visualization activity there were "'lots of snickers, sexual imagery, joking'... 'students had a hard time taking the music seriously': one student rose, walked over to the tape recorder, and turned it off abruptly, exclaiming that he couldn't think with the music playing" (Rossiter, 2003, p. 9). One limitation of this study is that Rossiter does not verify whether or not students actually used the affective strategies that were taught. Oxford (1990) suggests that strategies in the classroom involve some kind of definite plan or conscious action on the part of the learner to achieve a goal. Within models of SRL, language learning is not viewed as something learners are simply exposed to, but rather, it is a process in which learners must be active participants; self-regulated learning is considered to be an effortful process in which learners are actively engaged.

In contrast, Donato and MacCormick (1994) carried out action research in a French conversation class at the University of Pittsburgh where students were *not* provided with direct strategy instruction. Instead, learners developed their own strategies through ongoing reflection in a course that required them to create portfolios containing concrete evidence of their language learning. The researchers noted that many students explicitly wrote about how their goals became more specific over time. The portfolio required students to take responsibility for their own learning, and the researchers found that the portfolios led students to take concrete steps to select and enact strategies, rather than make abstract appraisals of their learning. With regard to speaking, the authors reported "In their first portfolio entries, only three students provided tape recorded conversations with others as evidence of their progress. By the third portfolio submission, three months later, all ten students were actively seeking out-of-class opportunities to speak French and provided cassette recordings or written summaries of this activity" (p. 461). The self awareness of strategic behaviour and readiness to act that learners in this study demonstrated was not immediate, but occurred over a three-month period. Reflection is not easy;

it is an effortful process that involves not only an increase in self awareness, but taking concrete steps to change ineffective patterns and achieve a goal. It is likely that the benefits of reflection and a shift of responsibility for learning from the teacher to the student require time and effort. Nonetheless, over a three month period, the portfolio work served to focus learners' awareness that *they* (not only their teacher) could take concrete steps to regulate their own second language learning. Donato and MacCormick reported that learners increased their efforts to find opportunities to speak in the target language; however, as a descriptive study, it did not provide quantitative measures of the increases in learners' oral output.

In conclusion, an examination of socio-cognitive theory, language learning strategy research, and studies examining socio-affective speaking strategies reveals a recent renewed interest in the role of affect and the role of social interaction in language learning; however, it also serves to illustrate that there is still much work to be done.

2.6 Research Questions

In the present study, the term LLS will encompass both language *learning* strategies and language *use* (including *communication*) strategies on the basis that both types of strategies are involved in language learning either directly or indirectly; whether or not they are all facilitative of language acquisition is another matter.

This action research was motivated by a pragmatic need to find ways to encourage learners to actively investigate, take responsibility for, and regulate their own social and affective strategic behaviours in classroom speaking tasks. While teachers frequently struggle with finding ways to persuade language learners to speak in classroom activities, learners themselves also express an awareness of and frustration with their lack of speaking. The purpose of this research, therefore, is an attempt to understand the factors that influence learners' levels of output in classroom speaking tasks, and to discover what social and affective strategies learners use to overcome speaking challenges. More specifically, this research examines the role of written reflection as a meditational tool to assist learners gain a greater awareness of their own social and affective strategic behaviours and take steps to select strategies that may assist them to find ways to speak in the target language. With that in mind, four questions were posed:

1. What social and affective strategies will members of the experimental group report in their written reflections using in carrying out goal-oriented, task-specific classroom speaking activities?
2. What kinds of changes in social and affective strategy use will the experimental group demonstrate in their written reflections over a 4-week period?

3. Is there a difference between the experimental group (EG) that participates in written reflection and the comparison group (CG) that does not, in oral output, as measured by (a) morpheme counts and (b) lexical diversity?

4. What are EG learners' perceptions of the reflection process as examined by a final anonymous questionnaire?

Chapter Three: Methodology

This research was undertaken in a classroom context and represents action research which drew on both qualitative and quantitative methods. This chapter describes the methods and research design in five main sections: (1) research setting, (2) participants, (3) instruments, (4) data collection procedures, and (5) data preparation and analysis.

3.1 Research Setting

The context of language learning is an important consideration when undertaking action research, and thus, some discussion of the academic setting is in order. The present study took place in a small private English language school in Victoria, British Columbia. The school permits a maximum of 15 students in a class, and classes are organized around four-week sessions referred to as "study blocks." At the end of each block, students' proficiency levels are assessed in order to determine whether or not they are ready to advance to a higher level. Students are afforded some flexibility to customize their program according to their individual schedule and goals, and although new students may begin and finish their studies any time (including mid-block), students typically enter the program in week one and exit in week four of any given block.

Mornings in this general English program are spent with the primary teachers covering a variety of functional topics, which encompass all four language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening, as well as grammar. In the afternoons, students have the opportunity to enroll in additional classes (e.g., Slang and Idioms, Pronunciation, Listening Skills, and Conversation) according to their interests or needs. In these afternoon classes, students leave

their morning classmates and form new class groupings with students from other classes. Alternatively, some students do not enroll in any option classes, choosing instead to leave their afternoons free. In this sense, the school caters to mature learners who are able to make their own decisions regarding the length of enrollment and selection of option classes.

Participants in this study were intact as a group for five mornings a week, for a total of four weeks; a longer data collection period was not feasible given the school's curriculum design. Taking into account non-instructional days and one holiday, total contact hours with the participants over the four weeks amounted to 57.6 hours.

For the purposes of the study, the researcher/teacher (referred to henceforth as the action researcher) shared the teaching of two morning classroom groups with another teacher. During the mid-morning break, the teacher and the action researcher exchanged classes and taught the same lesson plans again to the second class. In this way, two groups (one experimental and one comparison) were exposed to the same teachers, materials, lesson plans, and tasks. Other variables, in particular students' choice of additional afternoon option classes, could not be controlled.

3.2 Participants

Two intact classes of students participated in the research; they were at the lower-intermediate proficiency level as determined by the school's in-house assessment[1]. The present study reflects the pragmatic reality of many North American ESL schools, where learners from a variety of cultures and language backgrounds make up class groups. As a result, in this context where learners engage in cross-cultural communication, the use of social strategies is

[1] The school program is divided into eight levels of proficiency where level one represents the beginner level, and level eight approaches near-native proficiency. Participants in the present study were in level three.

particularly relevant. The two classes were randomly assigned to be the experimental group (EG) and the comparison group (CG). Five core participants in the EG and six core participants in the CG provided the data for the study. Details of these eleven participants' characteristics are summarized in Table 1. Participants' first languages in the two groups included: Korean, Japanese, Swiss-German, Portuguese, and Slovakian.

Table 1

Participants' Characteristics for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3

Characteristics		Experimental (n = 5)	Comparison (n = 6)
Age	Mean	21.8	30
	Range	20 - 28	18 - 51
Years of Learning English	Mean	8	6.8
	Range	3 - 13	1 - 13
Gender	Male	2	1
	Female	3	5
First Languages		Korean (1); Japanese (2); Swiss-German (2)	Korean (3); Portuguese (1); Spanish (1); Slovakian (1)

Note. N = 11

To address research question four, a final anonymous questionnaire was given to the 14 EG class members at the end of the four-week period. Because it was anonymous, it was impossible to identify those questionnaires which had been completed by the five core EG participants. As a result, all 14 members of the EG class' questionnaires were included in the analysis. It should be noted that the 14 EG members completed a minimum of two and a maximum of eight speaking/reflection sessions. Table 2 provides a summary of these participants' characteristics.

Table 2

Participants' Characteristics for Research Question 4

Characteristics		Experimental Group (n = 14)
Age	Mean	23
	Range	17 - 43
Years of Learning English	Mean	6.6
	Range	.66 – 17
Gender	Male	5
	Female	9
First Languages		Korean (3); Japanese (5); Swiss-German (3); Russian (1); Arabic (2)

Note. One participant reported a score of 52 on the TOEFL® iBT; another reported a score of 4.5 on the IELTS™.

3.3 Instruments

All data were collected in English, using four instruments: (1) a participant characteristics questionnaire (Appendix A), (2) Parts E and F of the SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, Oxford, 1989) (Appendix B), (3) a reflection journal (Appendix C), and (4) a final anonymous questionnaire addressing participants' perceptions of the reflection process (Appendix D).

3.3.1 Background questionnaire.

The background questionnaire (Appendix A) was designed to collect data concerning participants' age, gender, years of study, first language, additional languages spoken, and results of an IELTS™ or TOEFL® exam (if applicable).

3.3.2 SILL.

Parts E and F of Oxford's 1989 SILL (Appendix B) were used to identify changes regarding learners' perceived frequency of social and affective strategic behaviour from the beginning of the study in week 1 to the end of the study in week 4.

The SILL is a tool to gather information regarding the frequency with which participants use specific strategies. Participants completing the SILL are asked to select the number on a five-point Likert scale which best represents the frequency of a strategic behaviour, where one represents *never true of me* and five is *always true of me*. Part E asks respondents to rate how frequently they use six affective strategies; while Part F asks about the frequency of six social strategies. Two versions of the SILL are available: one for learners studying a foreign language whose native language is English, and one for learners of English as a second or foreign language (the one used in the present study). This ESL/EFL version is available in English, Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Spanish, Thai, and Ukrainian. Although data collection is more effective when participants are given the option to report strategic behaviours in the language of their choice, the English-only policy of the school required that all participants respond to the questions in English. Therefore, for this study, the English version was used.

A number of studies have examined the reliability of the SILL. Oxford et al. (1989) reported a reliability of .86 with 159 students while Anderson (1993) reported a reliability of .91 on 95 students. The SILL was chosen for use in the present study as it is easy to administer, and it is widely used, facilitating comparisons among studies.

3.3.3 Reflection journals.

The reflection journal consisted of nine questions (see Appendix C) which were adapted from de Saint Léger's (2009) study of self-assessment (SA). Individual reflection journal booklets were prepared for each student in advance of the study. Eight identical sets of the nine questions were included in the booklets, one for each speaking task. Each set of questions was

colour-coded to allow the action researcher to ensure at a glance, that participants were responding to the set of questions that corresponded to the task.

Participants recorded their thoughts in response to the nine questions immediately after task completion; the same nine questions were asked consistently in order to facilitate the identification of changes in participants' responses over the eight tasks. Thus, the journal fulfilled two separate roles in the research: (1) it was intended to guide participants to notice, reflect on, and set specific goals associated with their social and affective strategic behaviour during the speaking tasks; and (2) it provided a method of data collection for the action researcher.

The nine questions in the reflection journals were worded with the aim of (1) encouraging participants to gain a deeper awareness of their emotions, the antecedents to these emotions, and their strategic affective behaviours, and (2) to promote participants' noticing of how they were interacting and cooperating with their partners, and (3) to encourage participants to set goals for future speaking tasks and (hopefully) select and enact social and affective strategies to better achieve their goals.

3.3.4. Final anonymous questionnaire.

A final anonymous questionnaire (Appendix D) was designed to gather information regarding learners' perceptions of the reflection process. In particular, I wanted to know whether or not participants found the reflection process helpful, how it helped them, and whether they felt it should be kept for future classes.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

3.4.1 Pilot study

Speaking tasks and written reflections were piloted by four volunteers at the same language school as those in the main study. Participants were at the same proficiency level as those in the main study (level 3), and their first languages included Swiss-German (1), Korean (2) and Japanese (1).

Due to time constraints, the four participants completed only two of the eight tasks. Nonetheless, the feedback that these two tasks elicited proved valuable and allowed for further refinement of the reflection journal questions. After the tasks were completed, the action researcher discussed the process with the participants; it became clear that some questions were not specific enough for learners at this proficiency level, and, as a result, the responses given by participants were too vague. As well, unfamiliar vocabulary (e.g., *encountered*) posed a problem for some participants. In an attempt to address these problems, questions were reworded, and an emphasis was placed in the questions on giving *specific* examples. Prompts in the form of follow-up questions were also added. In short, based on participants' feedback, three changes were made: (1) the times allotted to the planning and practicing portions of the task (ten minutes each) were reduced to eight minutes, (2) some questions were reworded using simpler vocabulary (*When you encountered words you didn't know, how did you feel?* was changed to: *When you tried to say something but couldn't find the words, what did you do? How did you feel?*), and (3) Tasks 1a (*Find as many differences between you and your partner as possible. You can include appearance, family, interests, opinions and anything else you can think of*) and 1b (*Repeat with a new partner*) were replaced with others that were felt to be more interesting and engaging.

Overall, participants indicated that the speaking task instructions were clear, that they had little difficulty understanding the questions in the reflection journal, and that (with the exception of Task 1a) the tasks were "fun" and "interesting."

3.4.2 Ethics.

Ethical considerations play a major role influencing data collection procedures, particularly in action research. When the researcher is also the teacher with the authority to assign grades, there exists the potential for the researcher to have power over his or her participants. With this in mind, two steps were taken to ensure that students' decision to participate in the study would have no bearing on the assignment of grades: (1) the action researcher was not involved in recruiting participants from the two classes and was blind to who had given consent to participate in the study; and (2) the action researcher refrained from examining any data (either written or recorded). Both of these conditions remained in place until the four-week block was complete and the final marks had been awarded. It should be further noted that all students in both classes, as a requirement of the course, participated all the activities and tasks associated with the research: completion of the SILL, the speaking tasks, and in the case of the EG, the written journal reflections, and the final questionnaire. Participation in the classroom activities, therefore, did not necessarily imply participation in the study. Only those students who gave their consent and agreed to participate were included in the study; furthermore, only the data from those participants who met all the criteria (attendance, audible recordings, were not paired with the action researcher during the performance of speaking tasks) were used in the analysis in order to address research questions one, two, and three. In order to keep this important differentiation clear, henceforth, all class members who participated in the

classroom tasks will be referred to as *students*, while only those class members whose data were used for analysis will be referred to as *participants*.

3.4.3 Data collection.

Day 1

On the first day, four initial steps were taken: (1) participants were recruited, (2) students' background information was gathered, (3) students completed parts E and F of the SILL, and (4) students were provided with a training session involving the initial practice task to become familiar with the format of the speaking tasks.

In both EG and CG classes, the action researcher carefully explained the details of the study, answered questions, and left the classroom. The recruitment of participants was carried out by an administrative assistant who also kept all data for safekeeping for the duration of the study. As well, at this time, information regarding participants' characteristics was also collected (Appendix A) by the administrative assistant.

The action researcher returned to the classroom and oversaw the completion of Parts E and F or the SILL (Oxford, 1989) by both the EG and the CG. Finally, the action researcher introduced the practice speaking task. The practice session allowed students to become familiar with the digital voice recorders, the method used to time the speaking tasks, and the task goals and requirements.

Weeks 1 – 4

Over the next four weeks, students completed two speaking tasks every week, followed by either the written reflection (EG), or time devoted to idiom work (CG). All tasks were carried

out under the direction of the action researcher; the second teacher played no role in administering the speaking tasks or gathering data.

Speaking Tasks: The decision to examine *paired* speaking tasks was made for a number of reasons. First, pair work represents a typical interaction that occurs frequently in language classes; secondly, monologues and individual presentations do not provide students with adequate opportunities to use social strategies which were the focus of this study; and finally, interactions of three or more individuals on an audio recording would have proven too complex to ensure accurate identification of speakers during the transcription process.

Students were randomly paired for tasks and never had the same partner twice. They were given a total of 18 minutes to complete the tasks: eight minutes to plan, eight minutes to practice, and two minutes to perform. Each pair was provided with a digital recorder, and the entire task was recorded without stopping the recorder. The researcher took responsibility for timing and signalled to participants when to start planning, when to start practicing, and when to start performing. In this way, all dyads performed the task simultaneously. The digital recorders were never stopped, but continuously recorded all three phases of the task. Participants were informed that the focus of the task was fluency; they were told to not worry about accuracy; furthermore, it was stressed that both members of the dyad should make an effort to speak as much as possible during the 18 minutes.

Students completed eight speaking tasks, and for each task they were given written (Appendix E) as well as verbal instructions outlining the goals and procedures of the task. Students were not, however, provided with information regarding the topics of all eight tasks, but were only given information necessary for the task that was being immediately undertaken. Consequently, participants were given no opportunity to plan ahead for tasks that would be done

over the four weeks. In this way, the research focused on strategies that learners used when engaging in spontaneous, unrehearsed speech, which is characteristic of most classroom discussions as well as authentic interactions in the second language community.

Of the eight tasks, the first four (tasks 1a – 4a) were completed in the first two weeks of the class; and four roughly parallel tasks (tasks 1b – 4b) followed in weeks three and four. For example, in task 1a, participants were asked to plan a 7 year-old child's birthday party; two weeks later, in task 1b, they were asked to plan a 50th wedding anniversary party. In this way, Tasks 1a – 4a could be compared with Tasks 1b – 4b, and any changes that occurred in strategic behaviour or changes in output could be identified. (See Appendix E for a complete description of the paired speaking tasks.) Before each task, students were given oral and written instructions to speak as much as possible and to demonstrate a wide range of vocabulary. They were neither prohibited from using their dictionaries, nor specifically encouraged to do so. Once the speaking tasks had begun, no assistance was provided by the action researcher; non-verbal gestures were used to indicate that participants should continue speaking with their assigned interlocutors and to remind students that no assistance from the action researcher would be forthcoming during the recording. The action researcher did not lead any formal discussion following these tasks, since the research focus was on learners' self-generated strategies, and the study sought to discover whether participants would take action to self-regulate their learning and address the gaps they had encountered during the task. Students in both groups did address questions to the action researcher from time to time regarding vocabulary or comment on the topic after the task was completed.

Reflection Journals/Idiom Work: Immediately after the oral tasks, the students in the EG only were asked to respond to the questions in the reflection journals. Before and during each

journaling session, participants in the EG were continually encouraged to provide rich detail, examples, and information in response to each question. However, as mentioned earlier, ethical constraints meant that the researcher was prohibited from examining the reflection journals or the recorded data and was prevented from providing any specific feedback or direction to students. Students in the EG were provided with as much time as they required to respond to the questions. Although some participants spent as little as five to ten minutes to reflect, others spent up to 25 minutes. The total amount of time the EG was given for each reflection period was carefully noted by the action researcher. Participants responded to all questions in English, and reflection journals were collected for safekeeping after each session.

Unlike the EG, the CG did not engage in written reflection; instead, the EG was given the equivalent amount of time to work on idioms. This activity was chosen since the occurrences of these idiomatic expressions in the CG's recorded data could easily be identified and excluded from final morpheme counts and vocabulary diversity (vocd) scores. Over the four weeks, the entire procedure (speaking task followed by reflection/idiom instruction) was carried out eight times.

Final Day

Upon completion of the four-week block, both the EG and the CG once again completed parts E and F of the SILL. As well, after all participants had received their final marks, an administrative assistant oversaw the completion of the final anonymous questionnaire by the EG. Participants were provided with as much time as necessary to complete the questionnaire. A summary of the data collection procedures over the four weeks is provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Data Collection Schedule

	EG Only (n = 5)	EG and CG	CG Only (n =6)
Day 1	Consent Forms		
	Participant Characteristics Questionnaire		
	Initial SILL		
	Practice Speaking Task		
Weeks 1 to 4	Speaking Tasks 1 - 8		
	↙	↘	
	Reflection Journal		Idioms
Final Day	Final SILL		
	Final Anonymous Questionnaire (n = 14)		N/A

3.5 Data Preparation and Analysis

3.5.1 Rationale for the inclusion or exclusion of data.

Once the four-week research period was complete, and the action researcher had an opportunity to examine the data, decisions were made regarding the inclusion or exclusion of participants' data. Although a total of 29 students gave their consent to participate in the study (16 in the EG, and 13 in the CG), three factors contributed to a significant number of participants' data being excluded from the analysis. Firstly, those participants who did not participate in all eight speaking tasks were excluded from the study. Tasks were sometimes not completed due to attendance issues, and other times were a result of the school's flexible registration policy as mentioned in Section 3.1. Secondly, the dyadic nature of the task meant that when an uneven number of students were present, the researcher was required to act as an interlocutor for one student. Data collected from those participants were also excluded. Finally, upon listening to the recordings, the action researcher discovered that a few participants'

recordings were inaudible in at least one task; as these participants' data were incomplete, both their written and recorded data were also excluded.

In summary, the participants whose data were included in the study met all the following criteria: (1) they were present for all data collection sessions; (2) they completed speaking tasks only with peers rather than the action researcher, and (3) they produced spoken data that was audible in every recording. The final number included for analysis, therefore, consisted of five participants in the EG and six participants in the CG, for a total of eleven participants.

In addition to the journal reflections and the recorded tasks, the analysis of the final anonymous questionnaires presented a unique challenge. As mentioned in earlier, 14 members of the EG completed the final anonymous questionnaire. Despite the fact that many of those students had been absent for as many as 6 speaking task/reflection sessions, all 14 of the respondents' data were used to address research question four. Finally, once the final list of participants was determined, pseudonyms were assigned to assure anonymity.

3.5.2 Transcription.

In order to obtain quantitative measures of participants' oral output, recorded discourse data was transcribed using the CLAN editor in the CHILDES (Child Language Data Exchange System) program (MacWhiney, 2000). The CHILDES program is an online system for sharing and studying interactional conversations. CHILDES includes language data banks as well as a number of programs for data analysis in the CLAN program. CLAN has two parts: the CLAN editor, which is used to transcribe speech, and the CHAT program, which is a set of data analysis programs. These programs have the ability to provide (among other things) word counts, morpheme counts, the mean length of utterances (MLU), and measurements of vocabulary diversity (vocd) of speech samples.

Two additional transcribers were initially enlisted to assist with the data entry into CLAN; however, the researcher personally reviewed and made all final decisions regarding the transcriptions in order to ensure consistency and accuracy necessary to obtain reliable morpheme counts and vocd scores. Transcriptions were rechecked frequently. Every audible word was transcribed; however, fillers (*oh, mmm, oooh*) *were not transcribed*.

Output was quantified based on morpheme counts and vocd scores. Morphemes were chosen as the unit of investigation because they represent the most basic element of language that carries meaning and cannot be further reduced. Vocd scores, in the past, were based on the ratio of different words (Types) to the total number of words (Tokens), known as the type–token ratio (TTR). A problem presented by TTRs is that as the sample size increases, the TTR inevitably decreases, and is thus unreliable. The vocd program (developed by Gerard McKee of the Department of Computer Science, The University of Reading) was developed to overcome this problem. According to McKee et al. (2000) "The approach is based on an analysis of the probability of new vocabulary being introduced into longer and longer samples of speech or writing. This yields a mathematical model of how TTR varies with token size. By comparing the mathematical model with empirical data in a transcript, it provides a new measure of vocabulary diversity that we refer to as D" (p. 6). Thus, a vocd score has three advantages over a TTR score: it is not a function of the number of words in a sample, it uses all the data available, and it represents how TTR varies over a range of token size.

Of the entire recorded task, only the *planning phase* was included in the analysis since the aim of the study was to see whether participants would increase their output during free discussion. During the practicing and performing phases, participants had opportunities to rehearse their speech and sometimes chose roles which had the potential to influence the amount

and nature of their oral output; for example, some participants divided roles into that of interviewer or interviewee or buyer and seller. For these reason, only the planning portion of the spoken task was transcribed and analysed, in total: 9 hours and 36 minutes.

3.5.3 Coding written journal data.

Written comments in the reflection journals were coded for (1) emotions and (2) strategies (which fell into one of five groups: social, affective, cognitive, metacognitive, or communication).

Classification of emotions were based on Pekrun's (2002) research findings, which indicated that the eight emotions students most frequently reported experiencing in academic contexts were: *enjoyment of learning, hope, pride,* and *relief,* as well *as anxiety, anger, boredom,* and *shame*. This list was adjusted somewhat for the present study. First of all, three of these emotions were not mentioned by participants: *anger, boredom,* and *shame*. Participants did however, mention two other negative emotions: *frustration* and *disappointment,* as well as a one other positive emotion: *confidence*; thus, these terms were added to the coding scheme. A second issue that arose was that some feelings mentioned by participants were vague and proved difficult to classify precisely (e.g., *nice; comfortable; oh, no, not my favorite activity*). Since they were, however, clearly positive or negative, two categories: *other positive* and *other negative* were created to include these comments. The resulting emotion classification inventory consisted of ten categories as shown in Appendix F.

Although social and affective strategies were the main focus of this research, in the reflection journals, participants also made references to other types of strategies. Coding schemes were based upon previous work in the field (Huang, 2010, 2012; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1981; Swain et al., 2009; Tarone, 1981); however, the final list of individual strategies required some

adjustments. Strategies such as *seeking lexical assistance* have been classified in some taxonomies as communication strategies (e.g. *appeal for assistance* in Tarone, 1981); however, they have been classified here as social strategies following Oxford (1990) on the grounds that they involve social interaction. I have also expanded the number of individual strategies in the social and affective categories to more accurately reflect participants' comments. Consequently, strategies mentioned in the reflection journals were coded and classified according to five main categories: social, affective, communication, cognitive, and metacognitive. Affective strategies were rarely mentioned in the reflection journals; however, three individual strategies were identified in the reflection journals that were included in the affective category: *supporting partner, sharing feelings with partner,* and *respecting partner's ideas*; and 14 individual strategies were identified and included in the social category: *seeking help from interlocutor, contributing ideas/expertise, dividing tasks/roles, providing lexical assistance, cooperating, assuming a leadership role, explaining ideas, making an effort to speak, making an effort to understand, listening, finding common ground, supporting ideas, asking questions, and respecting partner's ideas*.

Although the frequencies of strategic behaviours were also calculated and are reported in the results section, it should be noted that the reflection journals did not specifically ask participants to report on the frequency with which they used particular strategies. Participants were only asked to report what they did, not how frequently they did it. Examples of participants' written comments and coding decisions are shown in Appendix G.

3.5.4 Coding recorded data.

In addition to coding the strategies mentioned in the reflection journals, the recorded discourse data was also examined and coded for strategic behaviours. Thus, the recorded data

provided not only morpheme frequencies and vocd scores (see Section 3.5.2), but also an additional source of information regarding participants' strategic behaviours (Guo, 2012; Huang, forthcoming).

Coding both data sets (written and recorded) gave the action researcher (some) ability to check participants' claims about the strategies they had employed. However, as only overt behaviours that could be consistently identified and classified with a high degree of certainty were included in the coding scheme of recorded data, not all strategies that participants mentioned in the reflection journals could be identified. The inventory of strategic behaviours identified in the recorded data is not a complete inventory of participants behaviours (for example, it cannot provide information about strategies such as *gesturing*, or *making an effort to speak*), but only includes those behaviours that could be identified reliably.

Three verbal behaviours identified in the recorded data were added to the inventory of affective strategies: *complimenting*, *encouraging*, and *justifying performance*; while three types of social strategies were coded: *asking questions, providing lexical assistance, and complimenting*. Participants asked a variety of types of questions: (1) *content (topic) questions*, (2) *questions to check their partners' comprehension* (3) *questions seeking clarification* (or to check their own comprehension), (4) *questions to check partner is in agreement*, (5) *questions about form*, (6) *questions about lexis*, (7) *cultural questions*, and (8) *questions to request explicit correction*. In addition to *asking questions*, instances of *providing lexical assistance*, and *complimenting* were also coded.

Recorded data revealed that participants, in addition to simply agreeing with one another (e.g., "*okay"; "I agree"*), at times uttered positive expressions such as "*That's a good idea,"* or complimented their interlocutors. Some researchers (Oxford, 1990) might classify these

expressions are examples of social strategies; however, I would argue that these spoken statements also seem to promote positive emotional states in a way that simply indicating agreement does not. They achieve two separate goals: firstly, they serve a social purpose of indicating agreement to one's interlocutor, secondly, they create positive feelings by providing encouraging feedback to an interlocutor about his or her ideas ("*good idea"*), abilities or experiences in much the same way as *self talk* does to one's self. Although affective strategies are generally viewed as tools that learners use to regulate their *own* emotions, it was clear in this study that participants were also taking steps to foster positive emotional states in *their interlocutors*. Therefore, after some consideration, I classified this behaviour (*complimenting*) as both social and affective. I have correlated the behaviour *complimenting* with the strategy that was mentioned in participants' reflection journals, *respecting partner's ideas*. (Also counted as both affective and social).The dual nature of these behaviours serves to illustrate the difficulty at times in teasing apart social and affective strategies, and that one behaviour may serve more than one purpose.

Justifying performance is operationalized here as any instance when a speaker indicated that he or she lacked ideas, knowledge about a topic, spelling, grammar, or vocabulary (e.g., "*I don't know spell"*).

Encouraging was operationalized as an attempt to assist a partner to address not *linguistic* difficulties, but *affective* difficulties. Only one instance of this strategy was found in the data and was used by a participant in the CG group ("*Don't worry"*).

In terms of social strategies, participants often provided lexical suggestions to their interlocutors when there were indications that help was needed. Sometimes assistance was

explicitly requested, and other times a pause in speech was enough to prompt an individual to offer assistance in the form of a lexical suggestion.

Seeking clarification (or confirming comprehension) was counted when (1) speakers repeated partial or complete utterances of what their interlocutors had said immediately before, and were marked by a rise in intonation or (2) when speakers used expressions such as "W*hat?"* or "*What do you mean?"*. An inventory of the identified social and affective strategies in the recorded data as well as examples is provided in Appendix H.

To ensure reliability of the coding process, 100% of the written and recorded data (both EG and CG) were coded. In the case of the recorded data, an intra-rater reliability check was conducted. The recorded discourse data were coded on two separate occasions, two months apart by the action researcher. Dividing the total number of coding counts by the total number of counts that agreed resulted in a simple intra-rater agreement of 90.03%. More specifically, the reliability for affective strategies was 93.58%, and for social strategies was 87.60 %. The data collected from the reflection journals were independently coded by two coders: the action researcher and another graduate student in applied linguistics. Inter-rater reliability was 84.01%. The two raters then met to examine the differences, which were discussed until 100% agreement was reached.

3.6 Data Analysis

To address the research questions, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were undertaken. In terms of quantitative analysis, statistical tests were carried out using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Version 20. Due to the small sample sizes, nonparametric statistical tests were used.

To answer research question one, simple frequencies were used to provide the descriptive statistics regarding reported strategic behaviours as well as identified strategic behaviours in the recorded data. Research question two addresses the changes that participants demonstrated. The Wilcox Signed Ranks test was used to determine whether any significant changes had occurred in parts E and F of the SILL and the strategies identified in the recorded data.

For research question three, which focuses on the differences in output between the EG and the CG, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to identify any statistically significant changes in: morpheme counts, vocd scores, SILL results, and strategic behaviours. Finally, question four was analysed with simple percentages.

Qualitative analyses were also undertaken. In particular, I looked for not only recurring themes reported in the reflection journals (or exhibited in the speaking tasks) by the majority of participants, but also individual differences with regard to task challenges (e.g., topic knowledge and interlocutors), reported emotions, and strategic preferences.

Chapter Four: Results

It is important to note, that quantitative results are presented throughout this section at the group level rather than at the individual level; the qualitative differences between individuals, however, are provided.

Results are presented in five sections. Firstly, in order to put the results of the four research questions into context, some discussion of the challenges presented by the speaking tasks is required. Thus, the first section reports the most frequent themes in participants' reflection journals concerning challenges encountered while carrying out the speaking tasks. Understanding what types of difficulties participants identified is instructive, since the selection of any particular strategy or tactic is situated within the context of a goal and a purpose. Following this, each of the four research questions are then addressed in sections two to five.

4.1 Reported Challenges

Reported challenges fell into three main categories: (1) lexical, (2) limited content knowledge, and (3) affective. To address these challenges, participants deployed a number of strategies from five categories: communication, cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective.

4.1.1 Lexical challenges.

When it came to linguistic factors, more than anything else, participants perceived lexis as the most important challenge influencing their speaking performance: few references in the reflection journals were made to syntax, and no references were made to phonological difficulties. In response to question 2 (see Appendix C) in the reflection journal (*In this speaking activity were there any instances where you felt you'd like to say something but you*

didn't? Yes □ No □ If yes, when and why?), the five EG participants reported that there were only nine occasions over the four weeks when they wanted to say something but did not, and in all cases, the reason given was that they felt they were lacking the necessary vocabulary. As one participant wrote: "*When I would describe something, my vocabulary is not so big, so I think*" (Alex: Week 1, Task 2a).

Question 4 in the reflection journals (see Appendix C) sought to discover what strategies participants used when they encountered lexical gaps. Table 4 provides a summary of reported strategies to overcome lexical challenges.

Table 4

Frequency of Strategies Reported in Response to: "When you tried to say something but couldn't find the words, what did you do?"

Category	Individual Strategies	Median	Range	Frequency
COM	Circumlocution	0	4	7
	Paraphrasing	2	4	10
	Simplifying the language	0	1	1
	Drawing a picture	0	1	1
	Gesturing	0	1	1
	Abandoning message	0	2	3
	Repeating to clarify meaning	0	1	2
COG	Using a dictionary	2	4	10
	Searching for another word	1	2	4
	Recalling vocabulary	1	3	6
SOC	Seeking help from interlocutor	0	2	2
META	Planning ahead before speaking	0	1	1
TOTAL STRATEGIES				48

Note. n = 5. COM = Communication; COG = Cognitive; SOC = Social; META = Metacognitive
Total Strategies = 48 (*Mdn* = 10; Range = 12)

Over the course of the four weeks, participants reported using seven individual types of communication strategies, three types of cognitive strategies, one social strategy and one

metacognitive strategy for a total of 12 different individual types of strategies to overcome lexical difficulties during the speaking tasks. In terms of frequency, participants mentioned these strategies a total of 48 times in response to this question. In addition to these strategies which were deployed *during* the speaking tasks; in addition, two participants' written comments in response to this question revealed that they were also *planning* to address some lexical difficulties post-task by studying more and researching the lexical gaps that had been identified during the task. These references to *planning* represent metacognitive behaviours; however, because it is unclear whether they were used during the speaking task, or only during the reflection process, they have not been included in the inventory in Table 4.

4.1.2 Challenges associated with content knowledge.

In addition to lexical challenges, participants reported feeling that when their (self-appraised) knowledge about a topic was insufficient, they encountered difficulties speaking. For one participant (Alice) in particular, this was a re-occurring theme: *"Actually party planning is not common in my country*" (Week 1, Task 1a); *"This was difficult to me. Because I'm not parent"* (Week 1, Task 2a); *"It was difficult to me because I'm not interested in car. So I don't know well about car. So I couldn't talk about car's quality."* (Week 4, Task 3b). Participants reported feeling that they could contribute to the conversation and speak more when they felt knowledgeable about the topic. In week 2, Alex wrote that he felt he had done well in the task, in part because he felt he had some content knowledge: *"Good, then I know a lot about building houses and I think my vocabulary is good on this area"* (Task 4a). Content knowledge was a factor that was mentioned regularly in participants' reflection journals: "*It was very difficult to speak about an unknown topic. I'm not married, and in English to talk about this topic is not really easy*" (Alex: Week 1, Task 2a).

4.1.3 Affective challenges.

The third theme to emerge from the reflection journals was that participants perceived emotions to be an important factor influencing their speaking. Question 5 in the reflection journal (see Appendix C) asked participants to report the emotions they experienced before during and after the speaking tasks. Table 5 provides a summary of the frequencies of reported emotions over the four weeks. Participants reported a total of 75 positive emotions, while reports of negative emotions occurred only 19 times. In total, the five EG participants reported experiencing 94 emotions, before, during and after the eight tasks, a number reflecting their dynamic nature.

Table 5

Frequency of EG Reported Emotions (Including Before, During, and After Tasks)

	Emotion	Median	Range	Frequency
Positive	Hope	0	4	8
	Enjoyment	3	5	16
	Confidence (post-task)	0	3	3
	Relief	0	1	1
	Pride/Satisfaction	1	5	12
	Other Positive	4	20	35
Total Positive				75
Negative	Anxiety/Worry	1	3	7
	Frustration	0	3	5
	Regret/Disappointment	1	1	3
	Other Negative	1	2	4
Total Negative				19
Total Emotions				94

Note. $n = 5$. Total Emotions = 94(*Mdn* = 19; Range = 14); Total Positive Emotions = 75(*Mdn* = 14; Range = 13); Total Negative Emotions = 19(*Mdn* = 3; Range = 7)

For the most part, participants recognized the impact that emotions had on their speaking performance: both positive: "*Positively. Today I interested in the task. So my emotion affect my speaking*" (Alice: Week 3, Task 1b), and negative: "*When I felt my English was not enough to*

talk about my ideas, the feeling affected my speaking negatively; it made me hesitate to speak" (Kate: Week 3, Task 1b). Only one participant reported that emotions did not have an impact: "*I think it was good but there wasn't any emotions affect about my speaking*" (Janet: Week 1, Task 1a).

Encouraging participants to notice their emotions was only the first step; I also wanted participants to notice what triggered their emotions. Reflection question 5 (see Appendix C) asked participants to explain why they felt the emotions they did. Participants' responses to this question indicated that participants were, for the most part, able to identify what had triggered their emotions; they cited three main sources: their interlocutors, self-appraisals of their knowledge about a topic, and self-appraisals of their speaking performance.

Interlocutors, for the most part, were credited with triggering positive emotions in participants. In a few instances, participants reported feelings of nervousness or worry in anticipation of working with certain speaking partners; however, they attributed these emotions to their own lack of cultural awareness. For example, one learner (Kate) reported feeling anxious before beginning a task with an interlocutor from an unfamiliar culture in week one: "*I worried about the difference of the nationality between me and my partner. The nationality is different; I think the feeling is also different*" (Week 3, Task 2a); and again in week three: "*I was a little nervous because the partner comes from a country which I have no idea about*" (Week 3, Task 2b). Kate's emotion, however, changed to enjoyment during the task: "*Talking with a person who comes from a country I don't know is very exciting because I may get some interesting information from the person*" (Week 3, Task 2b). Sam also reported feeling a lack of confidence associated with an interlocutor; but unlike Kate, it was triggered by interactions with partners whom he apprised as having English skills superior to his own. He reported wanting to address

this feeling: *"I want to have a confidence to speak English next task even if my partner is good at speaking"* (Sam: Week 4, Task 3b).

Other than these three examples, participants' reports suggest that interlocutors were sources of positive emotions, and they often made tasks more interesting, fun, and exciting. As Kate wrote, *"when I felt the task was interesting by my partner's ideas, my positive feeling gave me some courage to speak my ideas"* (Week 3, Task 2a). Alice expressed similar sentiments: *"Good. It was very fun because my partner's ideas were very creative. So we could enjoy that"* (Week 4, Task 3b).

A second affective trigger reported by participants, was their self-appraisal of knowledge about a topic. Alice's comments serve to illustrate how content knowledge, affect, and performance were interrelated; her (perceived) lack of knowledge was a factor not only in her performance, but also her affective state: *"I don't know well about car, so I couldn't talk about car's quality*" (Week 3, Task 1b); and "*I was very nervous because I don't know about car well"* (Week 4, Task 3b).

Thirdly, participants' emotions were triggered by self-appraisals of their speaking performance, and in particular, their ability to access lexis and speak fluently. Participants' responses to question four in the reflection journals (*When you tried to say something but couldn't find the words, how did you feel*?) provided data indicating that gaps in lexical knowledge triggered a number of mostly negative emotional responses. Participants used terms such as *frustration, depression, nervous, bad, lost,* and *disappointed*. Interestingly, by week four, more positive comments began to appear in the reflection journals *"I felt it's not so serious matter"* (Kate: Week 4, Task 3b); *"But I can ask everybody for help, no problem"* (Alex: Week 4, Task 4b).

Emotions were cited as both antecedents to and products of speaking tasks: appraisals of performances triggered emotions, and those emotions in turn were factors that influenced subsequent performances; these reciprocal loops were evident not only within a single task, but also from one task to the next: *"Looking forward to the task. Because yesterday I could do a task very well"* (Sam: Week 1, Task 2a). *"Nervous because I couldn't explain my opinions in English very well yesterday"* (Sam: Week 1, Task 1a).

Overall, comments in the reflection journals indicated that, most of the time, participants possessed a keen awareness of their affective states, what triggered those states, as well as the influences (both positive and negative) that these emotions had on their speaking performance. Only one participant reported the inability to identify the source of an emotion: *"Sometimes impatient, (I don't know why)"* (Janet: Week 4, Task 3b).

Armed with the necessary context regarding the challenges and emotions that participants encountered in carrying out the speaking tasks, I turn now to the results of the four research questions.

4.2 Research Question 1

What social and affective strategies will members of the experimental group report in their written reflections using in carrying out goal-oriented, task-specific classroom speaking activities?

Results concerning social strategic behaviour are presented first, followed by results of affective strategic behaviour. Analysis of data gathered from both the reflection journals and the recorded discourse data are discussed.

4.2.1 Social strategic behaviour.

Speaking tasks were designed in such a way as to encourage a high level of cooperation among students; furthermore, it was hoped that the reflection journal would push students to consider not only strategies that they deployed to assist themselves to speak, but also the strategies they used to assist their partners. Participants' comments indicated that, for the most part, they were aware of the support that their interlocutors provided, and that they made use of social strategies to enlist their partners' assistance and complete the tasks. No difficulties were reported among pairs; indeed, participants frequently reported that their interlocutors contributed to the successful completion of tasks. Participants recognized their interlocutors as valuable sources of knowledge when they lacked knowledge or experience with the topic themselves. Alice commented that: "*Actually I didn't have many ideas, but my partner had some ideas, so we can complete the task*" (Week 1, Task 1a). Question 8 asked participants: *How did you and your partner work together to complete this task?* Table 6 provides a summary of the responses.

Table 6

Types and Frequencies of Strategies Reported by EG Participants (Over Four Weeks)

Category	Strategy	Median	Range	Frequency
SOC	Contributing Ideas/ Expertise	2	2	8
	Dividing Tasks/Roles	1	1	3
	Providing Lexical Assistance	0	3	3
	Cooperating	0	2	2
	Assuming a Leadership Role	0	2	2
	Explaining Ideas	0	2	2
	Making an Effort to Speak	0	1	1
	Making an Effort to Understand	0	1	1
	Listening/Being a Good Listener	0	1	1
	Finding Common Ground	0	1	1
	Explaining Task Requirements	0	1	1
	Elaborating	0	1	1
	Asking Questions	0	1	1
	Respecting Partner's Ideas	0	5	5
	Total SOC			32
AFF	Respecting Partner's Ideas	0	5	5
	Sharing Feelings with Partner	0	1	1
	Supporting Partner	0	1	1
	Total AFF			7
COG	Generating Ideas	0	3	4
	Using Key Words	0	3	3
	Using Imagination	0	0	1
	Focusing on Fluency	0	1	1
	Organizing Ideas	0	1	1
	Total COG			10
META	Planning Ahead	0	1	2
	Total META	0	1	2
TOTAL STRATEGIES				51

Note. *n* = 5. SOC = Social; AFF = Affective strategies; COG = Cognitive strategies; META= Metacognitive Total SOC = 35(*Mdn* = 8; Range = 9); Total AFF = 7(*Mdn*= 1; Range = 5); Total COG = 8(*Mdn* =1; Range = 3); META = 4(*Mdn* = 0; Range = 2) Total Strategies Used = 51*(Mdn* =8; Range = 8)

Of the 23 different types of individual strategies identified in the reflection journals, 14 are classified as social, three as affective, five as cognitive, and one as metacognitive. The five participants demonstrated individual preferences for strategies. Only two social strategies

(*contributed ideas/expertise*, and *divided tasks/roles*), one cognitive strategy (*generated ideas*) and one metacognitive strategy (*planned ahead*) were reported by more than one individual.

The recorded speaking tasks provided a means (in some cases) to confirm the strategies that participants reported in their reflection journals. Confirmation was possible more frequently in the case of social strategies, which involve some overt method of communication between individuals, and thus are more readily observable. Two reported social strategies were able to be confirmed in the recorded data: *asking questions* and *providing lexical assistance*. While only one participant reported *asking questions* in the reflection journals, the recorded data revealed that all EG participants, in fact, frequently *asked questions* (*n* = 284). Specifically, participants asked: *content questions* relating to the topic (*n* = 142), *questions to check their partner's comprehension* (*n* = 5), *questions to clarify what they had heard* (*n* = 89), *questions to check that their partners were in agreement with them* (*n* = 15), *questions about form* (*n* = 2), *questions about lexis* (*n* = 20), and *cultural questions* pertaining to their interlocutor's culture or country (*n* = 11).

A similar discrepancy between reported strategic behaviour and overt behaviours identified in the recorded data also existed with regard to the social strategy, *providing lexical assistance.* The reflection journals only contained three reports (all by the same participant) of *providing lexical assistance*; however, the recorded data revealed that all 5 participants provided lexical assistance to their interlocutors when they asked for assistance or appeared to be struggling with vocabulary. This strategy occurred 18 times in the recorded EG data.

4.2.2 Affective strategic behaviour.

Although participants seemed to be aware of the emotions they experienced, they did not frequently report using affective strategies to overcome negative emotions. Rather than

reporting the use of affective strategies, they often reported cognitive strategies and goals to address gaps in their lexis (i.e., they addressed whatever it was that triggered the negative emotion): *"I should study vocabulary more"* (Alice: Week 3, Task 2b). Two participants however, did mention, in response to reflection question 9 (*Based on your comments, what is one thing you will do for the next speaking task*?), affective strategies that they planned to use in future tasks. Sam, in particular, consistently reported his plans to relax and override negative emotions. *"In the next task I will try to make me relax and talk more"* (Week 2, Task 4a); *"I think I should continue to have a confidence to speak English, so I can explain my opinion and feeling"* (Week 3, Task 1b); and finally: *"I want to have a confidence to speak English next task"* (Week 4, Task 4b). He did not, however, confirm whether or not these intentions were carried out during subsequent tasks. Kate also mentioned overriding her affective state: *"I thought the important thing is that I try to speak a lot; (even) if I don't have any confidence"* (Week 2, Task 4a). In addition, participants reported in response to the reflection journal question 8 (*How did you and your partner work together to complete this task?*) that they tried to *"respect partner's ideas," "share my feelings with my partner,"* and *"supported my partner."*

Recorded data cannot always provide evidence that affective strategies have been employed (since, for the most part, they tend to be covert); however, in the present study, some affective behaviours were identified. Participants made positive statements or *complimented* their partners by positively acknowledged their ideas, experience, and skills confirming written journal reports that they did "*respect partners' ideas"*. An examination of the recorded data revealed the EG demonstrated a particularly high incidence of *complimenting* compared to the CG: the five participants in the EG *complimented* one another (i.e., gave positive indications of

approval or agreement) on 39 occasions over the eight tasks, while the six members of the CG *complimented* one another on only 27 occasions.

A second affective behaviour was identified in the discourse data which had not been reported by participants in the reflection journals: *justifying performance*. This behaviour was used by Janet when, during the task, she said "*These words are difficult to say in English. I don't know the words in English...*" (Week 1, Task 2a).

Combining the two sources of data (journal entries and recorded discourse data) provides a more detailed (although admittedly still incomplete) picture of EG participants' social and affective strategic behaviours. Table 7 summarizes all social and affective strategies identified during the speaking tasks from the combined data sets of the reflection journals and the recorded data.

Table 7

Total Identified Social and Affective Strategies from Journals and Recorded Data

Category		Strategy	Median	Range	Frequency
SOC	Journal Data	Contributing Ideas/ Expertise	2	2	8
		Dividing Tasks/Roles	1	1	3
		Providing Lexical Assistance*	0	3	3*
		Cooperating	0	2	2
		Assuming a Leadership Role	0	2	2
		Explaining Ideas	0	2	2
		Making an Effort to Speak	0	1	1
		Making an Effort to Understand	0	1	1
		Listening/Being a Good Listener	0	1	1
		Finding Common Ground	0	1	1
		Explaining Task Requirements	0	1	1
		Elaborating	0	1	1
		Asking Questions*	0	1	1*
		Respecting Partner's Ideas*	0	5	5*
	Discourse Data	Asking Questions	39	65	284
		Complimenting (Respected Partner's Ideas)	6	13	39
		Providing Lexical Assistance	3	4	18
	TOTAL SOC				364
AFF	Journal Data	Respecting Partner's ideas*	0	5	5*
		Sharing Feelings with Partner	0	1	1
		Supporting Partner	0	1	1
	Discourse Data	Complimenting (Respecting Partner's Ideas)	6	13	39
		Justifying Performance	3	27	51
	TOTAL AFF				92
TOTAL SOC and AFF					456

Note. n = 5. SOC = Social; AFF = Affective

Total SOC = 364(*Mdn* = 64; Range = 63); Total AFF = 92(*Mdn* = 21; Range = 25); Total SOC and AFF = 456(*Mdn* = 85; Range= 85)

* These reported strategies are not included in the totals, since they are presumed to have already been counted once in the recorded discourse data.

4.3 Research Question 2

What kinds of changes in social and affective strategy use will the experimental group demonstrate in their written reflections over a 4-week period?

Changes in social strategic behaviours are presented first, followed by affective strategic behaviours. To answer this question, in addition to the reflection journals and the recorded data, the SILL provided one means for identifying changes over the four weeks.

4.3.1 Changes in social strategic behaviour.

In order to determine what changes had taken place over four weeks with respect to social strategies, the EG's responses to Part F of the SILL at the start of the four weeks were compared to their responses at the end of the four weeks. It should be noted that results of the SILL discussed here represent the strategies that participants use *in general*. Participants' responses were not given with specific reference to strategies used during the speaking tasks in the present study.

Figure 1 shows the changes from the initial to the final results. The frequency with which participants reported using the social strategies referred to in the SILL (Part F) stayed the same or decreased with the exception of *I ask questions in English*, which increased. A Wilcox Signed-Ranks test, however, revealed that none of the differences between the first and the final SILL (Part F) were statistically significant ($p > .05$).

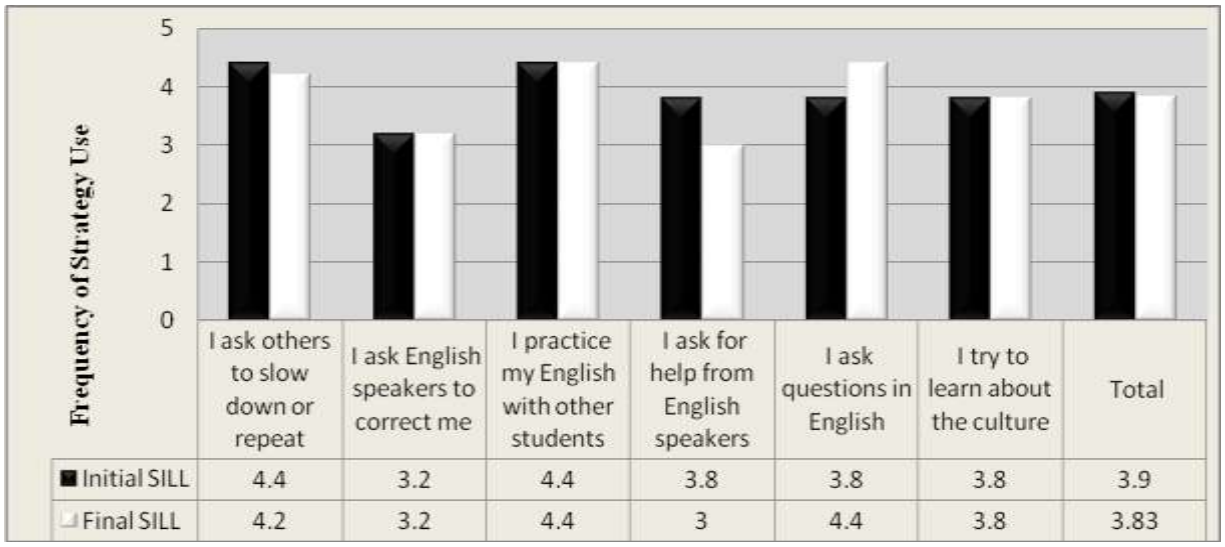


Figure 1 *EG Mean frequency of social strategy use: Initial and final SILL results (Part F)*

Participants' reports of an increase in *asking questions* were confirmed in the recorded discourse data. Frequencies of *asking questions* in each task are shown in Table 8. Increases occurred from Tasks a to Tasks b in three out of four cases; and there was an overall increase in *asking questions* from Task 1a in week one (35 instances) to Task 4b in week four (45 instances). According to the results of a Wilcox Signed-Ranks test; however, these differences were also not statistically significant ($p > .05$).

Table 8

EG Changes in Frequencies of "Asking Questions" in Recorded Data

	Weeks 1 and 3				Weeks 2 and 4			
	Task 1		Task 2		Task 3		Task 4	
	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b
Median	7	3	4	4	5	7	7	8
Range	7	22	10	6	15	9	10	6
Frequency	35	35	27	19	41	42	40	45

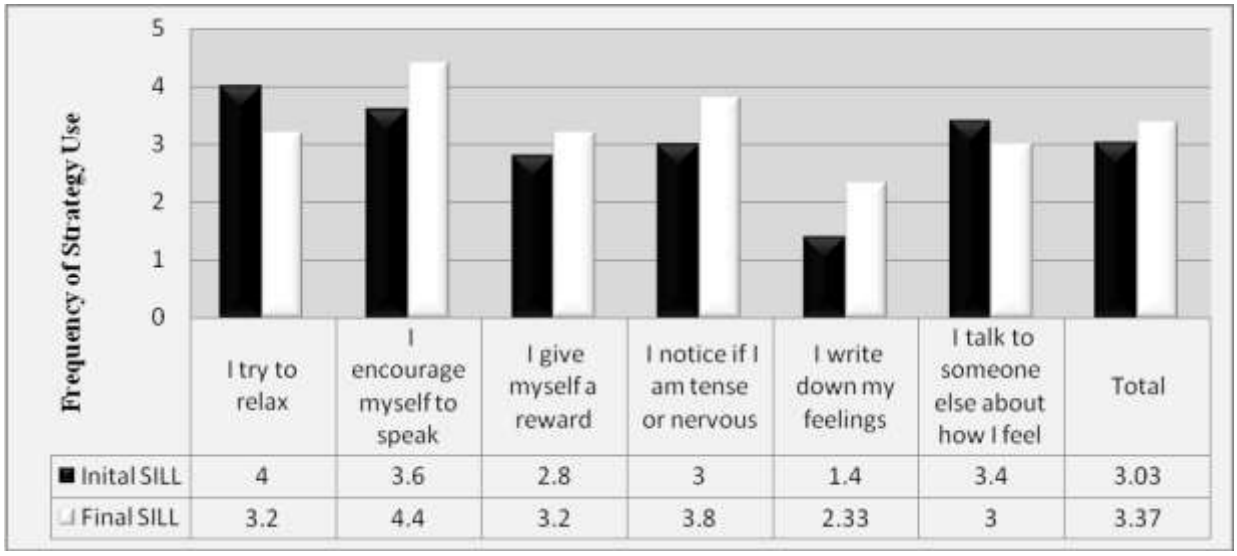
Note. $n = 5$

Thus, although not statistically significant, both the SILL and the recorded data indicated that the frequency with which participants in the EG were asking questions over the four weeks did increase. In the written reflections, only one participant mentioned using this strategy, and it was reported in the final reflection journal entry in week four (Task 4b).

4.3.2 Changes in affective strategic behaviour.

Information regarding changes in participants' affective strategic behaviour gathered from three sources is presented below: the pre- and post-experiment results from part E of the SILL, journal entries over the four weeks, and recorded discourse data.

Figure 2 illustrates the results of Part E of the SILL gathered from the EG at the beginning of the study compared with those gathered at the end.



	I try to relax	I encourage myself to speak	I give myself a reward	I notice if I am tense or nervous	I write down my feelings	I talk to someone else about how I feel	Total
Inital SILL	4	3.6	2.8	3	1.4	3.4	3.03
Final SILL	3.2	4.4	3.2	3.8	2.33	3	3.37

Figure 2 *EG mean frequency of affective strategy use: Initial and final SILL results (Part E)*

Participants reported an increase in overall affective behaviour, particularly with respect to *I encourage myself to speak, I notice if I am tense or nervous,* and *I write down my feelings*.

Although a Wilcox Signed-Ranks Test revealed that the only *statistically* significant difference between the initial and final part E of the SILL was in the EG's response to the statements: *I encourage myself to speak* ($Z = -2.00$, $p < .05$). Results also revealed that EG participants' perceptions of their efforts to relax had decreased dramatically, and the frequency with which they noticed if they were tense or nervous increased dramatically.

Recorded data provided further insight into the changes that occurred in the EG group's strategic behaviour: the frequency with which participants in the EG *justified their performance* (See Table 9), decreased steadily over the four week period (Week one: 22; Week two: 14; Week three: 9; Week four: 6). These frequencies also decreased from the first versions of the four tasks (a) to the second versions of the task (b). A Wilcox Signed-Ranks test revealed that these differences did not reach levels of statistical significance ($p > .05$).

Table 9

EG Changes in Frequencies of "Justifying Performance" in Recorded Data

	Weeks 1 and 3				Week 2 and 4			
	Task 1		Task 2		Task 3		Task 4	
	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b
Median	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	0
Range	3	2	10	4	6	2	3	1
Total	7	2	15	7	8	4	6	2

Note: n = 5

The recoded data also revealed changes in the frequency with which participants in the EG *complimented* their partners: complimenting increased over the four weeks (Week 1: 2; Week 2: 9; Week 3: 12; Week 4: 16). As well, the frequency either increased or remained the same every time the task was repeated from task a to the equivalent task b (Table 10).

Table 10

EG Changes in Frequencies of "Complimenting" in Recorded Data

	Weeks 1 and 3				Weeks 2 and 4			
	Task 1		Task 2		Task 3		Task 4	
	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b
Median	0	2	0	0	0	1	1	1
Range	1	6	0	0	1	3	3	5
Total	2	12	0	0	1	6	8	10

Note. $n = 5$

4.4 Research Question 3

Is there a difference between the experimental group (EG) that participates in written reflection and the comparison group (CG) that does not, in oral output, as measured by a) morpheme counts and b) lexical diversity?

4.4.1 Morpheme counts.

A comparison of the two groups' recorded data revealed that the median morpheme counts were consistently higher for the CG than the EG (Table 11). However, the results of a Mann-Whitney U-Test indicated that these differences were not statistically significant for any of the eight tasks ($p > .05$).

Table 11

Changes in Morpheme Frequencies from Task Versions a to the Corresponding Versions b

		Weeks 1 and 3						Weeks 2 and 4					
		Task 1			Task 2			Task 3			Task 4		
		a		b	a		b	a		b	a		b
EG ($n = 5$)	Median	191		211	153		155	176		172	192		184
	Range	376		435	256		207	256		213	445		209
	f	1105	↑	1259	849	↑	898	1069	↓	1045	1418	↓	959
CG ($n = 6$)	Median	298		309	244		261	305		345	308		366
	Range	330		216	118		249	155		361	225		329
	f	1672	↓	1584	1487	↑	1537	1668	↑	1765	2071	↓	2058

Note. $N = 11$

Examining the changes in mean morpheme counts over the four weeks chronologically reveals that although the CG scores were consistently higher, the overall pattern of increases and decreases was strikingly similar between the two groups (Figure 3).

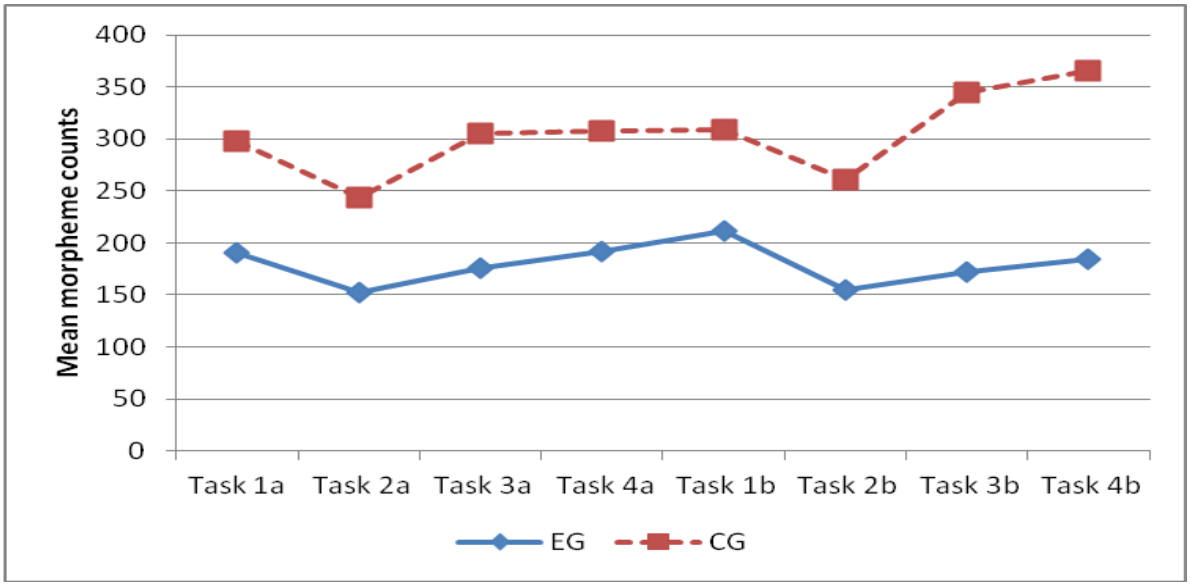


Figure 3 *Changes in morpheme counts shown chronologically over 4 weeks*

4.4.2 Vocd scores.

Vocd score increases and decreases showed very different patterns in the two groups (Table 12). In the EG, increases in median vocd scores occurred in three instances: from task 1a to 1b, from task 3a to 3b, and from the first task at the beginning (Task 1a) to the final task at the end of the four weeks (Task 4b). In contrast, only one increase occurred in the CG: from task 2a to task 2b. The result of a Mann-Whitney U-Test, however, showed that the distribution of vocd scores was consistent across the two groups (EG and CG) in all eight tasks; any differences that were found were not statistically significant ($p > .05$).

Table 12

Vocd Scores for EG and CG

		Weeks 1 and 3						Weeks 2 and 4					
		Task 1			Task 2			3 Task			Task 4		
		a		b	a		b	a		b	a		b
EG (n = 5)	Median	36.02	↑	48.24	43.47	↓	33.98	47.41	↑	55.83	42.39	↓	39.97
	Range	18.49		38.07	35.69		28.11	30.62		36.58	20.00		19.12
CG (n = 6)	Median	47.55	↓	45.70	45.94	↑	46.19	47.90	↓	42.42	54.02	↓	39.62
	Range	34.66		32.91	33.05		33.21	31.34		53.72	20.20		29.92
Total (N=11)	Median	43.41	↑	45.70	44.73	↓	41.47	47.89	↑	49.77	49.84	↓	39.62
	Range	35.61		38.07	46.80		42.10	35.07		53.72	30.75		30.92

Note. $N = 11$

Examining the chronological changes in vocd scores over the four weeks, it is interesting to note that (despite consistently producing fewer morphemes), on three occassions (Task 1b, Task 3b, and Task 4b), the EG achieved higher vocd scores than the CG. In other words, although the EG consistently spoke less, they demonstrated a wider range of vocabulary than the CG on three occassions (Figure 4).

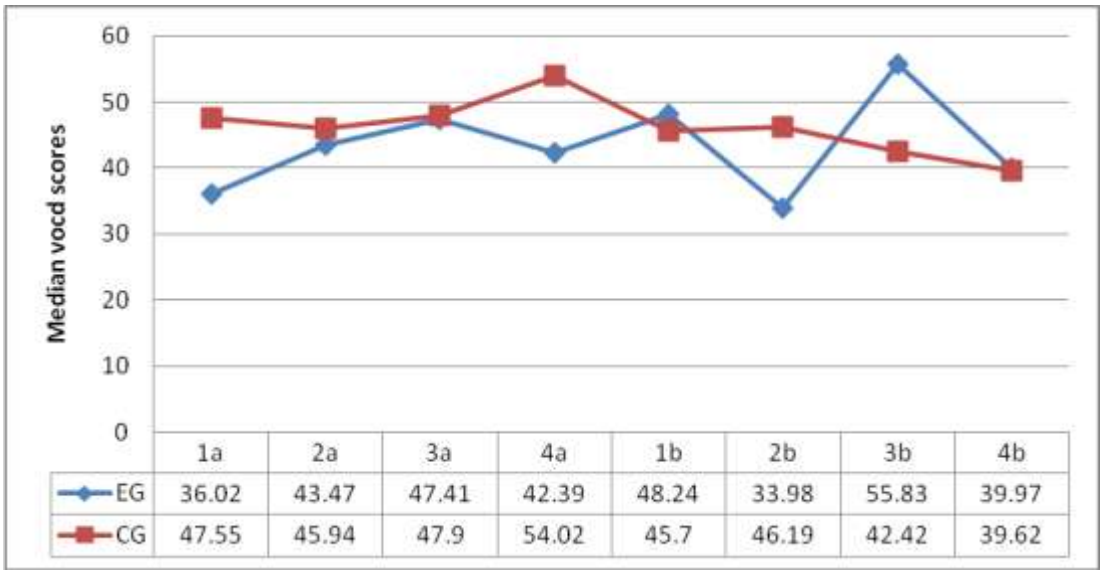
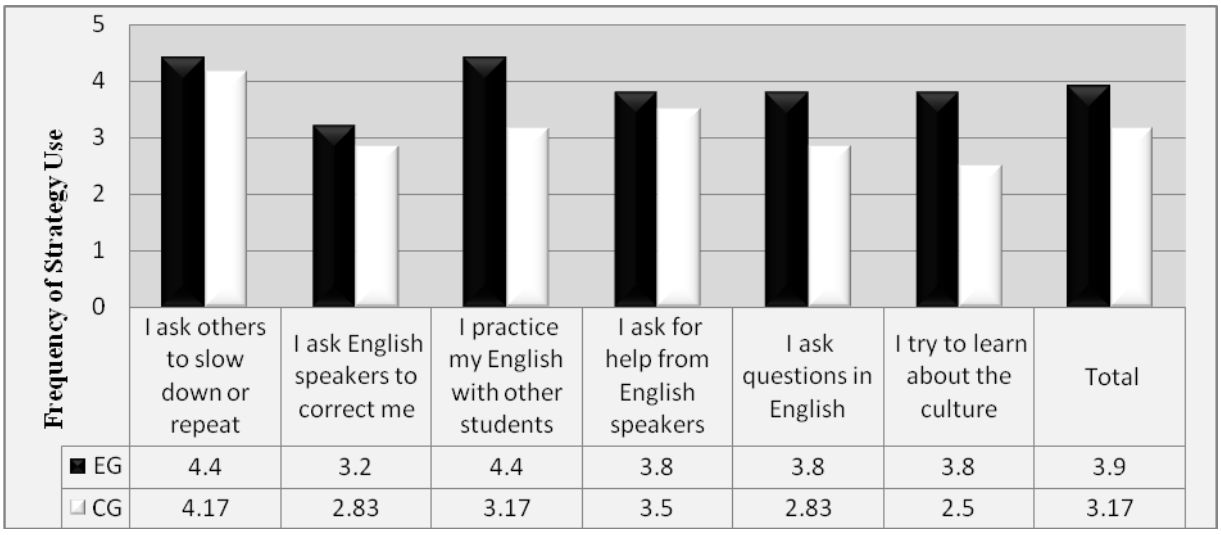


Figure 4 *Changes in EG and CG vocd scores shown chronologically over 4 weeks*

Thus, vocabulary diversity is not necessarily a reflection of the number of morphemes uttered.

4.4.3 Differences in social strategy use.

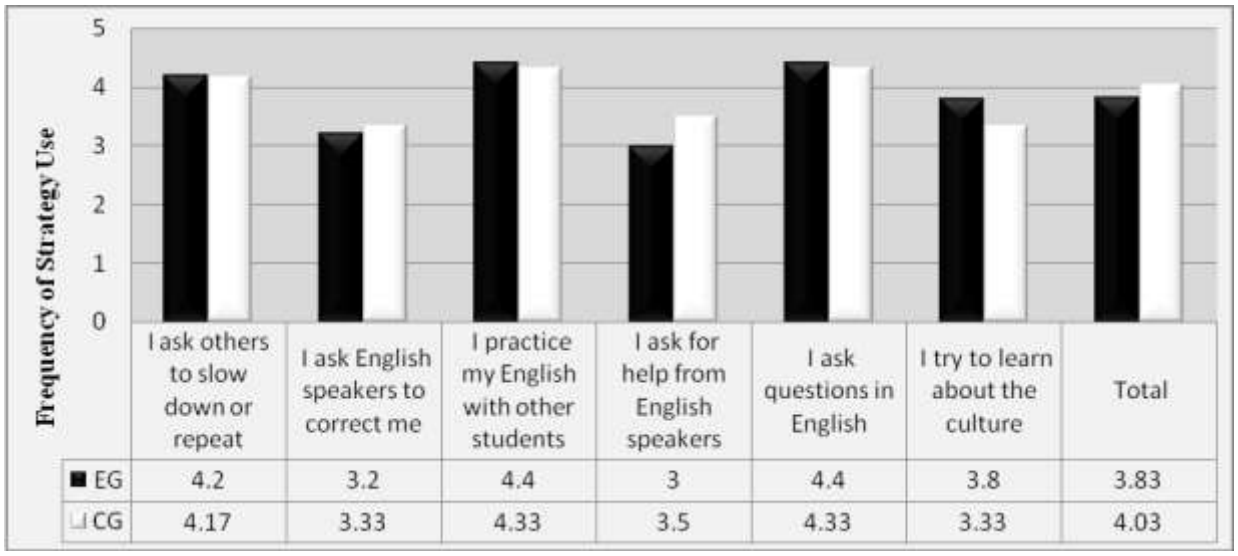
In addition to comparing morpheme counts and vocd scores, self-ratings of the frequencies of strategy use gathered from the SILL was compared to determine if there were any significant differences between the two groups in terms of perception. With respect to social strategy use, the EG's self reports were higher that the CG's self reports at the start of the study (Figure 6). However, the EG and CG participants' relative ratings on the SILL did not correspond to findings from the recorded data. For example, with respect to *asking questions,* the EG recorded data revealed 35 instances (mean = 8; median = 7) of asking questions during the first speaking task (Task 1a), while the CG data revealed a much higher score of 79 instances (mean = 13.16; median = 8.5); however, this difference was not reflected in the responses to the initial SILL where the EG's self-ratings were higher than the CG's self-ratings in response to *I ask questions in English*.



	I ask others to slow down or repeat	I ask English speakers to correct me	I practice my English with other students	I ask for help from English speakers	I ask questions in English	I try to learn about the culture	Total
EG	4.4	3.2	4.4	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9
CG	4.17	2.83	3.17	3.5	2.83	2.5	3.17

Figure 5 *EG and CG mean social strategy use: Initial SILL (Part F)*

At the end of the four-week period (Figure 7), the EG reported a slight decrease in the frequency of their overall social strategy use, while the CG reported an increase resulting in a higher overall final score on the SILL in frequency of social strategy use among the CG. Yet, with regard to *asking questions*, an examination of the recorded data revealed that EG participants were asking questions more frequently than they had at the start of the four weeks. It seems that participants' perceptions of the frequency with which they were *asking questions* at the end of the four weeks, had shifted, so that the final SILL actually represented a more accurate assessment of their use of this strategy relative to the CG than the initial SILL had.



	I ask others to slow down or repeat	I ask English speakers to correct me	I practice my English with other students	I ask for help from English speakers	I ask questions in English	I try to learn about the culture	Total
EG	4.2	3.2	4.4	3	4.4	3.8	3.83
CG	4.17	3.33	4.33	3.5	4.33	3.33	4.03

Figure 6 *EG and CG mean social strategy use: Final SILL (Part F)*

Despite the increase in the EG's use of the strategy *asking questions,* the CG consistently used this strategy more frequently than the EG throughout the four weeks (Figure 8). Nonetheless, the EG's use of *asking questions* increased more consistently (particularly in the final two weeks) than the CG's, which showed dramatic irregularities (Figure 8).

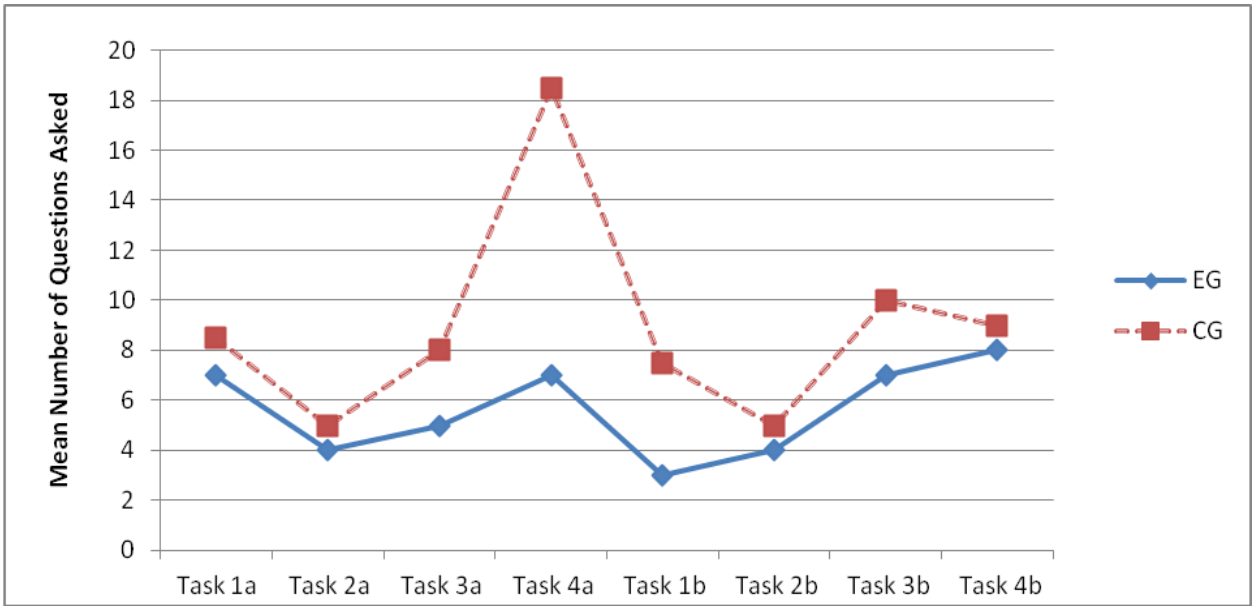


Figure 7 *Mean number of questions asked in EG and CG*

4.4.4 Differences in affective strategy use.

Figure 9 illustrates the differences in frequencies of affective strategic behaviours between the EG and the CG. The EG self-rated themselves as more frequent users of affective strategies than the EG at the outset of the study. By the end of the study (Figure 10) this gap had widened with the EG reporting an even greater frequency of affective strategy use overall.

Not surprisingly the EG reported an increase in both *I write down my feelings* and *I notice if I am tense or nervous* which is not surprising given the nature of the reflection task. The CG, on the other hand, reported a decrease in *I notice if I am tense or nervous*.

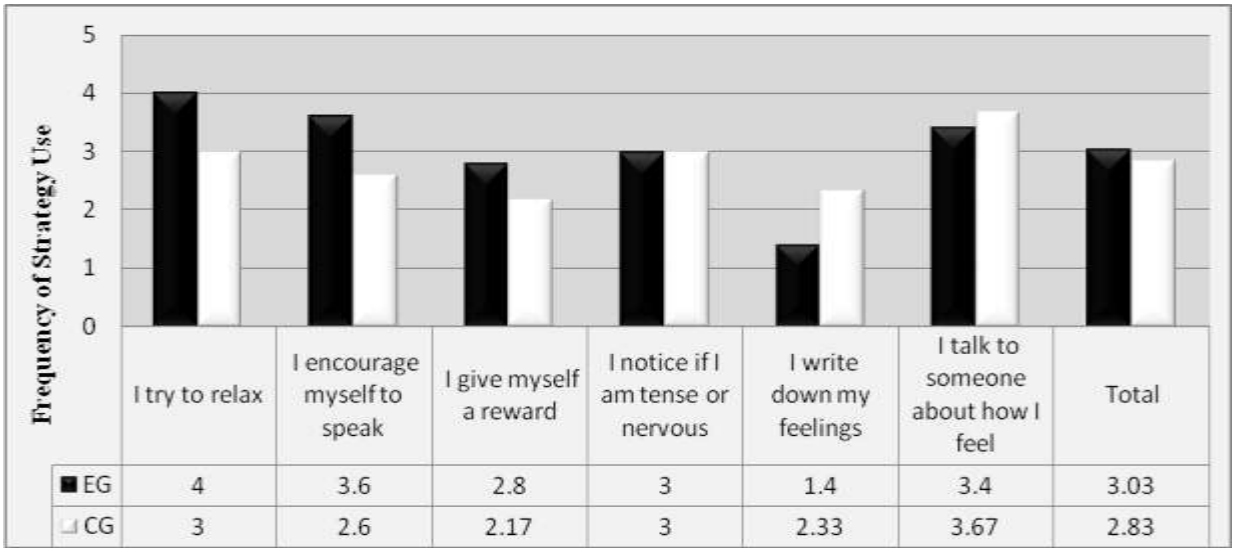


Figure 8 *EG and CG: Mean affective strategy use: Initial SILL (Part E)*

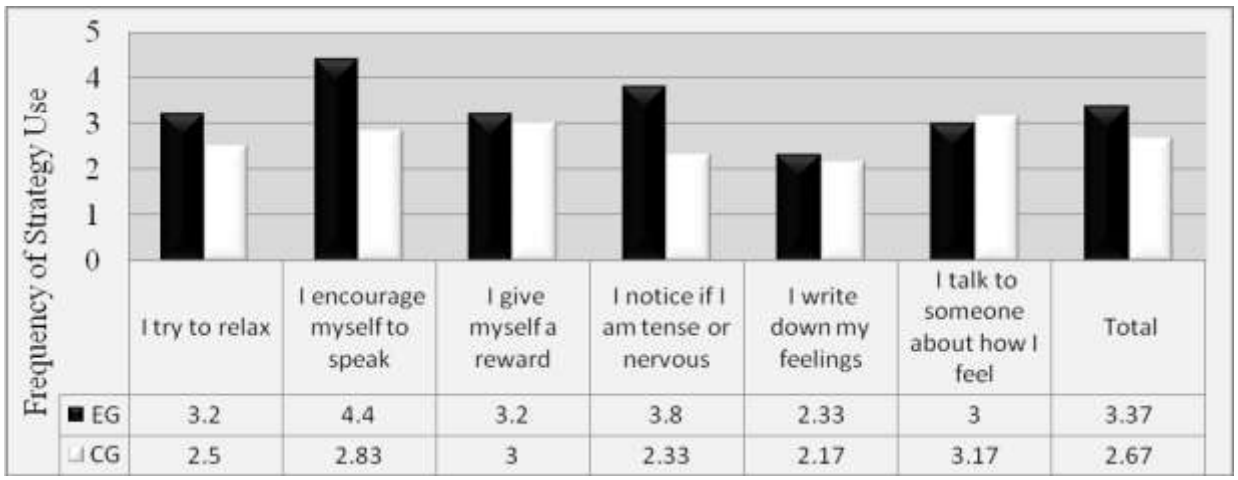


Figure 9 *EG and CG: Mean affective strategy use: Final SILL (Part E)*

The recorded data provided some information about the two groups' overt discourse behaviours. The frequency with which the two groups displayed specific social and affective behaviour differed: the EG showed a more frequent deployment of actions that might reflect attempts to create positive affective states (such as an increase in *complimenting*) than the CG;

as well, the EG showed a decrease in *justifying performance*. The CG, on the other hand, asked more questions than the EG. Table 13 summarizes the results.

Table 13

Frequencies of Social and Affective Behaviours in Discourse Data

	Experimental Group (n = 5)			Comparison Group (n = 6)		
	Affective Behaviours	Social Behaviours	Combined Behaviours	Affective Behaviours	Social Behaviours	Combined Behaviours
Mean	18.00	68.20	86.20	8.50	86.33	94.83
Median	19.00	58.00	77.00	8.50	83.50	93.00
Range	25	62	73	4	85	87
Total	90	341	431	51	518	569

Note. N = 11. Affective Behaviours include instances of *justifying performance*, *encouraging*, and *complimenting.* Social Behaviours include 8 types of *questions* (cultural, content, seeking clarification, seeking lexical assistance, checking partner's comprehension, checking partner's agreement, asking to be corrected, and form-focused questions) as well as *providing lexical assistance,* and *complimenting*

4.5 Research Question 4

What are EG learners' perceptions of the reflection process as examined by a final anonymous questionnaire?

To address this research question, the qualitative and quantitative results of the responses to the final anonymous questionnaire are provided. Fourteen members of the EG completed the questionnaires (see Section 3.2); some of whom were present for as few as two journaling sessions[2]. Summaries of the responses to nine questions are provided below.

[2] The final questionnaire was completed anonymously, and for this reason, it was not possible to identify the five core EG participants who met all the criteria for inclusion in the study; thus all 14 EG participants' data (regardless of how many tasks they completed) were included in the analysis of research question four.

4.5.1 Questionnaire item 1.

In your opinion, did the reflection journal help you to improve your speaking? Why or why not? Give examples.

Of the 14 respondents, 10 (71%) reported that they thought the reflection journal had helped them to improve their speaking; three (21%) felt that it had not; and one (7%) response was unrelated to the prompt. One participant who felt that the reflection journal had helped to improve his/her speaking provided the following comment: *"I think yes because when you have to think about your speaking you will see if it better and this is motivation for learn English"* Another wrote *"It really helped me to improve my speaking skill. I speak more than before."*

Those participants who felt that it did not help to improve their speaking provided the following reasons for their responses: *"I think no because I was writing about same things every time. If it had had something different every time, it would have helped my speaking"* and *"No, it didn't help me, because I always think about my speaking and many things I do."*

4.5.2 Questionnaire item 2.

Did the reflection journal have any influence on how much you spoke in the speaking tasks? In class in general? Outside class? Why or why not? Give examples.

Of the 14 respondents, nine (64%) felt that the reflection process did influence how much they spoke (eight in class, and one with his/her host family). Of the remaining five (36%), three participants felt that it did not influence their speaking in class; one participant did not respond; and one response was unrelated to the prompt.

4.5.3 Questionnaire item 3

Did the reflection journal help you to try new things in speaking activities? Give examples.

Seven respondents (50%) felt that the reflection did help them to try new things; two (14%) felt that it did not help them to try new things; two (14%) did not respond; and three responses (21%) were unrelated to the prompt. Among those who felt that reflection helped them try new things, two mentioned cognitive strategies in particular: "*Yes, you have to search or description (sic) new words*" and "*I tried to say another word instead of the word which I don't know*." Those respondents who felt that they did not try new things provided the following comments: "*The speaking practice was good, but I didn't try new things*" and *"I felt I was doing same thing every time."*

4.5.4. Questionnaire item 4.

Did the reflection journal help you to work together with classmates? Give examples.

When asked whether the reflection journal helped participants to work together with other classmates, 13 respondents (93%) felt that it did; and one was uncertain. Among those who felt it did, the following comments were provided: "*Yes, it did. It makes our class closer to each other*" and "*Oh yes. It was helpful for better work together*."

4.5.5 Questionnaire item 5.

Did the reflection journal help you to set goals or reach your goals? Give examples.

Of the 14 participants, nine (64%) responded positively: "*Yes. In this task I set my goal (but not specific), but I still am lack of speaking ability*" and "*Yes. This month's goal was speaking a lot. In the class I could speak with my classmates. And then I tried to talk with many friends so I can reach my goal*." One respondent (7%) felt that it did not help him (or her) to achieve goals, and four (29%) did not respond.

4.5.6 Questionnaire item 6.

Did you learn any new ways to improve your speaking? Give examples.

In total, 13 respondents (93%) expressed the opinion that they did learn new ways to improve their speaking. Commenting on new ways to improve their English, some participants commented that they had sought out opportunities to speak English with friends: "*I talked about improving the English speaking with my roommate. Then we decided to speak English outside from our room;*" and "*To make a lot of friends*." While another respondent mentioned his or her host family: "*Talk with host family*."

Two respondents suggested that reflection had helped them to find new ways to improve their speaking by developing communication strategies: *"Yes, I learned to explain for example, the for me unknown words"* and *"I learned that I should describe a word if I miss it."*Finally, one respondent was uncertain: "*I don't know. It is difficult to find a new way to improve speaking."*

4.5.7 Questionnaire item 7.

Do you think the reflection process should be kept in future classes? Why or why not?

Ten respondents (71%) felt that the reflection process should be kept in future classes; of the remaining four (29%), two did not know, and two did not respond. Among those who felt the reflection process should be continued, comments included: "*I think the reflection process should be kept in future because I could get a confidence to speak English by this task*" and "*It has to be kept in future. It is helpful for us to improve speaking and listening skill*." Finally, one participant wrote "*Yes, please. It is very helpful for the own status quo. After the reflection you are smarter about yourself!"*

4.5.8 Questionnaire item 8.

Is there anything else you'd like to share about the guided reflection process?

Three of the fourteen respondents provided further comments. One reiterated the importance of social interaction when learning to speak a second language: "*To make a lot of friends and everyday try to speak with friends*." A second respondent wrote: "*Don't stop with reflections! Another good idea will be, each Friday a little quiz to do with a short personal reflection"* and finally: "*It was a good thing. I enjoyed it*."

4.6 Summary and Key Findings

4.6.1 Research question 1.

What social and affective strategies will members of the experimental group report in their written reflections using in carrying out goal-oriented, task-specific classroom speaking activities?

In total, 15 individual social strategies and four individual affective strategies were identified in the EG's reflection journals and recorded data. In terms of frequency, the 15 social strategies were identified 364 times and the affective strategies 92 times for a total frequency of 456 during the eight speaking tasks. Participants' journal reports revealed individual preferences with regard to the strategies they used, and reported strategies did not necessarily reflect strategies identified in the recorded data, suggesting that there were also individual differences in participants' awareness regarding their own strategy use. Only two individual social strategies were reported by more than one participant in the reflection journals: *contributing ideas/expertise*, and *dividing tasks/roles*. The recorded data, however, revealed that all 5 EG participants used the social strategy *asking questions*.

When it came to affective strategies, the reflection journals did not prove to be a valuable source of information; however, participants made a few mentions of *supporting partners*, *respecting partner's ideas*, and *sharing feelings with partners*. Participants also set goals to *override affective states*, and *be confident;* however, participants did not report whether or not they achieved these goals and actually used these strategies. Recorded data provided evidence that members of the EG were *justifying their performance* and *complimenting their partners.*

4.6.2 Research question 2.

What kinds of changes in social and affective strategy use will members of the experimental group demonstrate in their written reflections over a four-week period?

Comments in the reflection journals suggested that EG participants were noticing their behaviours and setting goals to improve future tasks, such as *speaking English more outside of class*, *overriding negative feelings*, and *being confident*. Early journal entries contained numerous reports of lexical gaps and of negative feelings associated with these gaps; later entries, however, suggested that this became less of a concern, and participants realized they could ask their partners for help. Not all participants demonstrated the same depth of reflection, however. For one participant in particular, there was very little change and a minimal amount of information was given in response to reflection questions.

An examination of the recorded data indicated that participants in the EG increased the number of *questions* they asked, as well as the number of *compliments* they gave their partners, while instances of *justifying their performance* decreased, although these changes did not reach levels of statistical significance.

Finally, a comparison of the initial and final SILL also showed some interesting changes: EG participants' overall self-ratings on the second SILL dropped slightly with respect to social

strategy use, while overall affective strategy use increased. The largest increase in part F (addressing social strategic behaviour) of the SILL was in response to *I ask questions in English* and *I notice if I am tense or nervous;* the greatest decrease was in response to *I try to relax*. Of all the changes identified by parts E and F of the SILL, the only statistically significant change was an increase in the frequency rating of the strategy *I encourage myself to speak* ($p < .05$).

4.6.3 Research question 3.

Is there a difference between the experimental group (EG) that participates in written reflection and the comparison group (CG) that does not, in oral output, as measured by a) morpheme counts and b) lexical diversity?

Overall patterns of increases and decreases in morpheme counts were very similar between the two groups, although the CG consistently produced a greater number of morphemes than the EG. Despite this, the EG achieved higher vocd scores on 3 tasks (all in the last two weeks). Differences in vocd scores, however, did not reach levels of statistical significance ($p > .05$) over the four weeks.

The recorded data indicated that the CG *asked questions* more frequently than the EG, while the EG used affective strategies (*complimenting, justifying behaviour*) more frequently.

4.6.4 Research question 4.

What are EG learners' perceptions of the reflection process as examined by a final anonymous questionnaire?

Overall, participants' responses to the reflection process were very positive. In particular, 93% of respondents reported feeling that the reflection helped them to work together with their classmates and to learn new ways to improve their speaking. Furthermore, 71% felt that it should be kept in future classes and 64% felt that it influenced how much they spoke.

Chapter Five: Discussion

This chapter includes four sections addressing each of the following: key findings, limitations, implications (empirical, methodological, and pedagogical), and finally, future research directions.

5.1 Discussion of Key Findings

Findings pertaining to the difficulties encountered by participants are discussed first, followed by each of the four research questions.

5.1.1 Identified factors influencing task completion.

Participants reported three main factors as the most important affecting their spoken English: their lexical resources, their topic knowledge, and their affective state. These reports are in line with findings in other studies (Garret & Young, 2009; Osboe et al., 2007; Williams, 1991; 1992; Zeungler, 1993; Watanabe & Swain, 2008).

Firstly, in this study, participants' linguistic focus was primarily on lexis, a result in line with findings in previous studies. Williams' (1999, 2001) studies indicated that learners rarely focus on syntax in communicative tasks of this sort; she found that "learners at all levels are more concerned with sorting out lexical meaning than grammatical form, though, as they become more proficient, they are increasingly willing and/or able to address more grammatical issues on their own" (1999, p. 341). In the present study, the fact that participants mostly reported lexical difficulties over syntactic or morphological ones may have been further influenced by the action researcher's prompting to focus on fluency over accuracy, and for

participants to demonstrate their range of vocabulary. Furthermore, questions in the reflection journal explicitly addressed vocabulary issues, while problems with syntax were not addressed.

Secondly, a lack of content knowledge was reported to be an issue by a number of participants, indicating that interactional participation may be a function of interlocutors' relative knowledge of what they are talking about. Zeungler's (1993) study examining the levels of active conversational participation demonstrated by native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) indicated that content knowledge was a factor influencing conversational participation. "NSs may take over the talk when interacting with NNSs who have limited oral skills, but not in all circumstances; when such NNSs have greater content knowledge, it is they who become the talkers" (p. 423). She points out that

> second language development is to an important extent a function of the learner's domains of content knowledge and interest. Consequently, any given learner's second language development and performance may vary from one discourse domain to another. Within an interaction, content domain knowledge is a relative concept, because how much one interlocutor knows is measured against the knowledge level of the other interlocutor (p. 406).

Finally, journal comments in this study indicated that participants recognized the role that emotions played in their speaking performance. Emotions experienced before, during, and after the speaking tasks were overwhelmingly positive, and interlocutors were identified as positive influences on participants' affective states. The frequency of *positive* emotions reported by the participants in this study is in line with other research (Garret & Young, 2009; Pekrun et al., 2002) and serves to highlight their importance in language learning. While the vast majority of studies have focused on negative emotions such as anxiety, positive emotions (e.g., pride, hope, and, enjoyment) are equally important and warrant further investigation. References to interlocutors (and social interactions in general) were very positive; in a few instances; however,

two situations were mentioned that did trigger anxiety: (1) speaking with interlocutors from unfamiliar cultures, and (2) speaking with interlocutors who were perceived as more proficient in the target language. Similar findings have also been reported elsewhere in the literature (e.g., Osboe et al., 2007; Watanabe & Swain, 2008).

5.1.2 Research question 1: Reported social and affective strategies

Individual participants reported using a number of strategies to overcome difficulties and work effectively together with their partners to complete speaking tasks[3]. However, journal reports did not always reflect behaviours identified in the recorded data. *Asking questions*, for example, was reported by only one participant, and *justifying performance* was not reported at all, but an examination of recorded data revealed that all participants demonstrated both of these behaviours.

Although the results of the SILL and the recorded data indicated that EG participants were frequent users of many affective strategies (in particular, *complimenting*, *encouraging myself to speak*), participants made few mentions of using affective strategies in their reflection journals. There are a number of possible explanations for this: (1) they may not have been aware of some of the affective strategies they were using (e.g., *justifying performance*), (2) the reflection questions were not effective in guiding participants to think about their affective strategies, (3) participants were unwilling to report affective behaviours. Possibly, all three factors played a role.

[3]Although individual learners' strategy use and production over time was examined, no clear patterns emerged.

5.1.3 Research question 2: Changes in reported strategic behaviours.

Participants' responses to the SILL indicated that they felt their efforts to *encourage themselves to speak* over the four weeks had increased; furthermore, this increase reached levels of statistical significance. *Encouraging oneself to speak* cannot be easily quantified and is impossible to corroborate with recorded data. Written comments in reflection journals, however, did support participants' belief that their efforts to speak had increased, and that they were making efforts in the classroom and elsewhere. The reported use of this strategy, however, did not result in increases in output during the speaking tasks over the four weeks. Nonetheless, a learner's perception is an important factor influencing language learning, despite the fact that it may not always be accurate (e.g., Huang, 2010).

Results from the SILL also showed an overall increase in participants' reported frequency of *I notice if I am tense or nervous.* EG participants scored an average of 3.0 on the initial SILL and 3.8 on the second; the CG scores, on the other hand dropped form an average of 3.0 on the initial SILL to 2.33 on the final SILL. This increase in the EG scores, and drop in the CG scores suggest that the reflection journals may have been an effective tool to encourage participants to notice their affective states. Interestingly, the strategy *I try to relax,* which received a mean rating of 4.0 on the initial SILL, dropped to 3.2 on the final SILL. It is possible that, because participants were not experiencing heightened anxiety, the need to employ this strategy had lessened.

In terms of social strategy use, participants' reports on the SILL showed a slight overall decrease from the first to second SILL. It may be that this drop was not a reflection of decreased social strategy use, but an indication that over the four weeks, participants had gained a greater awareness of their strategic behaviour, and the results of the second SILL reflected the fact that

participants were able to report more accurately what they were actually doing. In other words, participants in the EG may have overrated their use of social strategies on the initial SILL, and the reflection journal led them to notice and more accurately rate their strategic behaviours on the final SILL.

The EG's self-reports on the SILL as well as frequency counts in the recorded data indicated slight increases over the four weeks in the frequencies of *asking questions* and *complimenting. Justifying performance,* on the other hand, decreased. Hadwin (2011) has suggested that *justifying performance* is a coping mode and points out that learners may protect their egos through the use of this strategy. It may be that level of social and affective support among members of the EG had increased and that the strategy *justifying performance* was no longer necessary.

Most of the EG participants' written journal comments showed changes of some sort over the four weeks; new strategies emerged in their reports, references to *using a dictionary* decreased, and participants indicated that lexical difficulties were less anxiety provoking; they realized that they could *ask their partners for help*.

Reflection question nine was intended to encourage participants to set specific goals: *Based on your comments, what is one thing you will do for the next speaking task? Be specific.* Responses to this question indicated that many participants had noticed some of their behaviours and set goals to improve their speaking. "*I will try to speak English only, not use gesture in the next speaking task*" (Sam: Week 1, Task 2a). Alice set the following goal: "*I think I should have speaking practice. So I'll talk with my friends after school. Maybe it is good practice to me*" (Week 1, Task 1a).

Simply having learners respond to reflection questions in the journal, however, did not guarantee that all participants would make an effort to gain a deeper self-awareness, alter their strategic behaviours or set effective goals. Reflection is an effortful process, and Janet, in particular, expressed a strong dislike for it; she also demonstrated very little change over the four weeks and wrote:

> *I will do the same like today* (Week 1, Task 1a).
> *I think the same like today* (Week 2, Task 4a).
> *I will do like today I think* (Week 3, Task 1b).
> *I have hated this questions and the speaking tasks, but it was good for me and now I am more sure about myself* (Week 4, Task 4b).

5.1.4 Research question 3: Differences between the EG and CG groups.

Differences in morpheme counts and vocd scores between the EG and the CG were not statistically significant; nevertheless, it should be noted that "in all inferential statistical tests, the *p* values of the test statistics are a function of the sample size" (Huang, forthcoming). Furthermore, given that the period of reflection was only four weeks, it is perhaps too short a time to expect significant increases in oral output to occur; periods of longer than four weeks may be required. Tsou (2005) explicitly trained learners in an experimental group to use a variety of speaking strategies for participating in a discussion (e.g., *requesting help*, *indicating a lack of comprehension*) over a 12-week period in an attempt to increase learner participation (defined as the number of turns). Tsou found that although *classroom oral participation* did increase in both groups, the difference in the increase between the two groups (EG and CG) was not statistically significant and concluded that "The reason that the oral classroom participation difference did not reach the .05 level could be because of the short duration of the experiment period" (p. 50).

In the present study, although the CG consistently outperformed the EG in terms of morpheme counts, during the final two weeks, on three occasions the EG produced higher vocd scores, demonstrating that producing more spoken English did not guarantee a greater diversity of vocabulary. It is important to note that *all* audible words were transcribed (including utterances such as "*okay, okay, okay"*). Before each speaking task, participants in both groups were reminded to speak as much as possible and to demonstrate the widest possible range of vocabulary. The reflection journal, however, only explicitly asked EG participants to comment on their vocabulary; there were no questions addressing *the amount* of speaking participants did. That the EG participants did not increase their output over the four weeks may have been due to the nature of the reflection questions which guided their attention to vocabulary diversity rather than the amount of oral output they produced.

Social and affective strategies are presumed to indirectly influence language acquisition (Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1981); furthermore, in this study, learners were not taught or guided to use any specific strategy (in fact, the term *strategy* was never used by the action researcher during the speaking tasks or the reflection). Participants were only asked to reflect on their emotions, vocabulary, and behaviours that they used during the tasks. It is likely that increases in levels of output in terms of morpheme counts or vocabulary diversity may require more than four weeks of reflection to become apparent. In other words, the amount of oral output a learner produces is not a dependent variable of reflection, although it may be a dependent variable of social and affective strategy use.

Finally, it is interesting that there were striking differences in the two groups' conversational interactions and patterns of strategic behaviour (where the EG used more

affective strategies and the CG used more social strategies); whether or not these differences were prompted by the reflection process merits further investigation.

5.1.5 Research question 4: Participants' perceptions of the reflection process.

Overall, participants reported the belief that the reflection process was beneficial. This was particularly true in light of the question "*Did reflection help you to work together with your classmates*?" Thirteen out of fourteen respondents (93%) felt that it did help them work with their classmates. From the perspective of sociocultural theory, effective collaboration is an essential ingredient in learning processes. In the context of an L2 classroom where intercultural communication is a factor (and achieving effective collaboration can be even more challenging) (Teng, 2005), these results are significant. As well, 93% of respondents felt that they had learned new ways to improve their speaking, and 71% reported feeling that reflection should be kept in future classes.

Although these results are encouraging, it is also important to note that not all participants engaged in the reflective process to the same degree, or recognized its value. It may have been that, for some learners, the antecedents necessary for reflection were not present (Rogers, 2001). That is, either the questions were not helpful since they did not address *a problem* or *puzzling situation* for that particular learner, or the learner was not willing or ready to engage in the process.

5.2 Implications

5.2.1 Theoretical implications.

Social and affective strategy research has been largely neglected; this is reflected in current LLS taxonomies, which do not address the complex social and affective strategic

behaviours that learners demonstrate during conversational interactions. In this study, learners deployed a wide range of strategies to address not only their own linguistic, affective, and social difficulties, but also those of their interlocutors. I believe that previous strategy inventories have not gone far enough to address this complexity. The strategy *asking questions*, for example, is too general and does not reflect the range of strategic purposes for which it is used. The ability to navigate complex intercultural communication and to select appropriate social and affective strategies takes on real significance in the context of a culturally and linguistically heterogeneous group of learners. This complexity is not reflected in current taxonomies.

5.2.2 Methodological implications.

Recently, Larsen-Freeman (2011) has argued for a complexity theory approach to second language development. Originating in the natural sciences, complexity theory addresses problems of organized complexity (as opposed to problems of simplicity that have small numbers of controllable variables). In this sense, complexity theory would seem well suited to the study of second language acquisition. Larsen-Freeman states that many conventional research methods are incompatible with complexity theory because of their lack of ecological validity. Rather, she suggests that dynamical description is an appropriate means for studying organized, complex systems such as language acquisition. Action research represents an ecologically valid methodology that is well-suited to providing this type of dynamic description, and more action research studies are needed.

Research targeting affective strategies might require a higher level of preparation than cognitive strategies. Learners may be unaccustomed to being asked about their feelings in learning contexts, where the focus is typically on cognition. Thus some preparation in terms of discussions of cultural affective and social behaviours might be beneficial.

In this action research, ethical constraints placed a number of restrictions on the methodology. The researcher was unable to examine or respond to what participants had written in their reflection journals, or to check the audibility of the recordings. Although a necessary precaution from an ethical perspective when research is the focus, this restriction would not be necessary in an authentic working classroom.

Finally, the difficulties inherent in data collection and in LLS research in particular, serve to highlight the importance of triangulating the data. Ellis (1994) argued that verbal reports are incomplete and they have problems in terms of validity because learners may not know their affective and cognitive processes well enough to report accurately, and may require tutoring in order to report accurately. However, Macaro (2006) has countered this argument saying that "The methodology for eliciting learner strategy use, although imperfect, is at an acceptable level of validity and reliability" (p. 321). Nonetheless, this does not mean that questionnaires alone should be considered sufficient to provide a complete and accurate picture of learners' strategic behaviour. Findings in the present study are in line with previous research (e.g., Huang, 2010) indicating that participants' perceptions are not always accurate. Other data collection methods such as observations, video recordings, and audio recordings are useful and provide means for triangulation. Video recordings are preferred over audio recordings as they provide a more complete picture of what learners are doing and a means to verify reported strategies such as s*earching for words in a dictionary*, *gesturing* and *making notes*. Further checks, such as follow-up interviews, are recommended to increase reliability.

5.2.3 Pedagogical implications.

Reflection as a tool as has a long history in educational contexts (Rogers, 2001), and the results of this study suggests that it can be a useful tool. Three implications regarding the use of

reflection emerging from this research are that (1) particularly at this proficiency level, some initial guidance may be beneficial for learners in the reflection process, (2) not all learners will embrace reflection to the same degree, and (3) reflection may be most effective when it is tailored to meet the needs of the learners, the curriculum, and reflects the goals and outcomes of the course.

Although the ultimate goal should be learner self-regulation, it is expected that some guidance and feedback from a teacher regarding reflection and goal setting will be beneficial. "Central to the development of reflective skills in students - whether reflection in the moment or after the fact - is the presence of a coach or mentor" (Rogers, 2001, p. 53). Indeed, upon examination of the reflection journals, it became clear that the learners in this study struggled with setting effective goals, despite prompting to be *specific*. Zimmerman (2008) has suggested eight properties of advantageous goals; they should be: specific, proximal, organized hierarchically according to short-term and long-term goals, congruent with other goals, challenging but attainable, self-set, conscious, and enhance learning process goals rather than performance goals. The focus of this research was on *self* feedback and, to a lesser extent, on *peer* feedback. Unfortunately, in this study, ethical constraints meant that participants could not receive *teacher* feedback. As Hadwin (2008) points out, from a self-regulation perspective "Feedback provides information students can use to revise, add to, or replace knowledge about strategies, tasks, beliefs, self, and metacognition. In this way, it is a necessary component of the self-regulatory cycle" (p. 177).

Comments made by participants in this study illustrate the reality that reflection will not be equally embraced by all learners. Participants' journal entries revealed that the levels of reflection among participants varied dramatically. Comments suggested that, for some

participants in this study, the opportunity to seriously reflect on their emotions, strategic behaviours, and speaking goals led them to notice the challenges they encountered, and to make conscious decisions about how to tackle those challenges; others were less willing to reflect and demonstrated little change over the four weeks. As Rogers says, "many students come to higher education today socialized by a customer service world, expecting customer service treatment. Unfortunately, many learners want, and even expect, their educational experiences to be easy, simple, and unchallenging" (Rogers, 1991, p. 50). Reflection is an effortful and often uncomfortable process that can evoke negative reactions if students do not recognize its benefits.

Finally, models of SRL view reflection as an important component in learning. This study demonstrates that formalizing the reflection process and providing opportunities for reflection during classroom time is easily achieved and implemented. Furthermore, reflection is not only a useful tool for learners, but also for teachers and researchers. Factors such as time constraints, course goals, and the individual needs of learners are all important considerations when providing learners with opportunities to reflect. The modality of reflection (spoken or written) and the type of grouping selected (i.e., individual, paired, large groups) should also be considered. In a working classroom, reflection should be integrated into the program and reflect the goals of the course (e.g., Donato & MacCormick, 1994).

Although teachers may choose to use guided reflection for any number of purposes, in the present study, the intent of reflection was to focus learners' attention on their social and affective behaviours during speaking tasks; participants reported feeling that the reflection journals helped them to work effectively with their classmates. In classroom contexts, unfortunately, teachers are sometimes called upon to mediate between learners who refuse to work together, have

preconceived cultural judgements, or lack social awareness. However, if learners are able to assume the responsibility to notice and address their own social and affective issues and strategic behaviours with the goal of achieving positive interaction and collaboration in the language classroom, they have taken an important step towards self-regulation.

5.3 Limitations

5.3.1 Study size and length.

The size of the present study was small, a factor which does not allow for generalizability, but is representative of this particular group of English learners, in the teaching context. Furthermore, this study provides insight into the value of reflection for teachers who have limited periods of time available, a reality in many language learning programs beyond university settings. Four weeks, although a relatively short time in terms of experimental research, reflects the reality of many language learning programs, where business people, international students, and others have only limited time available to invest in intensive language learning. Thus, the findings in this study have ecological validity for this school and many others catering to the needs of learners in these short term programs.

5.3.2 Language choice and modality of reflection.

Due to language constraints imposed by the school, participants were required to respond to the reflections in English, their target language. This factor may have limited participants' ability to accurately and fully articulate their ideas in the reflection journals. Nonetheless, the practice of having learners reflect in a target language is common practice in many classrooms.

In addition, the modality of reflection may have been a factor influencing what they chose to report (e.g., Huang, 2010, 2012).

5.3.3 Research methods.

A number of factors involving research methods limit the results of the findings. Firstly, despite the fact that the action researcher took every step available to reduce the possibility of researcher effects (e.g., not looking at the data until the final marks were assigned, having participants complete the final questionnaires anonymously), there is always a possibility that they may have played a role, particularly since the researcher was also the teacher. Participants were prompted to provide as much information as possible; however, they may not have been willing or able to share all their thoughts and opinions.

When it came to the strategic behaviour that participants used to address negative emotions, very little information was gathered; this may have been due to a number of factors: the wording of the questions in the reflection journal may not have been effective, participants may not have been willing to share information about emotions (which in many cultures is not deemed appropriate), or learners may not have had the linguistic ability to describe the strategies they used to regulate their emotions. Dewaele (2008) found that communicating emotions in target languages can be particularly difficult because learners and users may not have the linguistic and pragmatic means to express the full range of their emotions. Furthermore, the expression of emotions may not be considered appropriate by their interlocutors.

The journal was not intended to collect data regarding the frequency of strategic behaviours; participants were asked to report *what* they did, not *how frequently* they did it. The researcher is well aware of the limitations associated with any attempt to assign a strategy to an outwardly observable action. Oxford (2011, p. 12) defines skills as the automatic behaviours that

are not within a speaker's awareness. It is impossible to know whether an action is a skill or a strategy unless one knows whether or not the action was deliberate or automatic. Nonetheless, these outwardly observable behaviours can provide valuable clues to learners' strategic behaviours (2011), particularly when triangulated with other data. The paucity of detail provided in participants' reflection journals, particularly with regard to affective strategy use (despite efforts on the part of the researcher to continually prompt participants to provide rich description, details, and examples) necessitated an examination of other data. For this reason, it was felt that an analysis of the participants' discourse data (beyond morpheme counts and vocd scores), could serve to provide further insight into participants' affective strategy use. The strategies reported in this study, therefore, do not reflect a complete picture of the strategic behaviours of the participants, but only a glimpse into some of their experiences and behaviours.

5.4 Future Directions

An important practical concern when undertaking research of this sort has to do with transcription. The paucity of studies investigating the modality of speaking in LLS research suggests that other researchers share this concern. This is not surprising given the fact that transcription often requires a large investment of time and can present many challenges. Future developments in technology and, in particular, advances in voice recognition are needed and will dramatically open up this field.

A second area deserving further attention is the role that affective states play in L2 acquisition. In terms of affect, it is clear that negative emotions (in particular anxiety) have received the most attention from researchers. However, this study supports the findings in other

research (e.g., Pekrun et al., 2002) that positive emotions (e.g., hope, enjoyment, and pride) occur frequently in learning contexts and warrant further investigation. In addition, while LLS research has traditionally viewed affective strategies as behaviours that learners use to regulate their *own* emotions (e.g., O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), it was evident from the recorded data in this study, that learners also use strategies to regulate their *interlocutors'* emotions during oral tasks. Thus, learners' strategic behaviour is not *only* self-directed. An examination of how and when learners co-regulate emotions during speaking tasks might yield interesting results.

Given the individual differences demonstrated in participants' reported social and affective strategic behaviours, a longitudinal examination of individual behaviours may provide further insight beyond the group level. Thus, case studies examining social and affective strategic behaviours on an individual level are also required to further the body of knowledge in the field.

Finally, more action research is needed. Teachers are in a unique position to collect ecologically valid data concerning LLS use that is directly relevant to classroom practice; this type of data is not available to researchers using controlled experimental methods. Furthermore, action research offers a means to investigate questions that are directly relevant to teachers and learners which are often not addressed in experimental research.

Chapter Six: Conclusion

Language teachers who bemoan the fact that some learners do not speak as much in conversational interactions as they might wish can benefit from gaining a deeper understanding of the multiple challenges that their students face. The findings in this study suggest that the amounts and characteristics of learners' output was mediated by a number of complex interconnected factors, such as the lexical resources available to the learner, the content knowledge required by the task, the collaborative nature of the pair (or group), and participants' affective states. Ongoing research in this area has important implications for teachers who want to create better opportunities for learners to produce oral output in the target language and to benefit fully from interactional conversations. Integrating opportunities for formal reflection into L2 curricula can be an effective method of providing, not only learners, but also teachers with insight into these challenges and what learners are doing to overcome them. Furthermore, giving learners the task of reflecting on their own strategic behaviour places the responsibility for learning firmly in their court. As Hadwin and Winne (2011) put it, "High quality learning emerges when learners become skilled researchers about their own learning; constructing metacognitive knowledge about studying episodes, and compiling it with past experiences to recognize and intervene with maladaptive patterns over time" (p. 2).

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Appendix A

Participant Background Questionnaire

1. Name (include your English name also if applicable)
2. Age
3. Male □ Female □
4. E-mail address
5. What is your first language?
6. What other languages do you speak?
7. How long have you been learning English?
8. At what age did you first start learning English?
9. Why are you learning English?
10. How long have you been studying in this program/school?
11. I have taken an IELTS exam. Yes □ No □ If yes, what was your score?
12. I have taken a TOEFL exam. Yes □ No □ If yes, what was your score?
13. How would you describe your ability to speak English (beginner, intermediate, or advanced)?

Appendix B

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning Parts E and F[4]

1. *Never true of me* = also includes 'almost never true of me'- it doesn't happen very often in your learning behaviour
2. *Usually not true of me* = it happens occasionally in your learning behaviour
3. *Somewhat true of me* = it happens in a fairly regular pattern in your learning behaviour
4. *Usually true of me* = it happens regularly and represents an obvious pattern in your learning behaviour
5. *Always true of me* = also includes 'almost always true of me'- it happens almost all the time and represents a strong pattern in your learning behaviour

	1. Never true of me	*2.Usually not true of me*	*3.Somewhat true of me*	*4.Usually true of me*	*5. Always true of me*
	Part: E (Affective Strategy Use)				
1. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.					
2. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
3. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.					
4. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying English.					
5. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.					
6. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.					
	Part: F (Social Strategy Use)				
1. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.					
2. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.					
3. I practice my English with other students.					
4. I ask for help from English speakers.					
5. I ask questions in English.					
6. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.					

[4] This is the ESL/EFL Version 7.0 of the Strategy inventory for language learning (Oxford, 1989).

Appendix C

Guided Reflection

- **If you have given consent to participate in the study that is being conducted by Patricia (Trish) Hannigan, responding to any of the following questions will imply ongoing consent to participate; however, you are free to withdraw from the study at any time.**

1. How do you feel you did in this task?
2. In this speaking activity, were there any instances where you felt you'd like to say something but you didn't? Yes □ No □ If yes, when and why?
3. How did you feel about your vocabulary in this activity?
4. When you tried to say something, if you couldn't find the words, how did you feel? What did you do?

5. Tell me how you felt before, during and after this activity, and why?

Before:

During:

After:

6. In your view, did any emotions affect your speaking – either positively or negatively? How?

7. Did you do anything to overcome problems in this activity? Yes □ No □
   If so, what did you do?

8. Comment on how you and your partner worked together to complete this task.

   What could **you** do to improve your working together to complete this task?

9. Based on your comments, what is one thing you will do for the next speaking task? Be specific.

Appendix D

Final Anonymous Questionnaire

1. In your opinion, did the reflection journal help you to improve your speaking? Why or why not? Give examples.
2. Did the reflection journal have any influence on how much you spoke in the speaking tasks? In class in general? Outside class? Why or why not? Give examples.
3. Did the reflection journal help you to try new things in speaking activities? Give examples.
4. Did the reflection journal help you to work together with classmates? Give examples.

5. Did the reflection journal help you to set goals or reach your goals? Give examples.
6. Did you learn any new ways to improve your speaking? Give examples.
7. Do you think the reflection process should be kept in future classes? Why or why not?
8. Is there anything else you'd like to share about the guided reflection process?

Appendix E

Speaking Tasks

These speaking tasks will have three parts: planning, practicing, and presenting.

- *With a partner, you will have 8 minutes to discuss ideas and plan what you will say.*
- *You will then have 8 minutes to practice your prepared 2 minute speaking task.*
- *Finally, you will have 2 minutes to record your prepared speaking task.*

The decision of how you want to do your final speaking task is entirely up to you; however, you should use the full 2 minutes and ***both partners*** *should make an effort to* ***speak as much as possible*** *during the entire 18 minutes and* ***demonstrate the widest range of vocabulary possible****. The entire process, (planning, practicing, and presenting the final product) will all be recorded. Your teacher will time the task and tell you when to begin planning, when to begin practicing, and when to begin the presentation, as well as when to stop.*

Initial (Practice) Task

With your partner, decide what makes a great city. Suggest ways that Victoria is a great city and ways that Victoria could be improved.

Eight Speaking Tasks

Weeks 1 & 2	**Task 1a**	With your partner, plan a birthday party for a seven-year-old boy or girl.
	Task 2a	With your partner, list the most important qualities of a good *spouse*. Explain your choices, give examples, and support your ideas.
	Task 3a	Work with your partner to design a two-minute television commercial to sell *running shoes*. You can perform the commercial, explain it, or both.
	Task 4a	Work with your partner to design your dream house *on the beach.* Describe your plans.
Weeks 3 & 4	**Task 1b**	With your partner, plan a 50th wedding anniversary party.
	Task 2b	With your partner, list the most important qualities of a good *parent.* Explain your choices, give examples, and support your ideas.
	Task 3b	Work with your partner to design a two- minute television commercial to sell *a car*. You can perform the commercial, explain it, or both.
	Task 4b	Work with your partner to design your dream house *in a big city*. Describe your plans.

Appendix F

Coding Scheme for Emotions

+/−	EMOTIONS	EXAMPLES FROM REFLECTION JOURNALS
Positive	Hope	*Hopeful; confident* (mentioned before beginning a task)
	Enjoyment	*Fun; interested; enjoyed; excited*
	Confidence (post-task)	*Confident* (mentioned after task completion)
	Relief	*Glad it's over*
	Pride/Satisfaction	*Satisfied*
	Other Positive	*Well; good; nice; not bad; comfortable; fine; liked it; okay; better than before*
Negative	Anxiety/Worry	*Worried; nervous*
	Frustration	*Frustrated; impatient; annoyed*
	Regret/Disappointment	*Disappointed; not satisfied*
	Other Negative	*Not so comfortable; less confident; oh, no, not my favorite task*

Appendix G

Coding of Strategies Reported in EG Reflection Journals

COMMUNICATION: Strategies used to overcome communication problems in order to achieve a communicative goal		
INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Circumlocution	Communicating an idea indirectly (i.e., explaining an item's purpose, describing physical properties, etc.)	*I try to describe my word that I don't know* (Alex: Week 4, Task 4b).
Paraphrasing	Using other words that express the same idea	*I could say it in other word* (Kate: Week 1, Task 1a).
Simplifying the language	Simplifying syntactic structures and/or vocabulary	*Explained by using easy words* (Sam: Week 2, Task 3a).
Drawing a picture	Using illustration as a means to communicate ideas	*...painted it* (Janet: Week 2, Task 4b).
Gesturing	Using physical gestures to communicate ideas	*I used gestures* (Sam: Week 4, Task 4b).
Abandoning message	Abandoning efforts to communicate a message	*I gave up saying something* (Alice: Week 2, Task 4a).
Repeating to clarify meaning	Repeating a word or phrase in an attempt to clarify meaning	*I tried saying it many times* (Kate: Week 3, Task 1b).
SOCIAL: Strategies involving the use of social interaction to achieve language learning or language use goals		
INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Contributing ideas/ expertise	Sharing knowledge, skill, or expertise with an interlocutor	*I shared my experience in selling strategies for this task* (Alex: Week 2, Task 3a).
Dividing tasks/roles	Dividing tasks or roles	*Janet is a customer, and I'm a seller like a conversation when people buy a car* (Sam: Week 4, Task 3b).
Providing lexical assistance	Making lexical suggestions when an interlocutor is experiencing difficulty or requests help	*I helped my partner with vocabulary with special words* (Alex: Week 4, Task 4b).
Cooperating	Using words and actions to demonstrate a willingness to cooperate	*Do and say things to cooperate* (Kate: Week 3, Task 1b).
Assuming a leadership role	Assuming a leadership responsibility/role	*Think I guided the conversation* (Alex: Week 3, Task 1b).

Explaining ideas	Explaining ideas to a partner	*To explain or help my partner when her miss a word or her don't understand a explain (sic)* (Alex: Week 1, Task 1a).
Making an effort to speak	Making an effort to speak	*I tried to speak* (Kate: Week 3, Task 1b).
Making an effort to understand	Making an effort to understand an interlocutor	*I made an effort to understand* (Kate: Week 3, Task 2b).
Listening	Attending to what an interlocutor says	*Listen to my partner* (Kate: Week 4, Task 4b).
Finding common ground	Finding commonalities with an interlocutor (linguistic, experiential, etc.)	*We spoke about the basics to find the same level* (Alex: Week 1, Task 1a).
Explaining task requirements	Explaining task requirements to a partner	*I explained the practice* (Alex: Week 3, Task 2b).
Elaborating	Providing additional information, supporting ideas, providing examples	*Today we could support our ideas* (Sam: Week 4, Task 3b).
Asking questions	Asking questions	*I asked him some questions* (Janet: Week 4, Task 4b).
Respecting partner's ideas*	Doing or saying things to demonstrate respect for a partner's ideas	*We respected each other's opinion* (Alice: Week 3, Task 1b).
Seeking help from interlocutor	Requesting help (linguistic, conceptual, or affective) from an interlocutor	*I ask my partner for help* (Alex: Week 3, Task 2b).

AFFECTIVE: Strategies used to regulate emotions and affective states

INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Respecting partner's ideas*	Doing or saying things to express approval of an interlocutor's ideas, skills, opinions or knowledge	*We respected each other's opinion* (Alice: Week 3, Task 1b).
Sharing feelings with partner	Sharing feelings or emotions with a partner	*We could share our feelings each other* (Kate: Week 1, Task 2a).
Supporting partner	Saying and doing things to provide support to a partner	*Supporting partner* (Kate: Week 1, Task 1a).

COGNITIVE STRATEGIES: Strategies used to manipulate the target language in order to understand or produce language

INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Using a dictionary	Searching for lexical items in a dictionary	*I used my dictionary* (Alex: Week 2, Task 4a).
Searching for another word	Searching for another word (whether in dictionary or memory is not specified)	*I searched another word* (Kate: Week 2, Task 3a).

Recalling vocabulary	Attempting to recall a vocabulary item from memory	*Tried to remember the words* (Alice: Week 2, Task 4a).
Generating ideas	Allowing ideas to flow freely	*We made a brainstorming* (Alex: Week 1, Task 2a).
Using key words	Making use of key words to organize ideas	*We chose some words and then we made the dialog* (Janet: Week 2, Task 3a).
Using imagination	Using imagination	*I imagined to support our ideas* (Sam: Week 4, Task 4a).
Focusing on fluency	Focusing attention on fluency	*I focused on fluent speaking* (Sam: Week 3, Task 2b).
Organizing ideas	Organizing ideas in a logical way	*We collected our ideas; after that, we arranged them* (Alice: Week 3, Task
METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES: Strategies involved in planning, monitoring, and evaluating language learning and language use		
INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Planning ahead before speaking	Planning before speaking	*First I arranged the words I wanted to say in my brain then I made a sentence* (Sam: Week 3, Task 2b).

* Included in both Social and Affective categories

Appendix H

Coding of Social and Affective Strategies Identified in Recorded Data

SOCIAL STRATEGIES: Strategies involving the use of social interaction to achieve language learning or language use goals			
INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES		DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Providing lexical assistance		Making lexical suggestions, when an interlocutor is experiencing difficulty or asks for help	*You mean leasing* (EG: Alex: Week 4, Task 3b)? Michael: *How to say this one here, underground?* Sam: *Basement* (EG: Week 4, Task 4b).
Asking questions	**Asking content questions**	Asking questions pertaining to the topic of the task	*What the party is about theme* (CG: Rita: Week 1, Task 1a)?
	Questioning to check partner's comprehension	Asking questions to confirm that an interlocutor has understood	*You know what I mean* (EG: Janet: Week 2, Task 4a)?
	Questioning to clarify	Asking questions in order to clarify what an interlocutor has said	*Deb: And the balloon.* *Rita: Balloon* (CG: Rita: Week 3, Task 1b)? *Robert: A flower* *Janet: A what* (EG: Week 4, Task 4b)?
	Questioning to check partner is in agreement	Asking questions to check that an interlocutor is in agreement	*Do you agree with me* (CG: Deb: Week 4, Task 3b)? *Okay* (CG: Claire: Week 1, Task 1a)?
	Asking questions about linguistic form	Asking questions pertaining to linguistic form	*Travel or travelling* (CG: Rita: Week 4, Task 3b)? *How can you spell this* (EG: Alice: Week 4, Task 4b)?
	Asking questions about lexis	Asking questions pertaining to lexis	*A lot of gap or hole* (CG: Shirlie: Week 2, Task 3a)? *What's the name of this* (CG: Rita: Week 2, Task 4a)?
	Asking cultural questions	Asking questions about an interlocutor's language, culture, or country	*I have a question: in Portuguese custom, or Portuguese culture, if a man want to get married another woman, they prepare what* (CG: Shirlie: Week 1, Task 2a)?
	Asking for explicit correction	Explicitly asking an interlocutor to correct linguistic errors.	*Just can you correct it* (CG: Rita: Week 4, Task 4b)?

AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES: Strategies used to regulate emotions and affective states		
INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Justifying performance	Providing reasons for or acknowledging one's own (perceived) poor performance	*I don't know spell* (EG: Sam: Week 1, Task 1a). *I don't know much about Japan's culture* (CG: Maya: Week 1, Task 1a).
Complimenting*	Making positive comments regarding an interlocutor's ideas, abilities, skills, or knowledge	*It's a good idea* (EG: Alice: Week 2, Task 3a). *I think you will be nice party planner in the future* (EG: Sam: Week 3, Task 1b).
Encouraging	Encouraging an interlocutor who is expressing negative emotions	Adam: *Oh my God!* Clare: *Don't worry* (CG: Week 1, Task 2a).

* *Complimenting* has been counted as a specific manifestation of the more general behaviour reported in the reflection journals, *Respecting Partner's Ideas*.