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Effects of Teacher-student Negotiated Interaction on EFL Students Competence and Classroom Participation

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BAHIR DAR UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

SCHOOL OF TEACHER EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGE EDUCATION

**EFFECTS OF TEACHER-STUDENT NEGOTIATED INTERACTION ON EFL
STUDENTS' GRAMMAR COMPETENCE AND CLASSROOM PARTICIPATION**

BY

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DECEMBER, 2025

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**Effects of Teacher-student Negotiated Interaction on EFL Students' Grammar
Competence and Classroom Participation**

By
Teshome Abel Arega

**A Dissertation Presented for the Requirements of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in
Teaching English as a Foreign Language**

Supervisors: Dr. Yenus Nurie (Associate Professor)
Dr. Kassie Shifere (Associate Professor)

December, 2025

Bahir Dar, Ethiopia

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Declaration

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “Effects of Teacher-student Negotiated Interaction on EFL Students’ Grammar Competence and Classroom Participation” is presented for the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Department of Language Education, Bahir Dar University is a record of original work carried out by me and has never been submitted to this or any other institution to get any other degree or certificates. The assistance and help I received during this investigation have been duly acknowledged.

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Approval of Dissertation for Defense

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of teacher–student negotiated interaction (TSNI) on grade 10 EFL students’ grammar competence, the retention of the grammar competence, the students’ classroom participation, and their perceptions about the approach to learning grammar. The study used a quasi-experimental design and a mixed-methods research approach. The investigation focused on past tenses and passive voice. TSNI was implemented in the experimental group to teach grammar. The comparison group received conventional (teacher-led) grammar instruction without collaborative dialogue with the teacher. The intervention lasted for eight weeks. Data were collected through tests, questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observation. Independent samples t-tests, one-way repeated measures ANOVA, one-sample t-tests, and descriptive statistics were employed to analyze the quantitative data. Thematic analysis and classroom discourse analysis were used to analyze and interpret the qualitative data. In the past tenses, the experimental group showed a mean score of 64.83 in the posttest, while the comparison group scored 50.07. The independent samples t-test ($t = 14.875$, $p < 0.05$) confirmed a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Likewise, in the posttest results of passive voice, the experimental group scored 66.31, while the comparison group scored 53.32. This study suggested that TSNI is more effective than conventional (teacher-led) grammar instruction in improving students’ past tense and passive voice competence. In addition, the findings revealed that the overall frequency of students’ participation in grammar classes showed a significant increase over time. The results also indicated that TSNI interaction could lead to sustained grammar competence across time. Furthermore, data from questionnaires and semi-structured interviews showed that experimental group participants had positive perceptions about teacher–students negotiated interaction in grammar classes. Based on the findings, it is recommended that TSNI be adopted in EFL classrooms to teach grammar and boost students’ classroom participation.

Key words: Negotiated interaction, task–based learning, implicit feedback, student participation, EFL grammar instruction, grammar competence

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List of abbreviations and acronyms

CLT	Communicative language teaching
EFL	English as a foreign language
FonFs	Focus on forms
FonF	Focus on form
FonM	Focus on meaning
L1	First language
L2	Second language
NI	Negotiated interaction
PPP	Presentation–practice–production
SLA	Second language acquisition
TSNI	Teacher-students negotiated interaction
ZPD	Zone of proximal development

Chapter One: Introduction

The English language, as the global lingua franca, is highly popular throughout the world due to its importance in business, communication, education, technology, etc. Over 1.5 billion people speak the language, and its demand is expected to persist as globalisation expands (Wubalem & Sarangi, 2019 & Kitaw, 2017). The language has been serving as the language of instruction in primary, secondary, and higher education in Ethiopia since the beginning of learning the English language.

The primary reason for this was Ethiopia's exceptional educational system, which was grounded in moral and religious principles (Gelaneh, 2021). Learning the English language in Ethiopia coincides with the beginning of modern education, which officially began in the late 19th century under Emperor Menelik II, who established the first modern institution, the Menelik II School, in 1908 (Berhane & Mishra, 2019; Haregewain, 2008). From the outset of English language learning, there has been a focus on grammar, despite the on-going concern about students' grammatical competence in communication.

1.1. Background of the Study

Grammar competence, understanding how to use the rules and structures of the target language communicatively, is fundamental for good command of communication (Lopez, 2008; Metchel and Myles, 2004). It enhances academic discourse, ensures clarity of ideas, and increases overall comprehension (Gass et al., 2020; Richards, 2006). Brown (2000) and Whong (2011) asserted that proper grammar is necessary in academic writing to present ideas in a structured and coherent manner, enabling readers to comprehend the presented arguments and analysis. Furthermore, grammatical accuracy builds credibility and demonstrates a level of professionalism and attention to detail (Dekeyser, 2007; Richard, 2006).

However, nothing in language education has generated as much debate as the importance of teaching grammar (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011; Whong, 2011). The question of whether grammar should be taught implicitly through exposure to meaningful language usage or explicitly through a formal exposition of grammatical principles has long been a source of debate. The debate also extends to whether to teach grammar inductively, encouraging learners to work out rules

themselves, or deductively, by presenting the rules for practice. Brown (2000) asserts that the debate has persisted from the beginning of language instruction.

Three broad pedagogical approaches can be used to describe changes in grammar instruction. These are: focus on forms, focus on meaning, and focus on form (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011). Focus on forms underlines teaching grammatical forms rather than the meanings they convey. In focus on forms approaches, language was primarily made up of grammar rules, and acquiring and comprehending these rules, which were frequently learned by memorization, was sufficient for language proficiency (Gelaneh, 2021; Johnson, 2004).

On the other hand, focus on meaning prioritizes fluency over accuracy, effective communication, and language as a function over strict grammatical instruction (Ellis & Collins 2009; McKay & Hornberger, 2009; Mingizem, 2020). It highlights the role of meaning in communication and disregards the role of attention to grammatical forms. However, focus on meaning is not properly implemented in Ethiopia (Mingizem, 2020).

In recent years, language teaching professionals have become increasingly aware that teaching approaches that put the primary focus on meaning with no attention to grammatical forms are inadequate (Long, 2000). Hence, the inability of focus on meaning alone to promote high levels of accuracy on the one hand and of focus on forms alone to promote high levels of fluency on the other hand led recent researchers to seek another grammar instructional approach that integrates both meaning and form.

As a result, to develop grammatical accuracy along with fluency, Long (1990) proposed an approach that he called focus on form. FonF has three instructional approaches: 1) input-based instruction, 2) interaction and output-based instruction (negotiated interaction), and 3) context-based instruction. Hence, negotiated interaction (NI) is one of the instructional options for teaching grammar by integrating form and meaning with the principle of “talking to learn, not 'learning to talk'”. Hence, this study examines NI from a theoretical perspective that assumes the likelihood of learners’ acquisition of grammar is enhanced when they learn it through negotiated interaction and when they have a positive perception of classroom negotiation (Hogue, 2016).

Long’s updated version of the interaction hypothesis (2000) claims that grammar acquisition is better facilitated when learners participate in negotiated interaction (i.e., interactional

modifications made in the course of conversation) in the classroom. Negotiated interaction is the cooperative exchange of ideas, feelings, or thoughts by two or more individuals resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other (Auquilla et al., 2019; Long, 2015). Linguistic input is generated through the dual involvement of both a teacher and students. Hence, teacher–student negotiated interaction (TSNI) is a process of making interactional and grammatical modifications made in the course of conversation between a teacher and students (Cook, 2008). Through negotiation, both a teacher and students have the job to correct, clarify, and modify unclear linguistic elements. Hence, learning the target language is a two-way process as both participants in the conversation are talking, asking and sharing ideas.

Negotiated interaction is an approach that focuses on teaching grammar through oral interaction and output–based grammar teaching (Long, 2000, 2014; Cook, 2008; Whong, 2011). It is a process of learning grammar through using it for communication in a meaningful and authentic environment. NI is essential especially for EFL students, who have no external exposure for target language interaction, to learn grammar by using it for real–life communication in the classroom (Börekci & Aydin, 2018). The students can understand linguistic input by repairing communication breakdowns through conversational exchanges in the classroom.

According to Long (1990), negotiated interaction facilitates grammar learning in many ways. For instance, first, it helps to address three basic aspects of language, i.e., form, meaning, and use simultaneously. Second, interactional grammar learning enables input to meet the level and needs of students through interactional modification. Third, it offers learners an opportunity to practice target grammar elements. Finally, negotiation helps to refine grammatically incorrect speech towards better clarity and comprehensibility through modification and simplification (Whong, 2011; Johnson, 2004).

In negotiated interaction, different classroom techniques could be used to facilitate students' noticing of target grammar elements. For instance, linguistic units may be repeated, rephrased, and reorganized to aid students' comprehension. Oral input enhancement techniques like stress, intonation, and pronunciation that a teacher uses during negotiation may also draw students' attention towards target grammar elements (Abbuhl et al., 2018).

Interactional learning is also beneficial as it allows students to learn grammar automatically and internalize it easily by using it for real-life oral communication in the classroom. When students are forced to produce speech by using target grammar elements, they must focus on using correct forms of the language to be understood (Swain, 1995). This implies that students engage in better cognitive processing and give greater attention to target grammar elements due to a shift from semantic to syntactic processing in negotiated interaction. In other words, negotiated interaction prompts students to think about correct grammatical elements and produce language accordingly (Swain & Lapkin, 1998).

According to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, learning is socially mediated, requiring interaction (Pritchard, 2009; Whong, 2011). Thus, students' classroom interaction may help them to resolve misunderstandings with their interlocutors (McKay & Hornberger, 2009). Students can learn grammar more effectively through exposure to authentic and contextual oral interactions with the teacher, who scaffolds their learning.

In TSNI, students can get comprehensible input, which is generated through continuous negotiation and repeated exposure to target linguistic elements (Ellis et al. 2009; Shehadeh, 2001). Engaging in interaction with a more proficient speaker, whether native or non-native, offers the learner support, or scaffolding, in the form of examples, explanations, emotional support, and general guidance on completing the task itself (Philp & Mackey, 2010; McKay & Hornberger, 2009).

In a teaching and learning environment, particularly for EFL learners who have no authentic exposure to the target language, it is essential to create opportunities for learners to engage in meaningful interaction with a competent speaker or teacher (Bickel & Fisher, 2022; S. Gass et al., 2011; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). If so, teachers may play a vital role in addressing the linguistic gaps of students through interactional feedback during classroom negotiation (Fujii & Mackey, 2009; Ellis, 2003; Ochs et al., 1996).

Negotiated interaction facilitates language learning because it incorporates four key features/constructs that are crucial for language acquisition in general and grammar learning in particular (Long, 1992). These are: comprehensible input, modified output, interactional feedback, and attention (noticing). These four components of negotiated interaction have the

potential to offer substantial learning opportunities in the classroom. Hence, negotiated interaction is the framework for integrating the four constructs of conversational interaction into teaching grammar in the classroom. The four constructs of negotiated interaction mentioned above are elaborated below on how they facilitate grammar learning.

Many language researchers and teachers agree on the importance of comprehensible input in language learning (Benati, 2017; Frederick, 2011). However, the question is: Is the input sufficient for language acquisition? And how is input going to be comprehensible for language learning? Krashen's input hypothesis states that comprehensible input at the right level of difficulty is not only necessary but sufficient to ensure language acquisition. He explained that the right level of input is attained by exposing students to comprehensible input, a linguistic challenge which is moderately higher than the current proficiency of students (i.e., $i+1$), through one-way interaction, basically through listening and reading. Indeed, Krashen (1992) suggests that productive skills, speaking and writing, are the results of acquiring target grammar elements. Conversely, Long and Robinson (1998) suggest that using target grammar elements for speaking and writing is a means of acquiring them.

Although Long's interactional hypothesis also emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input, it claims that it may be more effective when it is modified through negotiated interaction (Cook, 2008; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Whong, 2011). Hence, for Long, comprehensible input is a linguistic construct that is produced through a two-way interaction (negotiated interaction), primarily via listening and speaking focused on target grammar elements.

Long (1980, 2015, 2016) suggests that in order to understand more fully the nature and usefulness of input for language learning, greater attention should be paid to the interactions in which learners are engaged. For him, input that is modified through negotiation for meaning between interlocutors is more comprehensible and meaningful for language learning than pre-modified or non-interactive input. Frederick (2011) posits that in an interactional approach, input is made comprehensible to learners through linguistic and conversational modifications or negotiation between a teacher and students. Negotiation of meaning is also helpful to get a greater amount of input, which is required to internalize the target grammar elements better (Bickel & Fisher, 2022; Loewen & Sato, 2018).

Comprehensible input may not be sufficient for a native-like grammar competence. Students' engagement in grammar classes through listening and reading without using the target grammar elements for communication may not lead to better learning (Swain, 1995; Metchell & Myles, 2004; Ellis, 2007). Many language researchers also argue that the learning process covers not only understanding linguistic components but also using them for real-life communication. This is to suggest that even though comprehensible input and interaction are vital for language learning, modified output is also equally essential to students' all-rounded interlanguage development (Swain, 1995; Lyster, 1998; Brown, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

When learners experience communicative failure, they are compelled to refine their output to be more precise, coherent, and appropriate (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). This prompts them to think about using the correct forms to be understood by the interlocutor. In addition, when they produce language, they actively consider which linguistic forms encode which meanings (i.e., noticing form-function relationships). Hence, output facilitates students' acquisition of the target linguistic elements better by forcing them to shift from semantic processing to syntactic processing (Ellis et al., 2009). Students' linguistic knowledge may be revealed more accurately by the language they produce (Benati, 2017; Pica, 1994).

There are four roles of output in students' language acquisition process (Swain, 1995). These are: (1) hypothesis testing about the structures and meanings of the target linguistic features; (2) obtaining feedback to confirm these hypotheses; (3) developing target language production automatically; and (4) forcing students to shift from meaning-based to grammatically-based processing. When students are pushed to produce language, they try to think about the correct language that is used to express their ideas properly; this situation facilitates processing target linguistic features better. Swain (1995) and Swain and Lapkin (1998) suggested that output is not only the product of language learning but also a means of learning it.

Interactive grammar instruction, which is aligned with Swain's (2005) output hypothesis in the interactional approach, enables students to modify their output (Abbul et al., 2018). Interactional output facilitates grammar practice, hypothesis testing, fluency development, comprehension monitoring, and gap awareness. It also serves as a mechanism for corrective feedback and enhancing proficiency (Long, 2000). Hence, interaction and output-based language

learning help to cultivate a supportive learning environment, encouraging active participation, feedback reception, and application of grammatical knowledge, ultimately advancing grammatical competence (Ellis, 1992; Ellis et al., 2009).

Interactional feedback is another fundamental feature of NI, which helps to draw students' attention towards target grammar elements. Although feedback has a strong research tradition in its own right, it is also a central tenet of the interactional approach (Abdollahifam, 2014). Interactional corrective feedback refers to utterances that indicate issues of message comprehensibility or formally incorrect or inappropriate language utterances. Proponents of interactional language learning suggest that interactional feedback provided to learners during authentic communication, in natural contexts in which students are trying to actually perform the target grammar elements communicatively, can be effectively integrated by the learners (Ellis, 2007). Long and Porter (1985) suggest that implicit corrective feedback, obtained from negotiated interaction, is essential to foster second language acquisition. Adams et al. (2011) and Johnson (2004) further confirm that corrective feedback plays a great role in directing students' attention towards target grammar elements.

Feedback given to students may be explicit or implicit, input-providing (reformulation) or output-promoting (elicitation), and negative or positive. Explicit feedback gives direct guidance about language use. It typically includes specific explanations about grammatical errors (Abbuhl et al., 2018; Mitchell et al., 2013). On the other hand, implicit feedback involves cues or hints rather than direct corrections. It encourages students to self-correct or intuitively grasp language rules. Input-providing feedback, such as recast or direct correction, supplies accurate models to students.

Conversely, output-promoting feedback, which is given to students in the form of clarification requests, confirmation checks, or comprehension checks, elicits students' production of the target linguistic elements (Loewen & Sato, 2018). This type of feedback encourages students to modify their initial non-target-like productions. Negative feedback tells what is not possible in a given language, but positive feedback tells what is possible in that language.

TSNI involves collaborative discussions, decisions, and shared learning content (Metchel & Myles, 2004; Gass & Selinker, 2008). For effective TSNI and mutual understanding with shared

learning outcomes, it is helpful to use techniques of negotiation in grammar classes. Hence, comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, appeals for help, recasts, and repetition are core techniques of negotiation in interactional grammar learning (Ellis, 1992; Long, 1996; Ellis et al., 2009; Johnson, 2004).

Comprehension checks are questions aimed at assessing students' understanding of the instruction. On the other hand, clarification requests may be students' or teachers' appeals for clarification of an utterance made by either of the participants. Gass et al. (2020) stated that teachers are supposed to ask students for clarification and encourage them to pose clarification questions when they encounter difficulties in understanding grammatical concepts. Confirmation checks are a student's or teacher's attempt to verify understanding of the preceding utterance. However, appeals for help refer to inquiries made by students seeking assistance from the teacher.

The other strategy of negotiation is repetition, which involves the teacher's reiteration of what he/she said earlier to draw attention to target grammar elements, or it can be student's reproduction of what they said in response to a teacher's question (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Hence, grammatically simplified (comprehensible input) is the result of TSNT. Teachers also reformulate students' incorrect or incomplete sentences into grammatically accurate ones in the form of recasts (Wang & Castro, 2010; Hoque, 2016). In an interactional approach, the teacher scaffolds students and gradually reduces assistance as the students gain proficiency. Generally, using the aforementioned techniques of negotiation in the classroom requires students to demonstrate their understanding by producing the target grammar elements for oral communication.

Cognitive constructs of attention, awareness, and related constructs of noticing are essential to the interactional language learning process (Long, 2015). Long (2000) and Schmidt (1990) suggested that attention (noticing) is necessary in developing students' processing of target grammar elements; that is, there can be no effective language learning without attention. He defined noticing as the process of bringing target linguistic features into the focal attention of learners. Giving attention to linguistic features in communicative language teaching is beneficial for processing linguistic elements and how they function in real-life contexts (Ellis, 2007; Hall &

Verplaetse, 2000; Pritchard, 2009). Attention to form arises in the course of dealing with the negotiation of meaning to learn linguistic elements in the classroom. Oral input enhancement techniques such as stress, intonation, and pronunciation draw students' attention towards target grammar elements in TSNI (Long, 2000; Metchel & Myles, 2004; Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Cultivating an environment where grammar is an essential part of communication rather than a separate focus is expected from classroom teachers. Thus, students may develop a natural and implicit understanding of grammatical structures while engaging in meaningful interactions.

Designing tasks that provide opportunities for EFL students to use target grammar elements in naturalistic or authentic contexts enhances the implementation of negotiated interaction effectively (Al Khateeb, 2014; Auquilla et al., 2019; Johnson, 2004; Whong, 2011). A task is a piece of classroom work that involves students' comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting with the target language. Using authentic tasks creates opportunities for students to use target grammatical elements for oral communication in the class. Hence, in this study, picture-based storytelling and information-gap tasks were used to teach past tenses and passive voice through TSNI.

Although task-based language teaching is an area of considerable current interest with its own research agendas, much of the rationale for tasks is based on the interaction approach. Hence, teacher-students interaction in EFL classes involves teachers implementing interactive tasks that contextualize grammar instruction (Dekeyser, 2007; Ellis et al., 2009; Al-Zahrani & Al-Bargi, 2017). Tasks promoting interactional structure, such as storytelling tasks, information-gap tasks, and problem-solving tasks, enhance communication between interlocutors (Tobias & Duff, 2009; Collins & White, 2014).

Generally, TSNI in grammar classes fosters a stimulating and engaging learning environment. It supports the clarification of concepts, provides immediate feedback, scaffolds learning, encourages active participation, and contributes to the development of language awareness (Abbuhl et al., 2018; Gass et al., 2020). This interactive approach also helps students to acquire and apply grammatical elements more effectively.

Makey (1999) explored the link between various forms of conversational interactions and SLA. The findings highlighted the significance of active interaction in language learning,

showing a correlation between interaction and grammatical development. Consequently, the use of interactional techniques, i.e., confirmation checks, clarification requests, comprehension checks, and repetitions, is beneficial to extend negotiation until the interlanguage is modified, and this situation enhances grammatical knowledge (Al Khateeb, 2014). Engaging in conversations makes language elements more noticeable, allowing learners to learn grammar through experience and internalize grammar rules within communicative contexts. In the interactional approach, grammatical knowledge is acquired through conversation rather than as separate rules outside of speech (Loewen & Sato, 2018).

Long (1990) claimed that conversational interaction provides grammatical forms with their context-based functions at the same time. In this regard, Borekci and Aydin (2018) claimed that several scholars have recently asserted that the interactional approach is superior to other methods for teaching foreign languages because it effectively links input, internal learner capacities, especially selective attention, and output. Classroom conversation is beneficial for EFL students in providing opportunities in order to acquire grammar in a natural-like environment (Kelly & Walsh, 2002). This is because language output and classroom interaction encourage students to recognize grammatical elements, acquire and utilize them in relevant contexts, and ultimately enhance students' acquisition of target grammar elements (Auquilla et al., 2019; Hoque, 2016; Wang & Castro, 2010).

Classroom interaction elicits students to seek clarification or confirm comprehension by questioning the teacher. When comprehension issues arise, teachers simplify the input through repetition, rephrasing, or grammatical adjustments. Teachers also ask for clarification requests and confirmation checks. This in turn enhances students' language output, allowing them to practice and test L2 forms while processing language syntactically. Output also provides opportunities for feedback, contributing to improved language acquisition (Abbuhl et al., 2018).

According to Long's (1990) interactional hypothesis, modifying input in a two-way interaction with the involvement of students and a teacher is very helpful to learn grammar through using it for contextual communication in the classroom. In this sense, Hoque (2016) and Richards (2006) proposed that learning activities that necessitate negotiation of meaning, form,

and interactional communication should be incorporated into classroom practice since they increase the frequency of forms' appearance and induce more interactional changes.

According to Loewen and Sato (2018), students find linguistic input more prominent, intelligible, and observable when the target forms are used frequently in classroom interactions. Thus, the later version of the interactional hypothesis (negotiated interaction) suggests that the grammatical development of students can be significantly aided by TSNI in the classroom that brings linguistic forms to students' attention (Auquille et al., 2019).

Long (2000) and Ellis et al. (2009) contend that a sole emphasis on linguistic forms results in boring lectures lacking communicative application of these forms, while a focus solely on meaning neglects crucial grammatical development, which is essential, especially for proper academic communication. In most Ethiopian grammar classes, teachers explain a lot about target grammatical elements without involving students in using these elements for real-life communication (Gelaneh 2021; Saleamlak, 2022). There is no exposure to make conversational interaction with target grammar elements, which hinders students from ensuring form-meaning connections. This leads students to have superficial grammatical knowledge, which can't be applied to real-life communication.

Negotiated interaction is one of the instructional options that give opportunities to students to learn target grammar elements interactively by integrating form and meaning in the classroom. Given this, the present study investigates effects of teacher–students negotiated interaction on EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation.

1.2. Statement of the problem

Grammar competence, defined as the understanding and application of the rules and structures of a language for effective communication, is fundamental to academic success and offers several benefits for language learners. It fosters better writing and communication abilities, enhances reading comprehension, builds professionalism, advances academic achievement, and language fluency (Krashen, 2009; Lopez, 2008; Pritchard, 2009). Grammar competence is also crucial to understand written information, craft well-structured sentences, and communicate ideas successfully (Kontogeorgou & Zafiri, 2016). Furthermore, it fosters logical and coherent thinking (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011; Shakir & Jabbar, 2021). When EFL students

have sufficient grammatical mastery of the language, they might feel competent and motivated to communicate their thoughts verbally (Navaz, 2021). Thus, grammar competence today is intended to focus on accurate and fluent communication.

However, my personal experience, coupled with the preliminary investigation of the study, revealed that many students faced challenges in communicating accurately and fluently. One possible factor for this could be the traditional teacher-led grammar instruction approach, dominantly used in Ethiopia. At the time of the preliminary observation in grammar classes, I had noted many teachers writing short notes and telling grammatical rules to the students from the beginning to the end of the classes. Thus, it was uncommon to see students exposed to using target grammar elements for oral production or performing a kind of classroom interactive task. Students were given no opportunity to interact with the teacher and each other. They are forced to accept only what their teachers dictate them to do.

Grammar instruction is supposed to help students become more proficient communicators. However, ineffective traditional teacher-led grammar instruction, dominantly used in the EFL context, fails to enhance the target language for meaningful communication (Haregewain, 2008; Munohsamy, 2012). Even after studying the language for several years, most EFL students are not able to speak or write with a good command of the English language (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011). This might be due to the use of inappropriate teaching methods that have limited opportunities for practical use, teachers' reluctance to employ diverse teaching methods, and a reliance on traditional and rule-based grammar learning approaches (Bayissa, 2013). Grammar teaching in EFL secondary schools often focuses on rote memorization of grammatical structures, which hinders students' interaction with linguistic forms in the classroom.

A significant number of Ethiopian secondary school students struggle with grammatically correct and fluent communication (Haregewain, 2008; Saleamlak, 2022). They suggested that the predominant deductive and explicit rule explanation methods in Ethiopia contribute to this issue. Hence, grammar is typically taught deductively in Ethiopian secondary schools, with the teacher acting as an authority and describing grammatical rules to students who are listening passively. Just to witness from personal experience, I observed many students with enormous problems in

academic writing and accuracy in speaking, which is probably due to teaching grammar in isolation without sufficient context, not in line with communicative language use.

It is common to read research findings that bitterly complain about the ineffectiveness of the conventional (teacher-led) grammar teaching approaches in Ethiopia in assisting students' communicative competence. For instance, Abiy (2013) found that the conventional (teacher-led) grammar teaching approach does not assist students in developing their language usage skills, which is why secondary school students' grammatical knowledge is not a strong predictor of their writing performance. These methods isolate grammatical components from context, hindering students' acquisition of language fluency and accuracy (Getaneh, 2021; Galana, 2017; Saleamlak, 2022).

My experience as an English Language teacher puts me in a firm position to say that grammar is among the commonly seen language use problems in both secondary and university students' academic writing, and the problem has exceedingly affected the quality of their written products. As an English language teacher interested in the issues of interactive grammar teaching, I have a good account of observations in which students, teachers, and colleagues fail to apply learning/teaching grammar through classroom conversation. Thus, the students in grammar classes do not have an opportunity to get interactionally modified input, which is supposed to be more simplified and comprehensible in language learning (Long, 1990).

Dawit (2014a) and Geremew (1999) suggested that there are more and more complaints about Ethiopian students' English language proficiency in academic settings, which is primarily related to grammatical use problems, preventing them from accurate and fluent communication. They do not consider how to employ grammatical elements for language creation because they are not being taught through conversational interaction using the intended linguistic structures.

Mingizem (2020) stated that students who learn grammar with the conventional (teacher-led) approach have limited opportunities for syntactic processing. Despite the fact that teacher-led grammar instruction exposes students to one-directional linguistic input, the approach might not give students enough feedback, especially in the form of interaction, on their grammatical errors due to a lack of negotiated interaction between the interlocutors (Gass et al., 2020).

Teacher-led grammar instruction approaches, dominantly used in the EFL context, also have inherent weaknesses in developing EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). For instance, these grammar-based teaching approaches often emphasise memorising rules and forms rather than understanding their practical application. This can lead to superficial knowledge without the ability to use grammar for real life and contextual communication. In traditional grammar teaching approaches, learners often struggle to apply theoretical knowledge in real life contexts due to isolated and context-limited instruction (Brown, 2000; Whong, 2011). This can make it difficult for students to see how grammar functions in real communication, hindering their ability to apply it in speaking and writing.

The conventional (teacher-led) approaches may not provide timely and constructive feedback on students' use of grammar, preventing them from learning from their mistakes and improving their performance. The pressure to perform correctly in a traditional setting can lead to anxiety, making students hesitant to participate actively in class discussions or practice speaking, which hinders students' grammar development. Therefore, as a response to the shortcomings of traditional grammar instruction, the communicative approach in language teaching emerged in the 1970s and gained prominence in the 1980s (Ochs et al., 1996). The communicative approach prioritises fluency over accuracy, effective communication, and language as a function over strict grammatical instruction (Ellis et al., 2009).

However, with the advent of communicative language teaching in the 1970s, the teaching of grammar was considered undesirable, and teachers were encouraged to believe that grammar instruction was old-fashioned, uninteresting, and best avoided (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). The beginning of communicative approaches not only weakened the status of grammar teaching but also led to negative reactions to grammar teaching among many L2 classroom teachers and educators who began to believe that their students' failure was mainly because they had taught them through explicit grammar instruction.

CLT in teaching grammar has also faced criticism with the argument that it may compromise explicit grammar instruction (Loewen & Sato 2018). According to Long (2014), the emphasis on communication could lead to a superficial grasp of grammar rules, potentially

hindering students from developing a deep understanding of the language's structural principles. In classrooms using this approach, varying proficiency levels may result in differences in task difficulty, causing some students to lag behind and others to find tasks too easy. The assumption that grammar will be acquired implicitly through exposure may overlook the benefits of explicit instruction, which some learners require for a comprehensive understanding (Swain, 2005). Furthermore, the communicative approach may not sufficiently prepare students for the demands of formal academic writing, where a careful understanding of grammar is often imperative.

In recent years, language-teaching professionals have become increasingly aware that traditional approaches, in which the teaching of grammar instruction was central, on one hand, and CLT, which puts the primary focus on meaning with no attention to grammatical forms, on the other, are inadequate (Long, 2000). As a result, Long (1990) proposed an approach which he called negotiated interaction, a kind of instruction that integrates focus on grammatical forms and their meaning. As for him, negotiated interaction is more effective in promoting grammar learning than approaches that are limited to an exclusive emphasis on accuracy on the one hand or an exclusive emphasis on fluency on the other. This pedagogical consideration is also another rationale for conducting the current study. For all of these reasons, it would be necessary to have an investigation into the teaching of grammar through negotiated interaction to know how it affects students' grammar competence and classroom participation.

Therefore, the present study was intended to examine the effects of teacher–students negotiated interaction on EFL students' grammatical competence and classroom participation. The study was done at Hailemariam Mamo General Secondary School, Debre Berhan Town, Ethiopia. But, before the research question and prediction are stated for the current study, previous studies about the relationship between interaction and language learning will be reviewed.

Roy Lyster and Leila Ranta (1997) carried out a correlational study among different types of interactional feedback given by teachers and learner uptake. The data was collected from classroom interaction through negotiation of a form taken from 14 subject-matter and 13 French language arts lessons. The findings indicated that although recasts were ineffective at eliciting student-generated repair, teachers were interested in using them. However, elicitation,

metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition lead to student-generated feedback and are able to initiate the negotiation of form.

Similarly, Lyster (1998) conducted a study on the relationship between negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair. This correlational study was conducted in four French immersion classrooms at the elementary level. Findings show that lexical errors encouraged negotiation of form, whereas grammatical and phonological errors encouraged recasts with different impacts on learner repair. A year after Mackey (1999) conducted another correlational study to examine the relationship between different types of conversational interaction and SLA. She focused on question formation with ESL learners from a private school in Sydney, Australia. The results of her study supported the link between interaction and grammatical development and highlighted the importance of active participation in the interaction.

Mackey et al. (2000) also explored the connection between interactional feedback, instructed ESL learners' noticing of L2 forms during classroom interactions, and their L2 development. The findings showed that there is a complex and positive relationship between interactional feedback in the classroom, learners' noticing of L2 forms, and their L2 development. Another study by Gurzynski-Weiss (2014) examined the relationship between the type of modified output and accurate noticing in response to interactionally driven input. The result from this study revealed that partially modified output was the strongest indicator of accurately noticed feedback types.

Another study by Wang and Castro (2010) investigated the effects of classroom interaction between students and students and students and teachers on EFL students' learning. Their focus was on how L1 Chinese adult learners of English as a foreign language learnt English passivation during the language input and output treatments. The results of the study suggested that classroom interaction and language output help students recognise the target form and enhance their foreign language acquisition.

Abdollahifam (2014) considered the effects of teachers' interactional feedback on the learners' learning, motivation, and feelings. The findings of the study showed that teachers' interactional feedback increased learners' accuracy, motivation, and the rapport between teachers

and learners. The paper that investigates an ordering effect of input and interaction as separate entities and in combination on students' grammar and vocabulary learning was conducted by Gass and Mackey (2006). Hence, in grammar learning, learners who received interaction followed by input displayed greater improvement than learners who received only input. Philp and Iwashita (2013) examined the effects of the process of interacting in L2 versus observing others' interaction on learners' awareness of language. The findings suggested that active interaction and output in L2 push students to think about how to express meaning in the target language, and this develops students' explicit knowledge.

A qualitative study by Hoque (2016) aimed to assess the effect of teacher-students interaction on EFL pedagogy. The study focused on assessing the opportunities for students' involvement and negotiation that teachers provide in the unfolding interaction in an EFL setting. The findings of the study revealed that teachers exposed their identity in different ways for different roles and asked students different questions for their participation. However, students did not respond willingly to the questions and did not participate in the classroom. Based on this, the findings of the study further suggest that teachers should be aware of the socio-economic and context-sensitive aspects of their interaction with learners.

Del et al. (2000) conducted an observational study on how learning needs are addressed in L2 interaction in a foreign language setting. To address the issue, seven dyads of EFL learners were compared with another seven dyads of EFL learners and English native speakers on two communicative tasks. Results of the research revealed that EFL learners' interaction can provide as much modified input, feedback, and output as interaction between the EFL learners and native speakers does. In addition, the result supported the EFL environment as the environment to learn the English language communicatively.

Gurzynski-Weiss and Andrea (2012) also explored an observational study on teacher-student interactional feedback patterns during naturally occurring classroom interaction in relation to three task-related factors. The analysis revealed that task factors affected the amount and type of teacher feedback as well as the number of opportunities for and incidence of learner-modified output. Most of the studies stated above revealed the role and effectiveness of interactional feedback in second language acquisition, particularly in classroom settings.

The studies investigate how different types of feedback – recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition – influence learners' uptake, noticing of L2 forms, and language development. However, as far as my reading goes, there was no study about the use of teacher–students negotiated interaction, which incorporates modified input, modified output, interactional feedback, and noticing, for EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation.

Although much local research has been conducted regarding grammar teaching (e.g., Addisu, 2017; Aytnew, 2021; Gelaneh, 2021; Kasahu, 2014; Mesfin, 2020; Mingizem, 2020; Mulugeta, 2020; Saleamlak et al., 2022; and Zewudie, 2017), as far as my reading so far, most of these studies did not emphasize teaching grammar through negotiated interaction.

Kassahun (2014) carried out quasi-experimental research to determine how communicative grammar instruction improved students' grammatical understanding. The outcome demonstrated that in the post-test, the treatment group outperformed. Additionally, Mesfin (2020) studied the impact of assisted self-correction versus teacher's guidance on students' writing grammatical accuracy. It was discovered that guided self-correction outperformed direct teacher correction in terms of enhancing students' writing grammatical accuracy.

Addisu (2019) evaluated the impact of peer scaffolding on students' growth of grammar proficiency in another study. The results demonstrated that the intervention was socially valid and that the experimental group's progress in grammar proficiency from pre- to post-intervention was greater. As a result, the study supported the effectiveness of the peer scaffolding intervention as a workable strategy to improve the development of grammar proficiency.

Mingizem (2020) attempted to observe grammar instruction through active learning. The results demonstrated that there is a negative trend in the implementation of active learning and that EFL teachers did not adequately apply active teaching and learning methodologies when instructing grammar sessions. Teachers seldom used group work, question-and-answer sessions, role-playing, argumentative essays, and other active learning strategies.

Another study was carried out by Saleamlak et al. (2022), and it looked at how employing grammatical consciousness-raising activities could improve students' ability to tell

stories in the tenses. The results showed that grammar consciousness-raising exercises were superior to the traditional grammar teaching approach in terms of helping students learn and apply the target grammatical elements. Furthermore, the interview results revealed that the experimental group's members had favourable opinions on tasks that raised awareness of grammar.

Overall, the above local studies have focused on communicative grammar instruction, assisted self-correction vs. teacher's guidance for grammatical accuracy, the roles of peer scaffolding for grammar proficiency, the trends of active learning in grammar classes, and the uses of grammatical consciousness-raising activities to learn grammar. Nevertheless, the main claim of the updated version of the interactional hypothesis, the roles of negotiated interaction in learning grammar, has not been tested empirically. Therefore, I believe that more authentic classroom research is needed to know the connection between teacher-students negotiated interaction and EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation. Thus, the current study aims to test that claim.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to investigate the effects of teacher-student negotiated interaction on EFL students' grammatical competence and classroom participation. More specifically, this study seeks to:

- Examine effects of TSNI on EFL students' grammar competence.
- Find out whether or not TSNI makes consistent effects on EFL students' grammar competence.
- Investigate effects of TSNI on students' classroom participation.
- Explore students' perceptions about TSNI.

1.4. Research questions and hypothesis

1.4.1. Research questions

This study seeks to answer the following research questions.

1. Does TSNI improve students' grammar competence? If so,
2. Is the improvement consistent over time?

3. Does TSNI improve students' classroom participation?
4. What are students' perceptions about TSNI?

1.4.2. Research hypothesis

Hypothesis 1

- Students who receive grammar instruction via teacher–students negotiated interaction are better in grammar competence than those who receive the instruction via the conventional (teacher–led) approach.

Hypothesis 2

- TSNI does not lead to consistent improvement in grammar competence over time, and the experimental group's posttest scores do not differ significantly from their delayed posttest scores.

1.5. Significance of the Study

Many researchers have forwarded their ideas, as there is a problem of using appropriate approaches to teaching grammar, especially in EFL contexts. Indeed, using teacher–students negotiated interaction to teach grammar for EFL students is probably important to show how the approach sheds some light on solving the problem. It is, therefore, hoped that the outcomes of this study are intended to provide information to stakeholders (curriculum developers, textbook writers, and teachers) to aid classroom teachers in meeting their mandate for effective teaching of grammar by integrating form and meaning. The results of the study would also mean a lot for the stakeholders in order to understand grammar teaching problems in the EFL context. Accordingly, the study could make some pedagogical recommendations that will shed some light on how to teach grammar interactively in an EFL context.

Under this circumstance, an empirical study is indispensable to identify the issues and offer a workable solution. Therefore, the outcome of this study could inform policymakers, professionals, teachers and any other stakeholders on how to teach grammar by using it for real-life communication in an EFL context. Presumably, it provides some practical implications for pedagogical considerations and initiates further research. Hence, as a result of the investigation on how grammar is taught through negotiated interaction, the findings might contribute to the

understanding of the implementation of grammar teaching. Therefore, the present study is beneficial, especially for EFL teachers, to be informed about teaching grammar through teacher-student negotiated interaction that creates collaboration between teachers and students. Teachers can also be informed on techniques of classroom negotiation in order to solve communication problems and reach mutual understanding through modification of linguistic elements.

In addition, since there are no empirical research findings vis-à-vis teaching grammar through negotiated interaction in Ethiopia, this study will serve as a baseline and foundation for future studies on it. To this end, it provides empirical data that might help to know Ethiopian students' communicative grammar competence. Furthermore, the findings of this study will add its contribution to the existing literature because of the shortage of research outcomes that have been done in the EFL context in the area. It is therefore anticipated that this study can produce pedagogically valuable data on how to teach grammar interactively in an EFL context.

The outcomes of the current study will also make teachers, syllabus designers and content writers realize how crucial it is to use the interactional grammar teaching approach in grammar lessons so that students can advance their grammatical knowledge through using it for real communication. Furthermore, for researchers interested in negotiated interaction and language learning, particularly in the field of grammar instruction, the findings of this study can serve as a valuable foundation in the future.

1.6. Scope of the Study

The thematic scope of this study is an investigation into the effects of teaching grammar (past tenses and passive voice in focus) through teacher-students negotiated interaction on EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation. Students in grade 10 at Hailemariam Mamo General Secondary School, situated in Debre Berhan Town, were subjects of this study. Two classes, which had the same achievement in the proficiency test, were designated as the experimental and the comparison groups.

The researcher attempted to do a preliminary study to discover grammatical elements on which students have difficulties before choosing the target grammatical elements. The preliminary analysis and the researcher's personal experience indicate that students in high schools have been challenged to use proper forms of past tenses and passive voice for real-life

communication. This study also focused on investigating EFL students' classroom participation in learning the target grammar elements. Thus, to teach the target grammar elements interactively in this study, picture-based storytelling and information-gap tasks were used as classroom activities. These tasks were created and used in many research works, like S. Gass et al. (2011); Gurzynski-Weiss (2014); and Wang and Castro (2010) for both tests and an intervention.

This quasi-experimental study is mainly concerned with the teaching of past tense forms and passive voice through teacher–students negotiated interaction as its focus for some reasons. First, even though the textbooks introduce past tense and passive voice early, the researcher ensured in a preliminary investigation that students seem to struggle with fully mastering these grammatical elements. Second, past tense forms of verbs are either regular or irregular. Past tense forms of regular verbs have a predictable and rule-based nature, whereas past tense forms of irregular verbs are exemplar or item-based. This discrepancy may challenge students to learn these grammar elements in the conventional (teacher-led) grammar instruction, in which the teacher focuses on rule telling.

But past forms of both regular and irregular verbs can be learnt equally by exposing students to meaningful, repeated, and real-life communication in the classroom (Yang and Lyster, 2010). Students can internalise grammatical elements into their minds when they learn through repeated exposure and communicative practice in classroom conversation (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). To assess the students' competence in past tenses in this study, the tests were designed to include grammaticality judgment, gap filling, completion, and writing tasks.

Learning the passive voice is important for several reasons. Understanding and using the passive voice enhances students' communication skills. It allows them to express ideas in different ways and provides variety in sentence structure. Being able to switch between active and passive voice helps students convey information effectively and adapt their writing or speaking style to different contexts. In addition, the passive voice is commonly used in formal writing, such as academic papers, scientific reports, and official documents. It lends a sense of objectivity and impersonality for writing. Many academic disciplines prefer the passive voice

because it emphasizes the results or findings rather than the individual or researcher who conducted the study.

Being able to understand the passive voice is also crucial for reading and comprehending a wide range of texts. Many written materials, including literature, news articles, legal documents, and scientific papers, utilize the passive voice. By familiarizing students with the passive voice, they can better understand the intended meaning of these texts. Hence, learning the passive voice is an essential part of mastering grammar and overall language proficiency. It demonstrates a deeper understanding of sentence structure and grammatical concepts. It also allows students to recognize passive constructions in texts, improving their ability to analyse and interpret written language. Hence, to assess the students' competence in passive voice in this study, the tests were designed to include grammaticality judgment, gap filling, completion, and multiple-choice tasks.

1.7. Definition of key terms

- Negotiated interaction: Conversation between a teacher and students that results in modifications in target grammar elements
- Modified input: Grammatical input which is adjusted by the dual involvement of a teacher and students during conversational interaction
- Modified output: Students' correction of their own ungrammatical speech as a result of negotiation with a teacher
- Interactional feedback: Implicit feedback given by a teacher as a response to students' ungrammatical speech
- Grammar competence: Understanding and applying how past simple forms of verbs and passive voice function in communication.
- Perception: The students' personal beliefs, feelings, and understandings about the experience of negotiating with their teacher in grammar class.

Chapter Two: Review of Related Literature

2.1. Introduction

This chapter offers a brief review of the literature relevant to the study. It covers somewhat wide-ranging literature on the interactional hypothesis and its development, the developmental phases of the interactional hypothesis, and the roles of input, output, and interaction in SLA. It also extends to negotiation of form and meaning, components of interactional grammar teaching, negotiated interaction in EFL classrooms, and techniques of negotiation in grammar classes. Furthermore, the chapter focuses on interactional tasks in grammar classes, the meaning of grammatical competence, and the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study.

2.2. Interactional hypothesis and its development

According to Borekci and Aydin (2018), interaction is a reciprocal action or influence that necessitates at least two participants. The participants in the process participate and modify their ideas in response to the interlocutor. Recently, interaction theory has garnered considerable attention from academics and researchers, as evidenced by several studies (Brown, 2000; Whong, 2011; Richards, 2006). The interactional hypothesis is regarded as one of the most significant theories in language acquisition and methodologies. Language learning involves both cognitive effort and interaction, as confirmed by Swain and Lapkin (1998), referenced in Al Khateeb (2014). The developmental stages of the interactional hypothesis can be observed in three phases: the first phase, the second phase, and the third phase.

2.2.1. The first phase

Vygotsky and Cole (1978) were largely responsible for developing the first phase of the interaction hypothesis. In order for knowledge to be properly absorbed and have the greatest chance of being resorted by individuals, social interactions are necessary for all forms of learning and obtaining knowledge, including learning new languages (Mckay & Hornberger, 2009). According to his definition, interaction is any action that takes place between two or more individuals and has an impact on one another. In the first phase, the learner focuses on understanding input that contains language a little beyond their current proficiency level. The

input should be comprehensible but slightly challenging, i.e., $i+1$. This stage emphasizes the importance of understanding language in context (Krashen, 2009).

Van Patten et al. (2020) define interaction as a shared conversational modification in which learners and another interlocutor have the chance to identify their own correct and incorrect language productions. The interaction theory is mostly linked to the study conducted in the 1980s by Michael Long. The goal of this work is to explain the inexplicable and support the hypothesis that was first put forth by Steven Krashen. The importance of comprehensible input in language acquisition was stressed by Krashen (Brown, 2000; Ellis et al., 2009). Long (2000) proposed that mutual engagement in the EFL classroom would lead to learning that is better, more comprehensible, and clearer.

One of the key tenets of meaningful engagement that may facilitate successful L2 acquisition is comprehensible input. However, there is some sort of argument about how to make an input comprehensible, especially between Krashen and Long. For Krashen, linguistic input can be simplified one-directionally, i.e., by the teacher or textbook writers, but for Long, input should be simplified through negotiated interaction between a teacher and students in the classroom (Krashen, 1981; Metchell & Myles, 2004).

2.2.2. The second phase

According to Krashen's input hypothesis, the amount of exposure to desired linguistic features and biological aspects of language learning, such as age and linguistic background, affects what constitutes comprehensible input (Long et al., 2001). Because of this, Mike Long created this idea of interaction; he did this, in part, by elaborating on the definition of understandable input and how it can be sustained (Long, 1983). Long placed a strong focus on the importance of quality above quantity when it came to constructing meaning during interactions.

In conversational interaction, negotiation of meaning and form are the basic kinds of negotiation in grammar classes. During negotiations between students and a teacher, aspects of modification such as confirmation checks, clarification requests, repetitions, and recasts will result in the supply of either a direct or indirect form of feedback. Hence, inconsistencies between the

learner's output and input are brought to their attention by the feedback (Long, 1980; 1983, quoted in Dykstra, 2003).

Long proposed that increased awareness and quality during interaction is crucial, in addition to the understandable input obtained through interaction (Pritchard, 2009). In keeping with Long's thesis, Mackey claims that interactional quality makes learning a second language easier and more understandable since it fosters linguistic and conversational communication that offers adequate feedback (Mackey, 1999).

It is evident that constructivism (Tobias & Duff, 2009) and socio-constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978) are consistent theoretical stances with assumptions regarding interaction. According to the opinions, connecting students with their classmates and interlocutors is important (Brown, 2000). Studies have looked into the ways that interaction might improve language competency by giving students practice so they can repeat the process to create new forms (Mackey, 1999).

2.2.3. The third phase

In its most recent incarnation, the interaction hypothesis examined the function of negotiation in interaction (Long, 1990; 2000). Between non-native speakers (students) and native speakers or teachers, negotiation can lead to interactional adjustments and revisions. Due to its unique combination of input and output and its ability to support learners' learning capacities, this would hasten the acquisition of a second or foreign language. According to Long (2000), negotiation of meaning links input, internal learner capacities – especially selective attention – and output in ways that are beneficial to acquisition.

Comprehending the input and modifying it have been identified as two phenomena that demonstrate their importance in the interaction process (Swain, 1995; 2005; Whong, 2011). In addition to demonstrating the importance of this type of output or production for language learning mastery, Swain made the case that students should be challenged to exceed their potential by receiving real-time feedback.

Regarding learners' alteration of their output as a means of attending to their interlanguage grammar and manipulating it in innovative, sophisticated, and ultimately more focused ways,

Pica (1994) has incorporated Swain's concepts on this topic. This theory has also been impacted by learners' negative feedback when they don't find the meaning they are looking for in their interlocutors. In order to advance with their learning of vocabulary, syntax, and pronunciation, they thus focus on identifying their issues and make an effort to fix them (Mackey et al., 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

2.3. Interaction and SLA

Social interactional theorists like Vygotsky and Long contend that interaction between interlocutors is crucial to the acquisition of a second language. Frederick (2011) and Tshering (2021) believe that learners construct the new language through socially mediated interaction, just like children learn language through recasting, repeating, imitating, and reproducing the sound of the language they hear people speaking around them. Long (1980) defines interaction as the cooperative sharing of ideas, feelings, or thoughts by two or more individuals resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. In the language classroom, interaction is both the medium through which language is realized and an object of pedagogical attention (Hall, 2010; Hall & Walsh, 2002).

Classroom interaction creates an opportunity for students to practice target linguistic features in the form of conversation; this facilitates students' comprehension of the linguistic features (Ellis, 2007). In an interactional approach, the saliency of target linguistic elements can be controlled by instructional options, for instance, using tasks that elicit the linguistic elements or drawing students' attention to certain features by providing corrective feedback or by using oral input enhancement techniques like stress, intonation, and pronunciation.

In teacher-students classroom conversation, it is the teacher's responsibility to take the initiative for the start of discussion in the classroom by designing real-life and interactive tasks and questioning students (Hall, 2010). Hence, in conversational language teaching, the role of the teacher is to begin the conversation by asking students, drawing their attention towards target grammar elements by using different oral input enhancement techniques, and providing corrective feedback when students produce incorrect utterances in terms of form or meaning.

Learning language by using it for conversational interaction makes students appreciate their own competence to use the language, and this increases their motivation to learn the target

language (Abbuhl et al., 2018). It is also necessary, especially for EFL learners, to learn linguistic forms with their communicative functions at the same time. According to Börekci and Aydın (2018), interaction in foreign language learning is helpful to increase students' motivation, linguistic knowledge, and classroom participation. Teachers and students may be more likely to benefit from interaction when they perceive it as useful for language learning (Loewen & Sato, 2018). This is because linguistic input resulting from interaction is more comprehensible and understandable.

Many language researchers and teachers agree on the importance of input in general and comprehensible input in particular in language learning (Benati, 2017; Frederick, 2011). However, the question is: Is the input sufficient for language acquisition? And how is input going to be comprehensible for language learning? Long (1980, 2015, 2016) suggested that an input that is modified through interaction between interlocutors is more comprehensible for language learning than pre-modified or non-interactive input. Linguistic input, which results from interaction between interlocutors, is more comprehensible and beneficial for language learning (Bickel & Fisher, 2022; Loewen & Sato, 2018).

Frederick (2011), in an interactional approach, input is made comprehensible to learners through linguistic and conversational modifications or through negotiation between interlocutors. Meaningful interaction is also beneficial to get more input, which is required to process the language better. In negotiated interaction, linguistic input is the result of the dual involvement of both a teacher and students in the classroom conversation. Hence, the teacher is not the sole source of the target linguistic element in the classroom. Ellis (2007) Linguistic input may be modified by teacher-student conversational interaction to the level that students can process for comprehension.

Comprehensible input may not be sufficient for a native-like grammar competence. Swain (1995) suggests that even though comprehensible input and negotiated interaction are vital for language learning, modified output is also equally important. Although most researchers agree on the importance of output on students' fluency development, it is also crucial for processing linguistic elements in a better way (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). When students are pushed to produce the target language, they try to think about using the correct language to be

understood by the interlocutor. In addition, when students produce language, they try to consider which linguistic forms encode which meanings (i.e., the noticing function); this facilitates students' processing of the target linguistic elements better. Students' linguistic knowledge may be tested better by the language they produce (Benati, 2017; Pica, 1994).

There are four roles of output in students' language acquisition process (Swain, 1995): (1) hypothesis testing about the structures and meanings of the target linguistic features; (2) obtaining crucial feedback to confirm these hypotheses; (3) developing target language production automatically; and (4) forcing students to shift from meaning-based to grammatically-based processing. When students are pushed to produce language, they try to think about the correct language that is used to express one's idea properly; this situation facilitates processing target linguistic features better. According to Swain (1995) and Swain and Lapkin (1998), output is not only the representation of language learning but also a means of learning it. Hence, language teachers are expected to use meaning-based classroom tasks that promote the use of target grammar elements for communication.

2.4. Components of interaction

According to Loewen & Sato (2018), input, output, form, meaning, and attention (noticing) are essential components of interactional grammar instruction.

2.4.1. Input

All theories of language learning, including the interactional approach, require input (Long, 1983; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Krashen, 2009). Language data, either form- or meaning-based that students receive in a formal classroom or in a naturalistic environment is known as input (Long, 2016). Thus, a student's ability to acquire a language is greatly influenced by the type of input they are exposed to in the classroom.

There is a difference between intake and input (Benati, 2017). According to him, intake refers to what the learner truly internalizes and subsequently incorporates into the interlanguage system, while input is defined as what the learner has access to. Input is a crucial component of all modern SLA theories. For instance, in the theory of universal grammar (UG), input interacts with internal mechanisms and UG principles (Whong et al., 2013).

According to Krashen's (1981, 2009) monitor theory exposure to comprehensible input is the primary requirement for acquisition. Acquisition occurs when a student comprehends input that has grammatical forms that are more advanced than their existing inter-language proficiency, according to Krashen's input hypothesis. Learners need to be exposed to understandable and message-oriented input in order for SLA to occur. The main source of information that students use to construct their language system is input.

According to Van Patten's (1996, 2004, 2014) input processing model, only a portion of the information is filtered during intake into the growing system before it is ultimately made available to the learner for output. The way that learners process information can be altered, and enhancing their intake can have an impact on how the system is evolving, which should in turn affect how learners generate the target language. Learners extract intake from input through psycholinguistic methods and mechanisms that are the focus of input processing. Form-meaning connections are formed, according to Van Patten's theory, when students pay attention to or notice input and process the message. Acquisition thus requires developing the learners' capacity notice a form-meaning relationship in communication.

Based on the interaction hypothesis (Gass 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Gass et al., 2011), input is viewed as a crucial component of language acquisition, without which students cannot pick up a language. Hall & Verplaetse (2000) make a distinction between interactional and non-interactional input. When he talks about interactional input, he means input that is obtained during an interaction that involves the learner and at least one other person in a communicative exchange (e.g., conversations, classroom interactions; see also Long, 2015; Pica, 1994). Regarding non-interactional input, he means the type of input that takes place in nonreciprocal discourse in which students are not involved in a conversation (such as announcements). In the first scenario, students benefit from negotiating meaning and modify their conversational style. This indicates that language elements become more noticeable to learners through discussion and involvement (Pritchard, 2009; Whong, 2011).

Interactionally modified input, as defined by Gass et al. (2000), is linguistic input that is modified or amended by the interlocutors during a conversation in order to aid in language acquisition. To support understanding and encourage learning, it entails modifying the language

used, such as by making speech simpler or clearer, as well as alterations to the conversational structure (Long 2014).

In the context of grammar acquisition, interactively modified input is essential for giving students understandable material appropriate for their current level of skill (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). By making grammatical structures more approachable and comprehensible in a conversational setting, it aids students in understanding and internalizing them. The following are some major benefits of using interactionally modified input in grammar acquisition, according to Metchell & Myles (2004): language simplification, repetition and clarification, thoughtful use of feedback, conversation structure, and meaning negotiation.

Native speakers or more experienced interlocutors frequently simplify their language to make it easier to understand for learners when they are exposed to complex grammatical patterns (Ellis et al., 2009). This can involve rephrasing statements to make them less difficult, utilizing shorter sentences, or employing more common terminology (Dekeyser, 2007). Furthermore, when learners struggle with particular grammatical structures during a conversation, interlocutors might repeat or clarify their words to help learners understand. To highlight the desired grammatical element, they could reword phrases, explain concepts, or suggest substitute examples (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Grammar errors made by learners can be pointed out and corrected by interlocutors who can offer explicit or implicit feedback (Ellis, 1992; 2003). Recasts, which reword the learner's response, direct corrections, or questions that encourage self-correction are some examples of this type of feedback. According to Dekeyser (2007), this helps students become more conscious of the proper grammatical forms.

Through systematic negotiation, interlocutors can arrange discussions such that learners are exposed to a variety of grammatical patterns (Long, 2016). For instance, through task-based activities, topic-based discussions, or guided questions, they could present, rehearse, and reinforce particular grammar principles (Metchell & Myles, 2004). As a result, interlocutors negotiate meaning during exchanges, resolving misconceptions and guaranteeing mutual comprehension. According to Gass et al. (2020), through interaction and context, this negotiation aids students in identifying and internalizing proper grammatical forms.

Moreover, learners can actively engage in discussions, receive customized language input, and progressively pick up increasingly complicated grammatical structures using interactionally modified information (Dekeyser, 2007). It encourages the use of natural language, contextualized instruction, and the utilization of social interaction to improve grammar learning.

Generally speaking, input is highly important, and no theory or method of SLA would deny this. But the real question is: Does input alone suffice for language acquisition? According to White (2003, 2020), certain forms or structures are more challenging to get by positive evidence alone. This is especially true in the case of a structure that isn't included in the UG framework. The frequency and saliency of form characteristics in oral input, their functional interpretations, and the reliability of form-function mappings are some of the factors that influence language construction and acquisition of learners (Ellis & Collins, 2009).

Overall, language instructors should think about using exercises designed to both improve the input's grammatical qualities and provide students the chance to concentrate on meaning (creating accurate form-meaning mappings).

2.4.2. Negotiation of meaning

The interaction hypothesis is centered on negotiation of meaning, and it proposes that improvements in language development and learner comprehension are primarily driven by a breakdown in communication (Long, 2000; 2016). A breakdown in communication might be indicated by language learners when they are unable to understand their interlocutors.

Loewens and Sato (2018) identifies three essential components of meaning negotiation, which are reactions to a breakdown in communication, these are: clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks.

The goal of confirmation checks is to make sure that what was been spoken was heard well and comprehended. A query like “Do you mean X?” or a repetition of the problematic passage with an increasing intonation are common ways to obtain confirmation. Unlike verification checks, clarification requests use inquiries like “what do you mean?” to try and get more information from the other person about the meaning of what they've said. Comprehension checks, which are used to make sure the addressee understands what is being stated, make up the

final significant area of meaning negotiation. ‘Do you understand what I'm saying’? Is one example of a comprehension check inquiry.

2.4.3. Negotiation of form

It has become evident that meaning negotiation does not always happen in the classroom, even though it can occasionally occur during linguistic contact (Loewens & Sato 2018; Eckerth, 2009). Form negotiation has a more didactic function, according to Lyster (1998), and frequently entails feedback with the intention of making corrections. When a teacher, for example, reacts to a student who makes a linguistically problematic statement even though the meaning of the statement is obvious, it is considered corrective feedback that is didactic in nature (e.g., didactic recasts).

There have been a number of significant distinctions established regarding corrective feedback, such as (a) positive versus negative evidence (Moyle et al 2003), (b) input-providing versus output-prompting feedback (Lyster 2004), and (c) explicit versus implicit feedback (Whong et al, 2013). With regard to the first distinction, positive evidence gives learners examples of well-formed utterances, whereas negative evidence teaches them what is not acceptable in the target language. Long regarded as a crucial part of corrective feedback, researchers have shown that positive evidence from recasts can also be significant (Moyle et al, 2003).

The learner receives the proper linguistic form from input-providing feedback. Recasts, for instance, reformulate a learner's wrong utterance and deliver the correct form right after the learner makes the mistake. On the other hand, output-prompting corrective feedback aims to elicit the correct form from the learner instead of giving them the form (Ellis, 2003).

Regarding the explicit-implicit dichotomy (Lyster, 1998; 2004), feedback need to be largely implicit and should mainly take the shape of a recast in order to avoid interfering with the conversation. Conversely, learners are more likely to notice and potentially be influenced by more explicit forms of corrective feedback, such as explicit correction or metalinguistic information (Richards, 2006).

2.4.4. Output

Language produced by L2/FL learners is referred to as output, and it can be either written or spoken (Swain, 1985; 1995; 2005). The capacity to link forms and structures together and to convey a certain message by obtaining a specific form or structure is known as output (Benati, 2017). According to monitor theory, input is the primary component and output has little bearing on acquisition. Similarly, universal grammar holds that input that activates universal processes is the only way that a significant amount of competence may arise from learner production.

On the other hand, the interaction hypothesis has looked at interactions between and with non-natives to investigate the changes that take place during talks and how this could affect students' language development (Long, 1983; 2000; Long & Robinson, 1998). As a result, the input that students get is altered by output. In order to improve language comprehension, feedback may also serve as a cue for students to skim the input. As a result, there appears to be an indirect causal relationship between acquisition and output, with input once more emerging as a significant mediating element.

The comprehensible output hypothesis was created by Swain (1985, 1995). It states that oral and written language production can assist learners in creating new knowledge as well as consolidating or modifying previously acquired knowledge. According to Swain (1995), linguistic output has multiple roles in language learning. These roles are: (1) Output practice helps learners to improve fluency; (2) Output practice helps learners to check comprehension and linguistic correctness; (3) Output enforces learners to shift from semantic processing to syntactic processing; (4) Output helps learners to realize that their interlanguage system is faulty and therefore notice a gap in their system; and (5) Output can also serve as a source of feedback in classroom interaction.

According to Swain, learners require comprehensible output in order to achieve grammatical competence, which comparable to that of a native speaker. Comprehensible input alone may not be enough. Students require "pushed output," or speech or writing that will compel them to generate words in an accurate, suitable, and correct manner. Producing the language may act as a trigger to make the learner aware of the tools required to effectively communicate his or her own intended meaning (Swain 1995). In summary, the four purposes of

output in second language acquisition (SLA) that are based on Swain's theories are as follows: (a) testing hypothesis regarding the meanings and structures of the target language; (b) getting important feedback for the validation of these hypothesis; (c) forcing to move from meaning-based to syntactic processing; and (d) improving fluency and automaticity in inter-language production.

Increasing automaticity is the final important role of output, and this is one of the instructional objectives of SLA. Just as the steps involved in walking towards a bike, getting out the key, unlocking it, pushing it, getting on it, and riding it require little thought and less time, so too does the execution of an automatic process require little effort when the learner performs the task without awareness or attention (Swain, 1995; 2005). According to Ellis (2003) higher quality output results in better input (learners can negotiate meaning and provide input for others); it also promotes syntactic processing (learners can pay attention to the means of expressing meaning); it helps learners test out their grammatical hypotheses; and it aids in the development of discourse skills (learners can go from producing sentences to producing discourses).

Van Patten (2004) asserts that the capacity to generate forms and structures in output does not necessarily imply the acquisition of forms and structures. It is important to differentiate between output as social engagement and output as the application of structures and forms. According to (Long, 2000; 2014), as students digest the information they are exposed to, their implicit system grows. The output encourages the conscious knowledge of language and language use as well as the observation of linguistic aspects in the intake. Additionally, it might give students more information so they can refine or add to their current knowledge.

Although output does not directly contribute to the development of the internal language system, it does play a significant role in fostering awareness and engagement with other learners (Pritchard, 2009; Van Patten, 2004). The development of specific skills to use specific forms/structures correctly and accurately in controlled tasks may be aided by the deliberate presentation and manipulation of forms through drills and output practice, but the development of the implicit system (mental representation) responsible for acquisition is not significantly affected (Van Patten, 2004).

2.4.5. Attention

Attention (noticing) is a process of bringing an intended language form into a focal attention; or just it is a process of mentally registering the intended language form. According to Loewens & Sato (2018), noticing in an interactional method can also be supported by gestures, body language, or facial expressions, as well as by a variety of intonational and phonological manipulations including increased stress, intonation, or repeats of the desired form. This kind of support according to Jones and Lock (2011) is called scaffolding used to describe the type of assistance provided to students so they can identify and investigate new grammatical elements.

Schmidt (1990; 1992) and Gass et al., (2005) argue that before a form in the input can be further processed learners must consciously perceive it or show that they are mindful of it, both in terms of perception and awareness. There can be no disconnection between awareness and learning, according to Schmidt, because focused attention is corresponding with consciousness. Schmidt also makes a contrast between awareness at the level of noticing and awareness at the level of understanding in order to explain the difference between intake/item learning and restructuring/system learning. At the comprehension level, students may evaluate, contrast, test theories, and articulate the language's fundamental norms (Dekeyser, 2007).

2.5. Approaches to teaching grammar

Grammar instruction methods have changed significantly over history. According to Nassaji and Fotos (2018), these shifts have been irregular and marked by numerous pendulum swings. They have been brought about by a variety of theoretical and empirical advancements in the field.

Different theoretical approaches have resulted in a diverse set of instructional alternatives aimed at improving the effectiveness of grammar teaching, both in terms of guaranteeing a thorough comprehension of grammar rules and assisting learners in applying these principles in communicative engagement. Three broad approaches to instruction can be used to describe them: the first focused on teaching grammar alone, followed by exposure to meaningful communication in later years, and the development of a set of options for instruction that emphasize both grammar and meaning more recently (Long, 2000).

The role of grammar instruction in second or foreign language (L2) pedagogy has long been contentious, and while there is now widespread agreement that such pedagogic intervention is desirable, various debates remain about how it should be implemented most effectively.

Therefore, understanding the flexibility of grammar teaching/learning necessitates an examination of the evolution of what makes good grammar pedagogy. It is possible that there is no a single best approach to grammar education that can be implemented in all contexts to a wide range of learners and environments. To apply to their specific situation, teachers must be familiar with various approaches to grammar instruction. Familiarity with a variety of perspectives and approaches can also lead to the understanding that many approaches share common characteristics, as well as a respect for an eclectic approach to grammar instruction.

2.5.1. Grammar-based approaches

Grammar-based approaches focus on teaching grammar deductively, a teacher-centered method of teaching grammar where the rule, pattern, or principle is presented first, followed by examples and practice activities that apply the rule (Larsen-Freeman, 2008; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). These approaches emphasize teaching grammar by removing it from its context. Grammar-based approaches include the audio-lingual method, the grammar translation method, and additional structure-based techniques. Despite their differences, these approaches are predicated on the idea that mastering a language's structure is the main challenge when learning a second or foreign language and that this area of the language has to be given special attention (Long, 2015).

2.5.1.1. Grammar translation method

For many years, language teaching was primarily considered a process of grammatical analysis and the translation of written forms. This approach, known as the Grammar Translation Method or the Classical Method, was first used in the teaching of classical languages like Latin and Greek (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2008). In this traditional instruction, language was divided into eight parts of speech—nouns, verbs, participles, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions—based on categories from Greek and Latin grammar. Learning a language therefore required studying these categories in written texts and developing rules for their use in translation (Long, 2014).

Grammar instruction was considered the center of language pedagogy for several reasons. First, knowledge of grammar was highly required for the study of philosophy and science in the Middle Ages. Furthermore, the study of grammar had a close relationship with other disciplines such as law, theology, and medicine, and it was believed that grammatical knowledge was essential for developing many academic skills (Long, 2016; Nassaji and Fotos, 2018).).

By the end of the 18th century, the Grammar Translation Method had developed, and by the 19th century, it had become widely used worldwide (Long, 1992; Nassaji and Fotos, 2018). This method focused exclusively on studying grammatical rules and structures deductively through explicit explanations. It involved the memorization of rules and vocabulary, as well as the translation of texts from the second language (L2) to the first language (L1). Emphasizing written language, the approach aimed to train students' academic skills, prepare them for a better understanding of their first language, and enable them to explore literature in the target language. This strategy is still frequently utilized in many EFL classrooms where English is learned through translation and memorization.

However, with the development of structural linguistics in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the emphasis shifted from the parts of speech to a description of structural and phonological features. This shift, coupled with an increased need for oral communication and fluency in foreign languages at the start of World War II, led to the emergence of new methods like the Audio-Lingual and Direct Methods, influenced by advancements in behavioral psychology (Richards & Rodgers, 1999).

2.5.1.2. The audio–lingual approach

Emerging during and after the Second World War, the Audio–Lingual and related direct approaches were developed to meet the high need for spoken fluency (Cook, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 2008; Nassaji & Fotos, 2018). Theoretically, this method was heavily influenced by behaviourist psychology, which viewed learning as a process of habit formation and conditioning, and by the American school of descriptive and structural linguistics, which shifted the focus from parts of speech to structural and phonological components.

Consequently, the approach prioritized the acquisition of grammatical structures through memorization and pattern drills to reinforce language habits. Instruction consisted of

grammatical structures sequenced linearly, from simple to complex, with little attention to meaning or context (Larsen–Freeman, 2008; Long, 2014). Rules were taught inductively through examples and the repetition of sentence-level patterns. A typical instructional unit began with a conversational dialogue, followed by pattern drills, and the emphasis was primarily on developing oral skills rather than written skills.

Many other grammar-based methods emerged later, such as the Reading Approach, the Oral and Situational Method, the Silent Way, and Total Physical Response (Richards and Rodgers, 1999). Although they differed in their underlying assumptions about language learning, their syllabi were similarly organized around analyses of language forms rather than functions or real-life communication. Therefore, they all reflected what Batstone (1994) called as teaching grammar as a product, or what Wilkins (1976) termed a synthetic approach, in which language is segmented into discrete parts to be taught one by one.

2.5.1.3. Presentation–Practice–Production (PPP) Models

Grammar-based approaches are still used in many L2 classrooms. A very popular form of this approach is the PPP (Presentation–Practice–Production) model of language instruction. The Presentation–Practice–Production (PPP) model is a grammar-based teaching strategy still widely used in many second language (L2) classrooms (Nassaji & Fotos 2011). In the PPP model, grammar instruction consists of a structured three-stage sequence: a presentation stage, a practice stage, and a production stage.

In the presentation state, the new grammatical rule or structure is introduced, typically through a text, dialogue, or story. The primary aim of this stage is to familiarize students with the new structure and help them retain it in their short-term memory ((Mckay & Hornberger, 2008; Ur, 1988).

This is followed by the practice stage, where students complete various written and spoken exercises to repeat, manipulate, and reproduce the new forms. This stage often begins with controlled activities that focus attention on the specific structures before progressing to less controlled, more open-ended tasks. The goal is to help students gain control of the new knowledge, moving it from their short-term to their long-term memory (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Ur, 1988).

Finally, in the production stage, learners are encouraged to use the target grammar more freely in communicative activities. The aim of this final phase is to promote full mastery of target grammar elements by enabling learners to internalize the rules and use them automatically and spontaneously, in other words, to develop fluency (Krashen, 1992; 2009).

2.5.1.4. Inadequacies of grammar-based Approaches

Approaches to grammar instruction that focus on teaching grammar as a set of rules and structures have been found inadequate in meeting the communicative needs of L2 learners. One of the major assumptions underlying traditional grammar-based approaches is that language consists of a series of grammatical forms and structures that can be acquired successively. Grammar teaching is viewed as a deductive and linear presentation of these rules. It is believed that through such presentations of grammar forms, learners are able to develop the kind of knowledge they need for spontaneous language use.

In recent years, however, many researchers have questioned the above assumptions. Reviewing past research on form-focused instruction, Long (2015) argued that none of the many studies on L2 learning over the past 30 years shows that presenting grammar rules in a discrete fashion matches the manner in which learners develop language rules. While there is substantial evidence that grammar instruction results in learning as measured by discrete-point language tests (e.g., the grammar test in the TOEFL), there is much less evidence to show that it leads to the kind of learning that enables learners to perform the targeted form in free oral production (Ellis et al., 2001).

2.5.2. Communication-based approach

A significant shift in language teaching was made due to the recognition that knowing a language involves more than just understanding its grammatical forms. This new perspective, which moved away from an exclusive focus on forms to an emphasis on meaning and use in context, became known as the Communicative Approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Savignon, 2002; Yirgalem & Italo, 2003). It is inductive approach to teaching grammar where students are first presented with specific examples or instances of language in use. Through guided analysis and discovery, they work out the underlying grammatical rule for themselves.

The communicative approach redefined the aim of language learning as acquiring communicative ability, the capacity to use and interpret meaning in real-life situations rather than simply learning formal rules (Brown, 2000; Hymes, 1972, cited in Krashen, 1981). Hence, it is a shift away from an exclusive focus on language forms to a focus on meaning and language use in communicative contexts. The emphasis was that grammar is acquired naturally through the process of comprehending and responding to input, much like a child learns a first language.

The concept of communicative competence took the primary support for the development of communicative language teaching. It gave reaction to Chomsky's narrower focus on linguistic competence (Ellis et al., 2009; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). The difference between linguistic competence, knowledge of grammar rules, and communicative competence, knowledge of language use and the ability to use language, was clearly identified by Hymes (1972) cited in (Krashen, 1981). The author argued that knowing a language does not simply mean knowing how to produce grammatical sentences accurately but also how to produce them appropriately.

Further theoretical support came from Krashen's Monitor Model of the 1970s and 1980s. His hypothesis that linguistic competence is best achieved through natural acquisition during real communication, with exposure to listening, speaking, and reading, provided strong justification for the principles of communicative language teaching, particularly its de-emphasis of explicit grammar instruction and error correction.

However, the practical application of communicative approaches often led to the marginalization of grammar, causing concern among many educators who believed it negatively impacted student success. In response, later conceptualizations of communicative-based teaching did not rule out a focus on linguistic forms (Alderson & Banerjee, 2002). More recent proposals, particularly within task-based teaching, explicitly emphasize the necessity of integrating attention to form within a communicative framework.

2.5.3. Integrating form and meaning (Focus on Form)

To address the limitations of both traditional structural syllabuses and purely communicative approaches, a new instructional method called focus on form (FonF) was developed (Ellis, 2003; McKay & Hornberger, 2009). This approach integrates formal grammar instruction with meaningful communicative language use.

Traditional structural syllabuses, which teach grammar in a specific sequence, often fail to produce communicative competence (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Pritchard, 2009). Conversely, communicative syllabuses that neglect grammar instruction can lead to fossilization and lower levels of accuracy. Research supports this, finding that instructed language learning offers significant advantages in the rate of learning and ultimate level of achievement over uninstructed learning (Ellis, 1992; Gass et al., 2020).

In response, Long (2000; 2001) proposed FonF. This approach is based on the idea that while students can acquire much grammar incidentally by focusing on meaning, their attention must also be drawn to specific linguistic forms within a communicative context. The goal is to integrate meaning and form to fill the gaps left by other methods.

In practice, "focus on form" refers to drawing learners' attention to grammatical structures during meaningful language activities, rather than in separate, decontextualized lessons (Nassaji & Fotos, 2004, 2007; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Instead of dedicating a separate lesson to rules, teachers integrate grammar instruction into tasks, providing opportunities for learners to notice and use target structures naturally as they engage in communication (Richards, 2006; Gass & Selinker, 2008). This is implemented through techniques like providing tailored input, offering feedback, and promoting self-correction (Dekeyser, 2007; Ellis et al., 2009; Richards, 2006). While FonF prioritizes usage and comprehension, it does not disregard explicit instruction; guidance is provided when necessary to enhance understanding (Pritchard, 2009).

A key manifestation of FonF is grammar learning through teacher–students classroom interaction, which is crucial in foreign language contexts where target language access is limited (Gass et al., 2020; Ellis, 1992). Integrating form and meaning can be manifested by instructional options like: input enhancement/ consciousness raising, classroom conversational interaction, and discourse–based approaches to grammar instructions.

2.5.3.1. Input enhancement/ consciousness raising

Input enhancement is the process by which input is made more noticeable to the learner (Schmidt, 1990). Many teachers and researchers currently regard grammar instruction as consciousness rising. It is the process of raising learners' attention to grammatical forms by making target forms perceptually more salient through typographical manipulation of certain

aspects of the input (Hinkel & Fotos, 2001; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). It is to mean that awareness of a particular feature is developed by instruction even if the learners cannot understand the feature at once. Gass et al. (1998) suggest that such awareness is produced by not only producing specific forms but may also result from input enhancement, that is operations performed on meaning focused–input in such a way that the target features stand out to the learner.

Instructed grammar learning can also serve as communicative input, based on which learners can internalise grammar rules (Brown, 2002; Skehan, 1998). This is seen as especially important for the EFL situation, in which communicative exposure to the target language is usually, lacking. Knowledge of grammatical structure developed through formal instruction can make these structures more relevant and applicable for learners and, thus, easier to understand.

Textual enhancement is an external form of input enhancement, by which learners' attention is drawn to linguistic forms through physically manipulating certain aspects of the text to make them easily noticed (Celce- Murcia, 1991; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Since the technique highlights the correct form in the input, it is a positive form of input enhancement. Textual enhancement is an implicit form of input enhancement as it attempts to draw learners' attention to form while focus remains on meaning. Learners' attention is drawn to forms implicitly and unobtrusively.

Long and Robinson (1998) state that textual enhancement can be used with both written and oral texts. In written text, this can be accomplished by typographically highlighting certain target words embedded in the text by means of textual modifications, such as underlining, boldfacing, italicizing, capitalizing, colour coding or a combination of these. For example, students can be presented with a reading comprehension text, in which grammatical forms that the teacher identifies as problem are highlighted using one or more of the above devices. The text can either be an authentic text, if it contains enough examples of the targeted form, or it can be modified for that purpose (Ali Alghamdi et al., 2019; Dembo et al., 2007).

In textual enhancement, learners should read the text for meaning. Therefore, it is essential that a teacher uses strategies that can keep learners' attention on message. Pawlak (2021) believes that this can be achieved by using various forms of post–reading activities. For example, the teacher can ask learners to read the text and then discuss its content with their peers, answer

questions about the information in the text, or even complete a table or a chart based on the information in the text. The teacher should not explain why certain forms are highlighted in the input and should not provide any additional metalinguistic information either (Fotos, & Ellis, 1991; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Textual enhancement can also be used with oral texts. Oral input can be made more noticeable through various intonational and phonological manipulations, such as added stress, intonation, or repetitions of the targeted form, or even through gestures, body movement, or facial expressions.

2.5.3.2. Interaction, feedback and grammar learning

Interactionist perspective to SLA assumes that negotiated interaction (i.e., interactional modifications made in the course of conversation) is essential for language acquisition. In a real communication, one needs to understand and be understood; therefore, language production (comprehensible output) is essential for successful communication to take place (Freeman, 2023; Gardner, 2019; Long & Robinson, 1998).

It has been proposed that, through negotiation, learners not only communicate their meaning, but can also receive corrective feedback on their ill-formed utterances through the use of conversational strategies such as clarification requests, confirmation checks, repetition, recasts, etc., that take place during interaction. To a great extent, L2 output (production) depends on learners' linguistic and other communicative skills (Roeder et al., 2020; Tomlin, 1994). And L2 use entails an ability not just comprehend, but also to produce comprehensible output congruent with target language norms.

An important source of theoretical support for interactional feedback in L2 acquisitions is provided by Long's interaction hypothesis (Long, 2000). This hypothesis claims that interaction has positive effects on L2 learning. These effects occur through a process called negotiation, defined as interactional modifications that occur when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive, or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility. Long proposed that negotiation for meaning is facilitative of L2 acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways. Long (2106) and Pica (1994) suggested that negotiation assists L2 development in three ways: by making message

comprehensible, by enhancing L2 input, and by facilitating the production of modified output (learners' revisions of their erroneous output following feedback).

Long and Crookes (1992) confirms that the aim of interactional feedback can either be conversational, in which the interlocutor attempts to deal with problems of message comprehensibility, or pedagogical when the interlocutor understands the message, but still attempts to correct the learner error or push the learner to produce a more formally correct or appropriate utterance (Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Thornbury, 1999). Conversational feedback involves negotiation of meaning whereas pedagogical feedback involves negotiation of form, defined as more deliberate attempts to draw learners' attention to form. In the following section, we will describe the different types and subtypes of interactional feedback.

2.5.3.2.1 Recasts

One type of interactional feedback that has received much attention in the field of SLA is the recast (Brown, 2002; Newby, 2008). Recasts refer to utterances that reformulate the whole or part of the learner's erroneous utterance into a correct form while maintaining the overall focus on meaning. The reformulation not only provides the learner with the correct form but may also signal to the learner that his or her utterance is deviant in some way. In other words, the feedback draws learners' attention to mismatches between input and output, and hence causes them to focus on form (Swain, 1995). Recasts are generally considered as implicit feedback because they imply rather than overtly correct the error. They are also unobtrusive because they rephrase an utterance without breaking the flow of communication. However, such interactional moves are complex, taking many different forms during interaction, differing from one another in terms of their degree of explicitness (Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Newby, 2008).

2.5.3.2.2. Clarification requests

Clarification requests occur when the teacher or an interlocutor does not fully understand a learner's utterance and then asks the learner to rephrase the utterance so that it can be clearer (Schmidt, 1992). The request may be motivated by either an error in the learner's utterance or it may be because the utterance is not comprehensible in some other way. The feedback does not provide the learner with the correct form. However, it may indicate to the learner that his or her utterance may contain an error. Since the feedback is interrogative, it provides the learner with

an opportunity to self-repair (Schmidt, 1990). Clarification requests can be achieved by using phrases such as “pardon me?” or “sorry?” or “excuse me?”

2.5.3.2.3. Repetition

Interactional feedback can also occur in the form of repetition of all or part of the learner’s erroneous utterances with a rising intonation (White, 1989). Like clarification requests, such feedback moves do not provide the learner with the correct form. However, they may indicate that the learner’s utterance is erroneous, thus, providing the learner with an opportunity to self-repair.

2.5.3.2.4. Metalinguistic feedback

Hinkel and Fotos (2001) explain that metalinguistic feedback refers to feedback that provides the learner with metalinguistic comments (i.e., comments about language) in the form of a statement or a question about the correctness of an utterance. This feedback may either simply involve metalinguistic hints or clues about the location or the nature of the error (e.g., “Can you correct the verb?” or “You need an adverb.”) or it may include metalinguistic explanation in conjunction with correction (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). The following provides examples of a metalinguistic clue and metalinguistic feedback with correction.

2.5.3.2.5. Direct elicitation

Direct elicitation refers to feedback strategies that attempt more overtly to elicit the correct form from the learner (Pawlak, 2021). This may take the form of repeating the learner’s utterance up to the point where the error has occurred and waiting for the learner to complete the utterance such as “He went ...?” Or it may take the form of a query that asks the learner more directly to repeat his or her utterance such as “Can you repeat what you said?” None of these strategies involves correction, but they may indicate indirectly to the learner that there is something wrong with their utterance (Fotos, & Ellis, 1991; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Thus, the feedback may draw the learners’ attention to the problematic form and push the learner to self-correct.

2.5.3.2.6. Direct correction

Direct correction refers to feedback that identifies the error and then overtly corrects it (Long, 2015). This type of feedback has the advantage of providing the learner with clear information about how to correct the error. However, since the feedback supplies the correction, it does not provide the learner with an opportunity to self-repair. Thus, the feedback may not result in any negotiation or learners' active participation in the feedback process (Lyster, 1998; 2004).

2.5.3.2.7. Nonverbal feedback

Feedback can also be provided nonverbally using body movements and signals such as gestures, facial expressions, head, hand, and finger movements (Fotos, & Ellis, 1991; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). For example, shaking the head or frowning could be used to indicate the presence of an error. Arms, hand, or figure movements could be used to indicate the nature of the error.

Thornbury (1999) pointed out that when using nonverbal feedback, it might be useful if the teacher familiarizes students in advance with the kinds of body movements he or she might use. For example, the teacher may inform students that when he or she crosses over his or her arms in front of the boy, it indicates a problem with word order.

2.5.3.2.8. Which errors should be corrected?

A fundamental question in error correction asks what kinds of errors should be corrected. The distinction between errors and mistakes might be helpful when making decisions about what errors should be corrected (Brown, 2002; Skehan, 1998). Errors occur because of a lack of knowledge but mistakes are simply performance errors. Local errors do not affect general understanding of the message and usually have to do with minor errors such as those which are related to the omission of morphological markers or function words. Global errors, however, cause problems in communication and include errors such as wrong word order or inappropriate uses of lexical items (Roeder et al., 2020).

Long and Robinson (1998) suggested that teachers may be advised to pay more attention to errors than mistakes and to global errors rather than local errors. Teachers might also prioritize errors based on their frequency of occurrence or the stigmatizing effects they may have on the

interlocutor that is the unfavourable reaction the error elicits towards the learner (Long & Crookes, 1992; Swain, 1995). Of course, such recommendations may not be easy in practice, as it is not always easy to distinguish errors from mistakes. For example, if errors occur during a grammatical exercise, it is possible that the cause is incomplete knowledge of the grammar, but if they occur during a communicative activity, it is hard to know what the exact cause is.

2.5.3.3. Discourse-based approaches to grammar instruction

Nassaji and Fotos (2011) suggests that although still considering the importance of attention to linguistic forms, a discourse-based approach to teaching grammar considers its function to convey meaning. In light of this, it is recognized that an essential function of grammar is its pragmatic meaning in context. Discourse has been defined as a continuous stretch of language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit (Hinkel and Fotos, 2001). Thus, a discourse-based pedagogy does not focus on grammar forms in isolation or simply at the sentence level, but attempts to integrate them into larger interactive contexts.

The discourse view of language focuses less on analysis of the grammatical structure and more on analysis and description of the interaction between linguistic form and pragmatic conditions (Fotos, & Ellis, 1991; Pawlak, 2021). It suggests that implicit or explicit instruction should be supported by the provision of discourse-level input to expose learners to repeated use of target forms in natural input. Learner discourse-level output producing target forms are also essential to promote learner noticing and ultimate acquisition of the target structures (Brown, 2000; Skehan, 1998; Thornbury, 1999). This process is especially essential for today's language learners since most institutional tests now present listening, speaking and writing questions at the discourse level, often requiring learners to synthesize both written and spoken items when producing their answers.

An important distinction is also made between grammar as syntax and grammar as language use. Grammar as syntax refers to the ways in which words are arranged in a phrase, a clause, or a sentence and the rules governing these arrangements (Roeder et al., 2020). Grammar as language use, however, refers to the ability to understand and use grammar in communicative discourse. Thus, a discourse-based view of language teaching emphasizes the communicative use

of grammar, suggesting that learners must comprehend what is actually being communicated, regardless of the apparent meaning of the syntax (Hinkel & Fotos, 2001).

Hence, grammar must be presented flexibly as a tool to achieve communicative goals through expressing particular meaning, cohesion and coherence according to the requirements of the context. From the discourse perspective, grammar is therefore the complex process of making context-based choices of syntax, vocabulary, and the social and psychological variables necessary for the intended meaning to be conveyed (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

In discourse-based grammar instruction, a fundamental question is how to make effective use of discourse in form-focused L2 classroom instruction. As discussed previously, language functions are linked to specific grammatical structures (Brown, 2000; Skehan, 1998; Thornbury, 1999). Therefore, a discourse-based communicative focus on grammar strongly supports the development of teaching materials that consider characteristics of both written and spoken language.

It has been repeatedly noted that ESL/EFL pedagogical grammars are based on the structure of written English, not on the structure of speech, even though the two forms have been shown to be quite different (Newby, 2008). In particular, the provision of authentic spoken material is extremely problematic since most textbooks continue to use the grammar of written English even for dialogue-based activities. A significant example of this is the continued use of the sentence-level example in grammatical explanations of target structures, even though many corpus researchers now consider sentences to be minor units in discourse since many non-sentences are used in natural language (Long & Crookes, 1992; Swain, 1995).

Generally, the provision of discourse-level input based on authentic or simplified target language discourse, the study of discourse-level communicative contexts in which L2 forms are used, and the provision of opportunities for form-focused discourse-level output can greatly support implicit and explicit grammar instruction and can promote increased learner awareness of grammar forms, this leading to successful SLA.

2.6. Negotiated interaction in EFL classroom

Long (2015) defined negotiated interaction as the cooperative sharing of ideas, feelings, or thoughts by two or more individuals resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Hence,

teacher-students negotiated interaction in EFL classroom is a process of making interactional and linguistic modifications made in the course of conversation between a teacher and students in the classroom. Negotiated interaction is an extension of child's language acquisition process through recasting, repeating, imitating, and reproducing the sound of the language they hear people speaking around them into EFL classrooms (Yang & Lyster, 2010).

According to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, learning is socially mediated, requiring interaction (Frederick, 2011; Tshering, 2021). Thus, the concept of interaction is also very helpful in EFL classroom situations in which students can negotiate misunderstandings with their teacher (Ellis, 2007). During negotiation, a teacher may push students to produce grammatically correct, appropriate, and coherent language; this forces them to shift from semantic processing to syntactic processing (Swain, 1995). As a result, students can learn grammar better through exposure to real-life and contextual oral interaction with the teacher who scaffolds them in grammar learning. In teacher-students classroom interaction, students can get quality input, which is the result of negotiated interaction and repeated exposure to target linguistic elements (Fujii & Mackey, 2009; Shehadeh, 2001).

A teaching and learning environment, especially for EFL learners who have no external exposure to communicate with the target language, is better to create an opportunity for learners to negotiate with a competent speaker or a teacher of the target language (Bickel & Fisher, 2022; Gass et al., 2011; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). If so, teachers may play a vital role in filling the linguistic gaps of students in the form of interactional feedback in classroom negotiation (Ellis, 2007; Fujii & MacKey, 2009; Roy Lyster, & Leila Ranta, 1997).

Negotiated interaction facilitates language learning because it has four key features/constructs that are crucial for language acquisition in general and grammar learning in particular (Long, 1990). These are: comprehensible input, modified output, interactional feedback, and attention (noticing). These four constructs of negotiated interaction have the potential to offer substantial learning opportunities in the classroom. In interactional EFL grammar classes, teacher-students interactions facilitate students' acquisition of grammatical elements as it is the source of the four key features which are essential for grammar learning.

Negotiated interaction is the process of integrating the four constructs of conversational interaction to teaching grammar in the classroom. Language researchers and teachers emphasize the importance of comprehensible input in language learning (Benati, 2017; Frederick, 2011). Krashen's input hypothesis suggests that students receive moderately higher linguistic elements through one-way interaction, such as listening and reading. However, Long's interactional hypothesis suggests that comprehensible input is most effective when modified through negotiated interaction. Language researchers emphasize that even though comprehensible input and negotiated interaction are vital for language learning, modified output is also equally important (Swain, 1995).

Proponents of interactional language learning suggest that feedback that is provided to students under real operating conditions, in natural contexts in which students are trying to actually perform the target grammar elements communicatively, may be effectively utilized by students. The interactional language learning process includes also cognitive conceptions of awareness, attention, and related noticing (Long, 2015). According to Schmidt (1990), learning a language requires attention, or observing; in other words, learning a language cannot occur without attention.

2.7. Techniques of negotiation in grammar classes

Teacher-student negotiated interaction involves collaborative discussions, decisions, and shared learning content (Abbuhl et al., 2018; Hall, 2010). To extend negotiated interaction and reach mutual understanding with shared learning outcomes, teachers and students are recommended by proponents of interactional language learning to use techniques of negotiation in the classroom. These techniques, which are used to extend negotiation, are comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, appeals for help, recasts, and repetition (Börekci & Aydın, 2018; Loewen & Sato, 2018).

There are six techniques of classroom negotiation. These are: Comprehension checks are questions aimed at assessing students' understanding of the instruction. Hence, the teacher encourages students' responses to his/her questions. On the other hand, clarification requests may be students' or teacher's requests for clarification of the utterance said by either of the two participants. According to Benati (2017) and Frederick (2011), teachers can ask students for

clarification when they encounter difficulties in understanding a grammatical concept and encourage students to ask questions for clarification. Confirmation checks are students or teacher's involvement in verifying understanding of the preceding utterance. However, appeals for help refer to inquiries made by students seeking assistance from the teacher.

The other strategy of negotiation is repetition, which shows teachers resaying what he/she said before to give attention to target grammar elements, or it can be students' involvement in repeating what they said before in response to the teacher's question (Bickel & Fisher, 2022; Loewen & Sato, 2018). Hence, grammatically simplified (comprehensible input) is the result of negotiation between a teacher and students. Teachers also reformulate students' incorrect or incomplete sentences into grammatically accurate ones in the form of interrogative recasts, recasts in the form of questions, to give feedback (Ellis, 2007; Long & Porter 1985). In an interactional approach, students can be assisted by the teacher, and the teacher gradually reduces assistance as students become more proficient. Generally, using the aforementioned techniques of negotiation in the classroom requires students to demonstrate their understanding through using the target grammar elements for oral communication.

2.8. Interactional tasks in grammar classes

Although task-based language teaching is an area of considerable current interest with its own research agendas, much of the rationale for tasks is based on the interaction approach. Hence, effective teacher-students interaction in EFL classes involves teachers leading with interactive tasks that contextualize grammar instruction (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Tasks promoting interactional structure, such as story-telling tasks, information-gap tasks, and problem-solving tasks, enhance communication between students and teachers (Benati, 2017; Pica, 1994). Therefore, the classroom teacher may be better to use these tasks that offer students ample practice opportunities aligned with their daily lives to learn grammar (Ellis, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2013)

2.9. Grammar competence

Language structure and the way words join to make sentences are governed by a set of principles called grammar (Krashen, 1992; Millrood, 2014). Grammar competence includes linguistic elements like morphology, phonology, and syntax. In order to effectively transmit

information, grammar offers standards for word arrangement and organization. Proper adherence to grammatical norms guarantees understanding, consistency, and clarity in communication between speakers and writers (Larsen-Freeman, 2008).

Grammatical competence refers to an individual's ability to understand and produce grammatically correct sentences in a particular language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Roca & Manla 2023). It involves having knowledge of the rules, structures, and patterns that govern the formation and arrangement of words and phrases in a language. Grammatical competence enables effective communication and comprehension, allowing individuals to accurately express themselves and understand others within the linguistic constraints of the language they are using (Brown, 2000; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

There are five basic elements of grammatical competence. These are: morphological competence, syntactic competence, semantic-grammar interface, discourse-grammar interface, and grammar for pragmatic effect.

Morphological competence is essential aspect of linguistic ability, which is defined as the subconscious knowledge of the internal word structure of a given language (Oseki & Marantz, 2020). It involves understanding how the smallest morphemes such as: prefixes, roots, and suffixes combine to form words. Fumero and Tibi (2020) suggested this competence allows individuals to intuitively deconstruct complex words like “re-capital-ize-ed” to grasp their meaning and construct new, grammatically correct words by applying these internal rules, moving beyond simple vocabulary memorisation to a deeper analytical grasp of the language.

Fumero and Tibi (2020) and Lardiere (2005) stated that morphological competence is vital for language use, which enables both the comprehension of new words and the accurate production of grammatical forms. In practice, it allows a speaker to understand a new word like “de-planet-ise” and to correctly generate past tenses or plurals. Besides, comprehension (Oseki & Marantz, 2020) explained that it is profoundly connected with other language skills, serving as a cornerstone for vocabulary growth, syntactic competence, and reading.

Syntactic competence is the process of understanding and producing correct sentence structures. Homeidi (2000) stated that syntactic competence is the subconscious, internalised knowledge of a language's structure that allows a speaker to effortlessly produce and understand

a limitless number of grammatically correct sentences and to identify structurally ill-formed ones. It is an implicit mental grammar that operates automatically, enabling a native speaker to intuitively recognise proper syntax without conscious rule analysis (Kelly, 1996). This cognitive framework governs how words and phrases are combined according to a structured, language-specific system of rules, which is fundamentally generative and creative. This creativity allows speakers to use finite rules, such as recursion, to construct and comprehend an infinite variety of novel sentences they have never encountered before (Halijah, 2018).

There is a critical distinction between the idealized linguistic knowledge, known as competence, and its real-world application, known as performance (Homeidi, 2000). Performance involves the actual use of language in speaking and writing and can be inconsistent due to non-linguistic factors like memory gaps or distractions, even when competence is fully complete. In second language learning, the goal is to develop this implicit syntactic competence for the new language, moving beyond conscious rule memorization to an intuitive grasp of its structure. True mastery is achieved when the learner can automatically sense grammatical correctness, demonstrating that syntactic competence is the foundational, intuitive engine behind proficient language use (Halijah, 2018; Kelly, 1996).

Semantic-grammar interface is the process of understanding how grammatical choices affect meaning (Poletiek et al., 2021). It is a foundational concept in linguistics that describes the inseparable connection between meaning (semantics) and grammatical form (structure). It suggests that grammar is not an arbitrary set of rules but a system deeply motivated by the meanings we wish to express (Rauh et al., 2016; Van Valin, 2008). When learning a language, we are not just memorising words and rules; we are learning how to map our thoughts with specific grammatical forms. This interface acts as the crucial bridge between our concepts, such as ‘who did what to whom, and the structured sentences we produce, making grammar learning a more intuitive process of conceptual understanding rather than rote memorisation.

Poletiek et al. (2021) stated that this connection is evident in how grammar incorporates meaning. For instance, the semantic role of an agent is typically mapped onto the grammatical subject, and a patient onto the direct object, explaining the intuitive understanding of a sentence like “the chef cooked the meal.” Furthermore, morphology, such as tense markers or plural

suffixes, provides grammatical signals for semantic concepts like time or quantity (Rauh et al., 2016; Van Valin, 2008). Understanding this interface transforms the learning of grammar, shifting the focus from arbitrary rules to the reasons behind them. By asking what meaning a structure conveys, learners can grasp grammar as a logical framework for precisely communicating their intended message and focus.

Discourse-grammar interface is using grammar appropriately within a larger context (Aijmer, 2008). It is a concept in linguistics and language pedagogy that moves beyond the traditional view of grammar as a set of isolated, sentence-level rules. Instead, it posits that grammar cannot be fully understood or mastered without considering its role in larger stretches of language, known as discourse (Ariel, 2009; Du Bois, 2003). Discourse refers to any connected piece of language, a conversation, a story, an email, or a newspaper article that is coherent and has a communicative purpose. Aijmer (200) suggested that the “interface” is the point where the micro-level choices of grammar (tense, articles, pronouns, conjunctions) meet the macro-level needs of discourse (cohesion, coherence, narrative structure, and communicative intent). This means that it argues that we choose specific grammatical forms not just because a rule dictates it, but to create meaning and manage the flow of information for our listener or reader.

Grammar for pragmatic effect is using grammar to achieve specific communicative goals. The function of a grammatical choice is more important than the form itself (Adam & Sailuddin, 2023). It's not just about whether a sentence is grammatically correct, but what that sentence does in a particular context. For example, a simple declarative sentence like “the door is closed” states a fact (Kuntso, 2024). However, changing the grammatical structure to an imperative “Close the door” makes it a command. Transforming it into a question “could you close the door?” softens it into a polite request (Berezenko, 2019). Each grammatical structure serves a different pragmatic purpose, influencing the tone, the relationship between speaker and listener, and the likelihood of the desired outcome.

2.10. Teaching grammar interactively

Grammar is a set of rules that determines how words are typically arranged and related in sentences (Abbuhl et al., 2018). Students who are found in countries where the English language is used as an academic language need to have a good command of grammar for effective

academic communication. It helps to express and understand ideas clearly, write structured and coherent texts, and build credibility and professionalism in academic life. Millrood (2014) in the EFL context, grammatical competence refers to knowledge of language rules and skills that students need to build and comprehend proper sentences, identify grammatical errors, make judgments about right and wrong linguistic forms, and perform language testing tasks.

However, the place of grammar in second or foreign language learning has been controversial (Benati, 2017; Kagan et al., 2011; Pawlak, 2021). The question of whether grammar should be taught implicitly by exposing students to meaningful language usage by encouraging them to work out the rules by themselves or explicitly in a teacher-led presentation of rules for practice has long been a source of debate (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). The debate also extends to the extent of how the interaction between implicit and explicit grammar teaching and learning should be integrated into teaching grammar (Del et al., 2000).

However, recently, language teaching by integrating form and meaning has been the focus of many applied language researchers after Long (1980, 2015, 2016) and Long and Porter (1985) proposed a language teaching approach called focus on form. Interactional grammar teaching, as one instructional option for the focus on form approach, helps students to start practicing how grammatical forms are used for communication right from the beginning of grammar learning. Grammar is better to be taught by combining form and meaning with the main purpose of helping students to use the target grammar elements for communication in the classroom conversation (Ellis, 2007; Pawlak, 2021).

Teacher-students negotiated interaction gives guidance and support for students to learn and improve the use of target grammar elements through classroom communication (Pica et al, 1991). Students' intrinsic motivation increases to learn grammar when they use grammar elements for real-life communication in interactive language classrooms. In addition, teaching grammar by using real-life classroom tasks gives an opportunity for EFL students to access target linguistic elements through context-based classroom conversational interactions. It is also beneficial to promote accuracy within fluent communicative language. Therefore, grammar tasks in the interactional approach are expected to be designed to facilitate learners' noticing and

processing of the target grammar elements and help them to realize and make correct form-meaning functions.

Given that grammar is essential to improving learners' communication skills, grammar instruction has the potential to help students become more proficient communicators. Teachers must continue to emphasize the value of teaching grammar by putting students in context-rich learning scenarios (Scrivener, 2011; Thornbury, 2015), cited in Getaneh (2021). It is not necessarily appropriate in modern methods of grammar instruction to view language acquisition as a process that ends with speaking the language. As stated by Ellis and Collins (2009), grammar can also be learned through classroom conversation. The best way for EFL students to acquire grammar is through conversational instruction in the classroom, as they have limited opportunities to utilize the language outside of the classroom (Galana, 2017).

Ineffective traditional grammar instruction fails to enhance meaningful expressions of the target language (Munohsamy 2012). Similarly, Haregewain (2008) stated that Ethiopian secondary school students face challenges in fluent and grammatically correct communication, due to ineffective traditional grammar instruction. She highlights a widespread deficiency in overall English command and grammatical precision among Ethiopian students. EFL students struggle with practical use of grammar due to limited opportunities for practical language use, teachers' reluctance to employ diverse teaching methods, and a reliance on traditional, explicit learning from textbooks (Bayissa, 2013). Grammar teaching in secondary schools often focuses on rote memorization of grammatical structures, hindering students' interaction with linguistic forms in the classroom.

Grammar can be taught communicatively in EFL classes using two main methods: input-based and output-based instruction (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). The main goal of input-based grammar instruction is to expose students to grammatical structures through reading and listening exercises (Whong, 2008). It might not, however, give students enough chances to actively produce language, even if doing so is essential to improving accuracy and fluency. Despite the fact that input-based (teacher-led) methods expose students to linguistic input, these methods might not give students enough feedback, especially in the form of conversation, on their mistakes or assist them in fixing them because of the lack of negotiation between a teacher

and students (Gass et al., 2020). According to Mingizem (2000), students learning grammar with input-based (teacher-led) grammar instruction have a limited opportunity to transition from semantic to syntactic processing.

For learners to understand and use grammar rules for effective communication, output-based grammar instruction, which focuses on teaching grammar through interaction between interlocutors, is beneficial to learn grammar contextually (Dekeyser, 2007). With the interactive method, teachers can spot and fix grammatical mistakes instantly in the form of interactional feedback in the classroom. This quick response reinforces the proper use of grammar structures by assisting students to modify their erroneous utterances and make the required changes.

Johnson (2004) asserts that teaching grammar through interaction aids in the development of students' communication abilities. Students participate in insightful discussions and gain knowledge on how to apply grammatical rules in practical contexts. In language classes, interaction, especially teacher-students negotiated interaction, helps students deal with communication and linguistic issues. This environment enables learners to receive interactionally adjusted or modified input and produce understandable language (Ellis, 1992). Although conversational interaction in the classroom is helpful to learn grammar through interactional modification, a very limited emphasis is given in EFL contexts (Long, 2000). For instance, the majority of grammar instruction in Ethiopia is still based on conventional (teacher-led) methods that deny students' chance to learn through classroom interaction by using targeted language features (Zewdie, 2017).

In the interactional approach, the required grammatical elements can be recognized developmentally through interactional processes, including interactional feedback, negotiation for meaning and form, modified input, and modified output. Furthermore, linguistic and interactional adjustments are also a part of negotiation, and these together provide multiple opportunities to observe features of language forms, whether based on positive or negative evidence (Methcell and Myles, 2004).

The relevance of teachers' and students' roles in classroom interaction to acquire grammar is the main focus of interaction- and output -based grammar instruction (Gass et al., 2020). Therefore, oral interaction that takes place in the classroom between a teacher and

students shapes the activities that are taught, which in turn shapes the learning settings and, in the end, the grammatical growth of each individual student (Methcel & Myles, 2004). As a result, students are inspired to participate in the language learning process. Their desire and enthusiasm for studying the language is increased because they view grammar as a tool that helps them communicate effectively. Grammar development is therefore linked to students' practice and involvement in the classroom. But when interaction and output-based grammar instruction is applied in grammar classes, students are forced to shift from semantic processing to a syntactic process, which facilitates the noticing of grammatical forms.

Teaching grammar through interaction creates a meaningful setting for learning. Learners appreciate how language functions in real-world situations rather than just memorizing rules, which makes grammar easier to understand and remember (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Brown, 2000). However, input-based grammar instruction occasionally presents discrete language elements insufficiently contextualized. Because of this, students could find it difficult to comprehend when and how to use the grammar structures in everyday contexts (Gass et al., 2020).

Input-based (teacher-led) grammar instruction does not involve students' direct speech engagement; therefore, it frequently takes them a long time to gather sufficient input and draw meaningful links between grammar structures and their usage (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). This could impede language development, particularly in classroom environments with tight deadlines. On the other hand, the interactive method promotes students' active engagement. It is recommended that they actively utilize the language and look for clarification. This encourages the development of a learner-centered classroom where students are given the tools they need to quickly assume responsibility for their education.

One issue with non-interactional systems is that linguistic input is often pre-modified by teachers or textbook authors rather than being the outcome of discussion between the teacher and students (Long, 2014). On the other hand, the speech directed to students in the interactional method is the outcome of continuous communication between students and the teacher (Ellis, 1992). Thus, understandable input from teacher-students interaction in the classroom is crucial for learning a foreign language.

For students to learn grammar in a setting that mimics nature, a dynamic and engaging method of teaching grammar should be promoted (Dekeyser, 2007). This will facilitate effective language acquisition while fostering communication skills and fluency (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Brown, 2002). As a result, the interactional approach is employed to help learners absorb the desired language forms and utilize them naturally as they continue to learn grammar (Ali Alghamdi et al., 2019). Proponents of the interactional approach contend that communication should be viewed as both a method and an end in language learning. Therefore, developing the necessary grammatical aspects of the language through conversation in EFL classroom settings will somewhat make up for the lack of external exposure that students would otherwise have.

Many language teaching experts have written about the importance of interaction in language teaching. A theoretical review paper on the function of interaction in teaching and learning foreign languages was given by Borekci and Aydin (2018). This paper centers on the variables that impact interaction during the learning process, the significance of interaction in acquiring a foreign language, and associated theories and conjectures. The study comes to the conclusion that interaction improves motivation, engagement, personal growth, and language proficiency in foreign language learning and teaching procedures.

In order to evaluate the chances for student participation and meaning negotiation that teachers offer in the course of an EFL interaction, Hoque (2016) carried out an evaluation study in an EFL classroom. The study monitored an EFL class and examined the interactions that occurred between the teacher and students. The results showed that the teachers' identities were exposed in various ways depending on their positions and local placement. The results imply that teachers can foster and provide opportunities for meaning negotiation. It is proposed that in order to make moment-by-moment decisions that will probably lead to greater opportunities for learning and meaning negotiation, teachers should be more cognizant of the socioeconomic and context-sensitive components of their interactions with students.

A meaningful classroom interaction such as conversations and interactive tasks that requires students to produce and negotiate with the teacher or each other helps students to notice grammatical features and facilitates grammar learning (Ellis, 1992; Swain, 2005; Long, 2000). On the other hand, Krashen (1992) and Van Patten (2003) emphasize the importance of

meaningful and engaging input, such as reading, listening, and exposure to authentic language materials and processing them in the mind. According to them, interaction may have some benefits, but it is not the key mechanism for language acquisition as proposed by Long.

2.11. Theoretical framework of the study

The application of teacher-student negotiated interaction for learning grammar is a pedagogically rich process that necessitates a multi-theoretical explanation, as no single framework can fully capture its complexity (Long, 2014). Cognitive learning theory provides the foundational understanding of individual mental processes, Social constructivism then situates this cognitive development within the essential social context, emphasizing how knowledge, particularly complex linguistic structures, is co-constructed through dialogue, scaffolding, and guided participation in the zone of proximal development during negotiation. Finally, constructivism underpins the entire enterprise by asserting that learners are not passive recipients but active agents who must personally interpret, test, and reconstruct their understanding of grammar based on these social and cognitive experiences. Whong (2011) states that only by synthesizing all three theories can we fully appreciate how negotiated interaction facilitates grammar learning: it is a process where learners actively build knowledge (constructivism) through socially mediated dialogue (social constructivism) that directly shapes their internal mental models (cognitive theory).

2.11.1. Constructivist learning theory

One of the pioneers of constructivism learning theory is Jean Piaget (Duff, 2009). This theory holds that learning is the process of active engagement of learners in the production of knowledge, where they actively construct their own knowledge rather than being passive consumers of it (Ertmer & Newby, 2013). Duff (2009) posits that this is achieved through three mechanisms: equilibrium, which involves attempting to achieve cognitive stability through assimilation and accommodation, accommodation, which involves revising an existing schema in light of a new experience, and assimilation that involves fitting a new experience into an already-existing mental structure. Students are encouraged to utilize practical approaches to gain knowledge, reflect, and have class discussions about their work through constructivist learning (Bada & Olusegun, 2015).

Learning is the process of assembling new knowledge from previously acquired knowledge and fresh data. This indicates that learners generate information in their minds (Schmidt, 1990; Prichard, 2009). The learner's mind is not empty, in accordance with this view. Consequently, it is important to recognize the information, values, and abilities that each person brings to a learning environment. According to constructivist theory, students actively create their own conceptions of reality by interacting with things, occasions, and other people in their surroundings and thinking back on those experiences (Bada & Olusegun, 2015).

Constructivism places a strong emphasis on how social learning is. Accordingly, students are greatly impacted by the learning environment in which they are immersed (Mckay & Hornberger, 2009). Most of the variance in student learning is frequently due to social experiences rather than academic content. The community, which includes a culture's values, beliefs, customs, habits, and behaviors, is the fundamental fabric of student learning (Ertmer & Newby, 2013). As kids grow older and more strongly identify with their peers, the social fabric of their education broadens as they approach puberty (Duff, 2009). Young adolescents come across a wide range of novel concepts and viewpoints from their social group (Ertmer & Newby, 1993).

It makes sense that social engagement is a potent tool for improving learning if learning is social and students are social beings. Students can explore ideas, beliefs, conceptions, contradictions, and misconceptions with their peers and teachers through cooperative, collaborative, and group investigation approaches. Bada and Olusegun (2015) assert that learning is improved when students learn how to work collaboratively, participate in a range of discussions, look closely at significant subjects, and share accountability for applying what they have learned to novel contexts.

The emphasis in a constructivist classroom usually moves from the teacher to the students. According to Cook (2008) the classroom is no more a place where the teacher, acting as "expert," pours knowledge into passive learners who stand by like empty vessels to be filled. The constructivist model encourages facilitates learning by coaching, mediating, prompting, and assisting students in developing and students to take an active role in their own education and a teacher assesses students' understanding (Bada and Olusegun, 2015). Additionally, in a constructivist classroom, knowledge is viewed by both the teacher and the students as a dynamic,

ever-evolving perspective of the world we live in and the capacity to successfully stretch and explore that vision rather than as static facts to be memorized.

Compared with lectures or demonstrations, creating language challenges for this type of learning is a far more sophisticated form of instruction (Cook, 2008; McKay & Hornberger, 2009). Effective teaching strategies should establish the framework for students to identify and question their own beliefs through investigation, reading, debates, and other learning activities.

2.11.2. Social constructivism

Lev Vygotsky presented the social constructivism theory of learning in 1968 (Saleem et al., 2021). According to this perspective, language and culture serve as the frames through which people interact, perceive, and understand the world. Language and culture affect students' intellectual development and how they perceive their surroundings. Through experience and cultural context, learning concepts are perceived and internalized as a function of language transmission. Since knowledge necessitates a community of individuals who share a language and culture, it is socially produced and co-constructed. According to the social constructivist, children acquire knowledge in collaboration with peers, teachers, and other students. This particular brand of cognitive constructivism encourages students to work together, either with a facilitator or with other students (Ertmer & Newby, 1993).

According to social constructivism, interpersonal conversations about a culturally relevant and meaningful reality as well as adaptive experiences with the physical world have an impact on students' comprehension (Kennedy, 2014 referenced in Saleem et al, 2021). In accordance with the social constructivist perspective, communication, cooperation, and information utilization are essential elements of learning and methods for accomplishing learning objectives.

According to Vygotsky, social learning enhances cognitive development and is essential for the formation of a person's personality throughout life (McKay & Hornberger, 2009). Put differently, students can finish any task with the assistance of an adult or group projects. By laying a solid foundation, this method facilitates student collaboration with their teacher and peers to increase knowledge and comprehension.

Social constructivism is an instructional approach that prioritizes student engagement, communication, and sharing (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978; McKay & Hornberger, 2009). This kind of instruction permits several groups and interactive strategies, such as class discussions, student participation on certain subjects (e.g., in pairs), and small-group discussions. In order to discover causal relationships, solutions to issues, or simply fresh information to supplement what they already know, students brainstorm and share ideas (Al-Qaysi et al., 2021).

Traditional methods are generally odds with the pedagogical ideals of social constructivism (Ellis et al. 2009). To use these concepts, educators need to consider their own work. Students should routinely assess their learning achievement, according to social constructivist teachers (Saleem et al, 2021). Additionally, critical thinking and autonomous learning are encouraged by social constructivist education. Students should become experts in a social constructivist classroom. Social constructivism emphasizes the importance of student collaboration through group activities.

According to the social constructivism theory, learners interact with one another in order to engage in meaningful learning (Ertmer & Newby, 2013). Through the use of instructional strategies that enable students to discover and acquire knowledge while participating and working together throughout the learning process, teachers support their students' learning (Frederick, 2011). The shift from passive recipients of information to active contributors and co-constructors of knowledge among peers has occurred as a result of social constructivism, which also shifts the burden of knowledge acquisition from educators to students (Ertmer & Newby, 1993).

2.11.3. Cognitive learning theory

Edward Thorndike, an American psychologist, created the cognitive learning hypothesis in the early 1900s (Pritchard, 2017). His contributions to operant conditioning and learning theory were his main areas of recognition. But it is crucial to remember that over time, other psychologists and academics have continued to build and broaden the cognitive learning hypothesis.

Cognitive learning theory states that learning is a mental process including problem-solving, observation, attention, and memory (Larsen-Freeman, 2008). It focuses on

comprehending how people gather, analyze, and arrange information in their thoughts. According to this idea (Ertmer & Newby, 1993), people actively create their knowledge and comprehension of the world. It also highlights the importance of mental processes in learning.

Demetriou et al (2016) asserts that cognitive learning theory can aid in language learning by revealing the ways in which our mental processes and cognition influence language acquisition. The cognitive learning theory can help with language learning in the following ways (Ertmer & Newby, 1993):

2.11.3.1 Information processing

The main focus of cognitive learning theory is on the mental processing and storage of knowledge. Understanding a language's structure, syntax, and vocabulary calls for the use of cognitive abilities including memory, attention, and perception. Language learners can enhance their ability to process information by implementing cognitive learning theory, which will help them assimilate and remember new language information more efficiently.

2.11.3.2. Metacognition

Learning about and comprehending one's own mental process is known as metacognition, and it is emphasized in cognitive learning theory. It is possible for language learners to track their progress, pinpoint areas for development, and modify their learning tactics by being cognizant of their own cognitive talents and strategies. Learners who actively participate in their language acquisition process are more likely to achieve successful learning outcomes, according to metacognition.

2.11.3.3. Schema theory

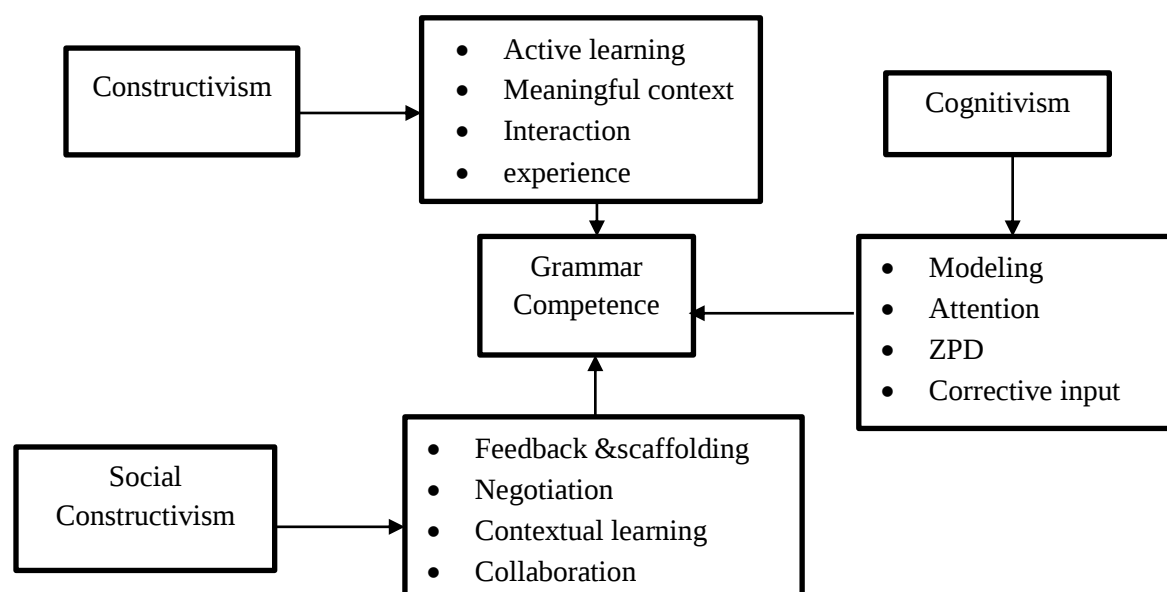
According to cognitive learning theory, students use mental structures called schemas to arrange and store information in their minds. Schemas are mental models that make new material easier for students to understand by relating it to what they already know. When learning a language, students can improve comprehension and retention by making connections between new vocabulary, grammar rules, and linguistic patterns and their preexisting schemas (Demetriou et al, 2016).

2.11.3.4. Problem-solving approach

The notion of cognitive learning advocates for an approach to learning that involves problem-solving. By actively participating in activities that call for problem-solving, like evaluating and interpreting real-world language resources or taking part in communicative exercises, language learners can put this method into practice. Learners improve their language competency and strengthen their cognitive abilities when they take on difficult language problems (Pritchard, 2017).

Overall, cognitive learning theory highlights the importance of understanding and leveraging cognitive processes for effective language learning. Applying cognitive learning strategies can enhance language learners' abilities to process, store, and retrieve language information, leading to improved language acquisition.

Figure 1: Theoretical framework for grammar learning through negotiated interactions



2.12. Conceptual framework of the study

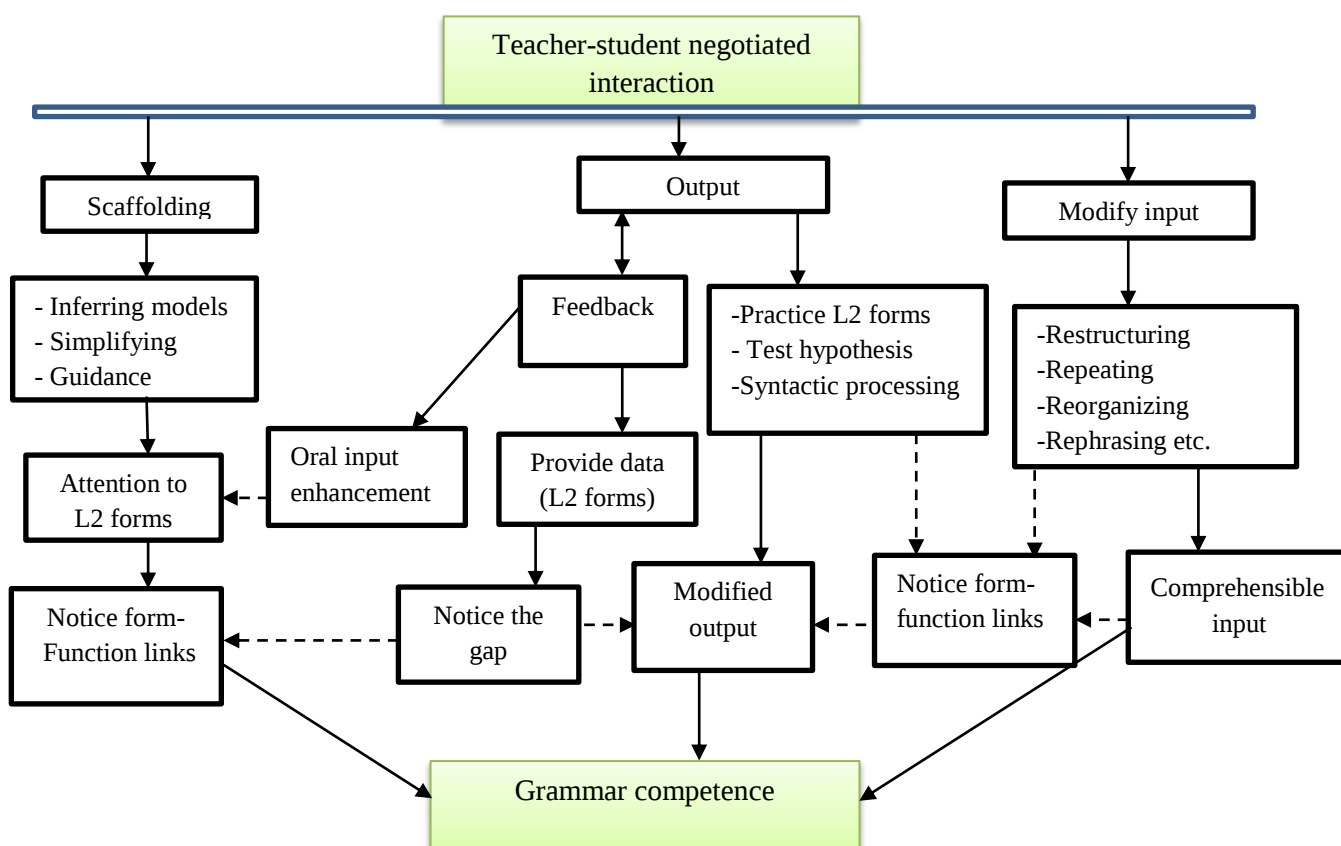
The conceptual framework that outlines the conceptual path of the study is presented in this section of the study. It explains how the interactional techniques affect the grammatical competence of the students. In addition, the conceptual framework shows how grammar instruction is greatly aided by teacher-students negotiated (conversational) interaction.

Teachers can give students a variety of opportunities to practice target grammar elements through negotiated interaction. Hence, grammar rules can be applied in many circumstances by students through the creation of exercises, activities, and assignments. Through these exchanges, teachers can provide students with constructive criticism, identify mistakes, and provide suggestions for improvement. Additionally, timely feedback and correction are made possible by teacher-student contact, which helps students improve their grammar. Teachers are able to identify the grammatical errors that students make and offer helpful criticism so that they can get better feedback. Students are able to comprehend their mistakes and make the required corrections thanks to this continuous conversation. Additionally, classroom interactions encourage student participation and discussion.

Students can engage in idea sharing and exchange with their teacher and peers during activities or conversations. They can practice expressing their ideas clearly, utilize grammar in real-world situations, and pick up language usage skills from one another as a result. Moreover, educators possess the ability to customize their interactions with students according to their specific requirements. They are able to recognize typical grammatical difficulties that students encounter and offer specific assistance. With this individualized assistance, students can address specific language challenges and advance at their own speed.

Overall, classroom teacher-student conversational interaction promotes engagement, clarifies concepts, provides practice opportunities, offers feedback, encourages collaboration, and allows for targeted instruction. These interactions create conducive environment for students to actively learn and apply grammar skills effectively. See the diagram bellow on how teacher-student interaction helps to learn grammar.

Figure 2: The conceptual framework for grammar learning through negotiated interaction



(Source: Author)

The above figure shows how teacher-student negotiated interactions help EFL students develop their grammar competence in several ways. Teacher-student negotiated interaction as an independent variable is a source for different components of negotiated interaction (e.g., scaffolding, modified output, comprehensible input, and interactional feedback), all of which are also independent variables. These variables enhance grammar learning, which is the dependent variable.

First, the input can be modified to meet the communicative demands of the students. In other words, students can ask for help by using a clarification request (e.g., Could you repeat that?) or comprehension check (e.g., did you say...?) if they are having trouble understanding a certain grammatical form. When a teacher notices a comprehension issue, he/she could also try to make the information simpler by repeating or rephrasing sentences, changing words, or

rearranging grammar. Each of these dialogue modifications, often referred to as negotiation of meaning and forms, has the capacity to make the desired grammar elements easier for students to understand, which could help with grammar competence.

Additionally, interaction gives students the chance to modify their output. As part of the interaction method, Swain's (2005) output hypothesis states that output can have a positive effect on L2 development by giving learners the opportunity to practice L2 forms and verify their language-related beliefs. Additionally, learners process the target language through output syntactically rather than merely semantically, since they must take into account the structure of the language to generate understandable speech.

Furthermore, output offers opportunities for feedback or information regarding how incorrect a student's original utterance was. This negative evidence, which is seen as one of the main advantageous aspects of interaction, varies in a number of ways, such as: a) the level of explicitness; b) whether the discourse move prompts students to change their interlanguage; and c) whether or not positive evidence (a target-like model) is also offered. In negotiated interactions in the classroom, teachers typically provide implicit feedback like, "what did you say?" (a request for clarification) or a recast in the form of questions to elicit students produce the target grammar elements.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

This chapter outlines the research methods used to investigate how teaching grammar through teacher–students negotiated interaction affects the students’ grammar competence and classroom participation. It begins by establishing the philosophical stance (paradigm) of the research and research design, followed by participant profiles, data collection instruments, data gathering procedures, data analysis techniques, and the results of the pilot study. In addition, it addresses information on ethical issues and data quality assurance techniques, including the validity and reliability of data collection instruments.

3.1. Philosophical paradigms of the study

Pragmatism is used as the philosophical paradigm of this study. Kaushik and Walsh (2019) suggested that pragmatism is a research paradigm that emphasizes the practical consequences and utility of knowledge. Hence, it prioritizes the understanding and solving of real-world problems rather than purely theoretical or abstract pursuits. For the pragmatist researcher, knowledge should be useful, practical, and applicable to everyday life.

The pragmatic research philosophy encourages a flexible and open-ended approach, where multiple research methods and techniques can be employed to address a research problem. Many pragmatic researchers often advocate for mixed methods, combining quantitative and qualitative approaches, to obtain a comprehensive understanding of a research topic (King, 2022).

Pragmatism also emphasizes the importance of context and considers the social, cultural, and historical factors that influence research. It recognizes that knowledge is situated and subject to interpretation and therefore involves active engagement with the research participants and stakeholders. Pragmatism has three foundations i.e. ontological, epistemological, and axiological foundations that assist researchers in several ways (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

Pragmatism's ontological perspective acknowledges the reality of multiple perspectives and contexts. Researchers can benefit from this perspective of pragmatism by understanding that reality is not fixed and absolute but rather subjective and dependent upon individual experiences. By recognizing this, researchers can approach their studies with more intellectual flexibility, considering diverse viewpoints and interpretations.

Epistemological stance emphasizes the importance of practical knowledge and learning through experience. Researchers can utilize this paradigm by adopting a more hands-on and experimental approach to their investigations. Rather than solely relying on theoretical frameworks, they can engage in empirical observations, data collection, and active learning, leading to a more comprehensive understanding of their research topics.

Axiological framework of pragmatism emphasizes the significance of values and ethics in research. Researchers can benefit from this paradigm by considering the societal impact and ethical implications of their studies. This helps ensure that research findings are conducted responsibly, respecting ethical guidelines and the well-being of individuals involved. Additionally, researchers can use this paradigm to challenge and critically evaluate existing value systems, leading to more inclusive and socially beneficial research outcomes.

Therefore, this study is based on a pragmatic worldview because it gives the researcher a chance to see how classroom conversational interaction, i.e., learning the target grammar elements by using them for contextual classroom communication, helps students to learn grammar. Pragmatism also encourages the researcher to use flexible approaches (mixed methods) to acquire a comprehensible understanding of how teacher-students classroom interaction, as a social institution, affects EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation.

3.2. The design of the study

In the current study, a quasi-experiment was designed and conducted to investigate the effects TSNI on EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation. The experimental group received TSNI, and the comparison group received the conventional (teacher-led) approach to learning grammar. A quasi-experimental design was employed because the existence of intact classes and lack of random assignment enforced to use this type of research design.

The study employed a mixed-methods research approach, which is a comprehensive research strategy that combines both quantitative and qualitative methods to gather and analyse data. A mixed-methods research approach is pivotal to validate the findings of the study through triangulation and to gain a holistic understanding of the problem by integrating the findings of

quantitative and qualitative data. This method is grounded in the situationalist perspective that each method is useful in a specific situation or phase of the research process (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Hence, this approach is orchestrated to provide a more balanced and holistic understanding of the research problem of this study.

Quantitative methods involve the collection and analysis of numerical data. These methods typically rely on structured questionnaires, surveys, experiments, or statistical analysis to measure variables or test hypotheses. They generate statistical patterns, trends, and generalizations (Creswell, 2014). On the other hand, qualitative methods focus on collecting non-numerical data, such as interviews and open-ended survey responses. These methods aim to gain in-depth insights into experiences, perceptions, meanings, and social processes. Qualitative data can be analyzed through thematic analysis, content analysis, narrative, and discourse analysis.

By combining quantitative and qualitative methods, a mixed-method research can overcome the inherent shortcomings of each approach alone. It enables researchers to investigate complex research questions, capture diverse perspectives, and generate more comprehensive insights (Dornyei, 2007). It also enhances the validity and reliability of findings through data triangulation. Additionally, it promotes a more inclusive approach by incorporating both numerical evidence and subjective experiences.

3.3. The participants

This study targeted grade 10 students at Hailemariam Mamo Secondary School in Debre Berhan Town, Ethiopia. The school was selected due to its proximity to the place where the researcher lived. In that governmental school, there were a total of 402 grade 10 students with 8 sections. To select participants for the study, a proficiency test was administered to the population. Accordingly, 83 students who had similar scores in the proficiency test (sections ‘C’ and ‘E’) were selected as participants of the study. From the two sections, section ‘C’, with 42 students, was taken as the experimental group, and section ‘E’, with 41 students, as the comparison group. Of the total participants of the study, 43 were females and 40 were males. All participants were from the same L1 background, Amharic Language. Their ages ranged from 17 to 19 years.

To evaluate the participants' competence in the target grammar elements both before and after the treatment, four written testing measures (a pretest, a posttest and two delayed posttests) were used in the study. The pretest and posttests had similar formats and involved tasks on multiple choice, grammaticality judgment, gap filling, completion, sentence transformation, and story writing that aimed to measure the students' understanding and use of past tense forms and passive voice.

The course was delivered by the same teacher (experimenter) to both the experimental and comparison groups. Using a single teacher to give the course to both experimental and comparison group students avoids effects resulting from differences in teaching style. The experimenter has a master's degree in TEFL with 25 years of teaching experience. He was trained for two weeks on how to use the intervention material, especially to enhance input orally, encourage the students' language production and self-correction, and provide implicit corrective feedback for the students for. However, for the comparison group, the experimenter used a textbook as teaching material and taught with the conventional (teacher-led) approach.

3.4. Data gathering tools

The study gathered relevant data through tests, questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observation. The rationale for selecting these methods is explained below.

3.4.1. Tests

Tests can be defined as data-gathering tools that are used to analyze and evaluate the competence, performance, and functionality of somebody or something (Dornyei, 2007). A good test as a data-gathering tool has a number of qualities. The basic qualities of a good test are reliability, validity, objectivity, standardization, and practicality (Colton & Covert, 2007).

Accordingly, a good test should yield consistent results upon repeated administration thereby ensuring accurate and reliable data. A valid test should also assess the specific constructs it intended to evaluate and should also be free from subjective bias or personal judgments (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). Moreover, tests should have clear instructions and criteria for scoring or evaluation. Furthermore, to maintain consistency, a good test should have standardized procedures for administration and scoring. Finally, the test should be practical in

terms of its administration, time requirement, and cost (Alderson & Banerjee, 2002). It should be manageable for both administrators and test-takers.

Therefore, this study employed tests to assess the students' competence in past tenses and passive voice. Three types of tests were administered to the participants: a pre-test and a post-test and two delayed post-tests. A pre-test was administered before the intervention, and post-tests were administered after the intervention. To evaluate the effects of the intervention, the researcher compared the participants' pre-test and post-test results.

The question items for the past tense comprised grammaticality judgment, gap filling, completion, and writing tasks. For the passive voice, multiple choice, grammaticality judgment, sentence transformation, and gap filling were used. Each section of the tests was rated out of twenty-five points, yielding a total possible score of one hundred.

3.4.2. Questionnaire

Questionnaires are frequently used as data-gathering tools in applied linguistics research (Dornyei, 2007). They are defined as structured sets of questions designed to collect information from participants for the purpose of studying language-related phenomena (Creswell & Clark, 2018). Moreover, the questionnaire enables researchers to gather data from a relatively larger number of research participants. Accordingly, in this study, a questionnaire consisting of 14 items was used to collect data about the participants' perceptions towards teacher-students negotiated interaction to learn grammar. This helped the researcher in understanding whether the approach used in grammar teaching was perceived positively by the participants.

The 14 closed-ended questions were presented in the form of Likert scales involving statements for the participants to tick the given choices. These questions were answered on a scale of 5 to 1 points to assess perceptions of the participants about TSNI in grammar classes. The five points on the scale were 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=undecided, 2=disagree, and 1=strongly disagree. In preparing the questionnaire, the researcher considered the desired goal of the study, the existing related literature, and ethical issues. It implies that the researcher considered the key notions of the interactional approach while preparing the questionnaire for the participants of the study.

3.4.3. Interview

A semi-structured interview was conducted in the current study to facilitate an in-depth investigation of the students' perceptions and verify the data gathered through the questionnaire. An interview is a data-gathering tool that is used in conducting research to gather in-depth and qualitative information from participants (Creswell et al., 2018). It involves a conversation between the researcher and the participants, where questions are asked to explore a specific research topic or gather insights on a particular subject. Therefore, in this study, the interview questions were designed to collect in-depth information from the students about their perceptions towards TSNI to learn grammar and the challenges the students faced during the intervention.

According to Dornyei (2007), using interviews in research has much importance. Interviews allow researchers to obtain detailed and comprehensive information from participants and provide the opportunity to gather data within the context in which the participants operate. In addition, interviews offer flexibility in adapting the questions based on the participants' responses or probing into specific areas of interest. Interviews also enable researchers to clarify any ambiguous or unclear responses. Furthermore, an interview fosters active engagement of participants in the details of the research process.

Therefore, in the current study, the researcher selected six (three male and three female) volunteer interviewees from the experimental group and posed seven interview questions for each of them. The interview questions were prepared based on the existing pertinent literature on the way they can elicit the required data. The questions were written in English first but translated into the interviewees' first language (Amharic) for the sake of data quality. These questions have been intended to find out basic information for the research objectives by eliciting the students' perspectives. A 15- to 30-minute interview was carried out with each of the selected students. During the interview, the participants' responses were tape-recorded to retain every important detail of the interview, with consideration of ethical issues.

3.4.4. Classroom observation

Classroom observation is a data-gathering method that is commonly used in education to assess and collect information about teaching and learning activities within a classroom setting. In the current study, the classroom observation aimed to observe the actual classroom practices

in relation to the students' participation in the interactional grammar learning. The observation took three consecutive weeks in order to see the progress of the students' classroom participation from one week to the next.

Nonparticipant observation, watching and recording activities in a classroom without actively taking part in the teaching-learning process, was employed to collect observational data in the study. The primary goal was to gather objective data on classroom dynamics, teaching practices, student engagement, and interactions without the observer's involvement altering the situation (Creswell & Clark, 2018).

Five basic techniques of negotiation were adopted as aspects of the students' classroom participation in TSNI in this study. These are: comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, appeals for help, and repetition (Long, 2000). Hence, any instance of the students' participation could be categorized under one of these negotiation techniques.

Comprehension checks are questions aimed at assessing the students' understanding of the lesson. Thus, the frequency of the students' responses to the teacher's questions for the comprehension check was observed and recorded in the observational checklist. On the other hand, clarification requests are students' appeals for clarification of the teacher's utterance. Confirmation checks are students' attempts to verify their understanding of the preceding utterance. Meanwhile, appeals for help are questions from students to get assistance from the teacher. The last type of negotiation technique is repetition. It captures the students' involvement in repeating what is said before. Therefore, the students' classroom participation was seen from the perspective of the progresses of the frequencies from one week to the next in using the five techniques of negotiation in the grammar classes.

Observational checklists and audio recordings were employed as data collection tools for the classroom observation. Analyzing research data collected through audio recordings and an observational checklist in the classroom involves systematic examination and interpretation of the collected information (Dornyei, 2007). The checklist was designed to encompass the five techniques of negotiation and the frequency of the students' involvement in each technique across the three sessions (weeks) of classroom observation.

The observation period was divided into three sessions, with each session comprising one week. In each week, three hours of classroom observation were conducted, 45 minutes in each lesson for four days per week. A total of twelve lessons, totaling nine hours, were observed to examine the students' classroom participation in learning the target grammar elements through teacher-student negotiated interaction.

Then the data collected by classroom observation was processed through basic descriptive statistics and classroom discourse analysis. After that, it was analyzed in terms of changes that students demonstrated in the five techniques of classroom negotiation from one session to another and was also visualized through pie charts and a graph. As stated before, supplementary audio recordings were made to capture the details of the students' classroom participation in the interactional grammar learning. Subsequently, the data from audio recordings were analyzed through classroom discourse analysis.

3.5. Procedures of data collection

After deciding on a suitable study location (school) and securing informed consent from the institution via an official letter from Bahir Dar University, the data-gathering process was initiated. Then, the researcher obtained consent from the study participants and selected them based on that consent. A pretest was administered following the required orientation to assess the participants' competence on past tenses and passive voice. This was followed by the intervention that was implemented for eight weeks. During that time, classroom observation was conducted for twelve days to monitor the students' participation in the teaching–learning process.

After the intervention, an immediate posttest was administered to assess and compare the grammatical competence of the experimental and the comparison groups on the target grammatical elements. Then, the two delayed post-tests were administered within a two-week interval to measure the effects of teacher-student negotiated interaction on the students' acquisition of the target grammar elements. After that, the questionnaire was distributed, and finally, the interviews were conducted in the students' first language (Amharic).

3.6. Data analysis techniques

Cognizant that the pragmatic paradigm guides this study, mixed methods data analysis was employed. Accordingly, both quantitative and qualitative techniques were used to analyze

the collected data. This process involved preparing the data, examining it, and then analyzing, summarizing, and interpreting the findings. Before analyzing the quantitative data, the researcher selected an appropriate statistical program and prepared the data for analysis, as using such tools is critical for the quality of research findings (Cohen & Lea, 2004).

To process the quantitative data of the study, the researcher first coded every student's test score, questionnaire responses, and frequencies of the students' classroom participation. Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were employed to interpret the data obtained from the tests and the questionnaire. The specific methods used in the study include means, standard deviations, one-sample t-test analysis, and independent samples t-test analysis. The one-sample t-test was employed to compare the mean score variation of the participants' perception with the already hypothesized mean value in the questionnaire. On the other hand, the independent sample t-test was performed to examine if there were any significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental and the comparison groups in the pretest and immediate posttest.

To measure and compare the participants' mean scores across time, a repeated measures ANOVA was employed. This statistical method is appropriate for studies involving data collection at multiple time points to assess systematic change (Cohen & Lea, 2004). Consequently, in this study, the repeated measures ANOVA enabled the researcher to quantify the consistent effect of teacher-student negotiated interaction on the students' grammatical competence over time. In the same way, the mean scores of the tests were compared using one-way repeated measures ANOVA.

Multiple pairwise comparisons of means (comparing the mean scores of the experimental group on the four tests), tests of between-subjects effects (comparing the mean scores of the two groups on the three posttests), and Mauchly's test of sphericity (evaluating the assumption of sphericity for the experimental group's scores across the three posttests) are the repeated measures ANOVA features that were used for data analysis in the study.

To analyse the data obtained from the questionnaire results, a one-sample t-test was employed to determine the statistical difference between the mean score of the experimental

group and the predetermined mean score. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was used to conduct the descriptive and inferential statistical operations in the study.

Thematic analysis was employed to analyse and interpret the data that was collected from semi-structured interviews. In the process of the analysis, the potential themes were identified and the researcher familiarized himself with the overall content of the data after reading and making sense of it. Next to this, the data was analysed and narrated in relation to the existing related literature.

Checklists that contain frequencies of negotiation techniques and audio recordings were used to collect observational data. The data gathered through classroom observation, by using checklists, was analyzed with descriptive statistics and visualized through pie charts and graphs to show the trend of each behavior across observation sessions, and the interpretation was added about the participants' involvement in each behavior.

The students' classroom participation was observed using five techniques of negotiation as aspects of classroom participation. These techniques of negotiation were comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, appeals for help, and repetition. The classroom observation was divided into three sessions, each containing four observations, and a total of 12 lessons were observed to gather observational data. Therefore, the data were recorded through a rating scale checklist. In the rating scale, a sequence of numbers was assigned to descriptive negotiation techniques, indicating the frequency of students' classroom participation. Therefore, the frequencies of the students' classroom participation manifested by using the five techniques of negotiation were quantified and analyzed through descriptive statistics. Meanwhile, observational data collected with audio recordings were examined through the classroom discourse analysis method.

3.7. Reliability and validity of the instruments

Maintaining the reliability and validity of data collection instruments is crucial to ensure that the data collected accurately reflects the phenomenon under investigation (Creswell, 2014). The researcher established inter-rater reliability to evaluate the assessment tool. The main purpose of inter-rater reliability in this study was to evaluate the consistency or agreement between the raters when they were assessing the same constructs. Hence, the researcher prepared

distinct tests focusing on past tenses and passive voice and verified the reliability of the tests before the study was carried out.

To this end, two raters who had master's degrees in TEFL and over 20 years of teaching experience were provided clear guidelines to ensure shared understandings of the rating criteria. Subsequently, each of the tests was administered to 20 students within a one-week interval who were not part of the main study and were not exposed to the target grammar. There were consistent test administration procedures for all tests. Although there were different contents, there were similar instructions in each test.

The Cronbach's alpha test of inter-rater reliability on past tense (for test 1, $\alpha = 0.901$; for test 2, $\alpha = 0.898$; for test 3, $\alpha = 0.888$; and for test 4, $\alpha = 0.817$) indicates that there was no significant difference between the test results, and hence, the tests were considered reliable. The Cronbach's alpha test of inter-rater reliability results on passive voice (for test 1, $\alpha = 0.821$; for test 2, $\alpha = 0.833$; for test 3, $\alpha = 0.816$; and for test 4, $\alpha = 0.843$) also showed that the tests were reliable.

To establish the validity of the tests, the questionnaire, and the interview, two experts in TEFL were invited to review and revise test contents, and their feedback was incorporated to enhance the tests' validity. The criteria for classroom participation – techniques of negotiation – that were integrated into the observational checklist were derived from Long's (2016) strategies of negotiated interaction in grammar classes.

After a pilot test, the researcher asked participants if the items were clear, relevant, and representative of the target grammatical elements. Based on their input, some items were refined to be clearer and more precise. For example, two participants noted the omission of the 'past perfect continuous tense' in the exam. Hence, based on the feedback, the researcher included this tense in the main study. In addition, the correlation coefficient was used to assess how strongly the tests were correlated. In this instance, all of the tests were administered to 28 students who were not part of the main study to determine the strength of the relationship. The tests were given within a one-week interval to the students. The following correlation tables display the results:

Table 1: Correlation of tests on past tenses

	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4
Test 1	1			
Test 2	0.84**	1		
Test 3	0.822**	0.855**	1	
Test 4	0.912**	0.863**	0.887**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The results presented in Tables 1 demonstrate that there was a significant ($p < 0.01$) relationship between the tests for each grammatical item. This shows that due to strong correlation between the tests, they were regarded as having an equal difficulty level

Table 2: Correlation of tests on passive voice

	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4
Test 1	1			
Test 2	0.822**	1		
Test 3	0.807**	0.852**	1	
Test 4	0.872**	0.831**	0.912	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results presented in Table 2 demonstrate that there was a significant ($p < 0.01$) relationship between the tests for each grammatical item. Put another way, because of their strong correlation, the tests were regarded as having an equal difficulty level. Using the internal consistency approach (Cronbach's alpha), the questionnaire's reliability was also assessed. The result ($\alpha = .842$) indicated that the items in the questionnaire prepared to investigate students' perceptions towards teacher-student negotiated interaction measure the same underlying construct, which implies that the questionnaire was reliable.

Expert and colleague comments were also used to verify the face and content validity of the tests, the questionnaire and the interview questions, and the schemes in the observational

checklist. In addition, the researcher referred to the existing literature, like Alderson and Hughes (1981), Alderson and Banerjee (2002), and Fulcher and Davidson (2007), which focus on language testing and assessment, to maintain the validity of the tests. Furthermore, implementing consistent administration and scoring protocols is preferable to minimize potential sources of bias or error (Khatun, 2021). Hence, the researcher implemented consistent administration and scoring procedures using trained examiners and a standardized environment to establish the validity of the tests.

The experimenter also used different classroom techniques for encouraging and motivating students in the classroom in order to make classroom tasks relevant to the interactional approach. For instance, the teacher praised students for their participation, used grammar topics and examples that are relevant to the students' interests and daily lives, and allowed students to apply the target grammatical elements in a more natural and interactive setting. This was done because negotiated interaction needs students' active participation in the classroom.

3.8. The pilot study

Making a pilot study as a preliminary step before the main study is undertaken is vital in the research process for several reasons (Dornyei, 2007). It helps to assess the feasibility of the research design, methods, procedures, and any potentially arising problems during the study. In addition, it enables the researcher to determine if his/her proposed study can be implemented successfully and if any modifications are required to ensure its smooth implementation. It is also helpful to provide an opportunity to test and refine research tools and experimental procedures. Therefore, the researcher of this study was able to assess the clarity, reliability, validity, and effectiveness of the tools by making necessary modifications for optimum results.

Furthermore, the pilot study provided insights into the time, effort, and resources required for the actual research. It helped the researcher update the process, identify potential bottlenecks, and allocate resources effectively to avoid unnecessary delays or errors. Finally, the pilot study enhanced data analysis by helping the researcher identify potential challenges in data collection, organization, and analysis. Thus, the result of the pilot study is presented in the following sections

The researcher used a mixed-methods research approach in the pilot study. Hailemariam Mamo Secondary School in Debre Berhan Town, Ethiopia, was selected for the pilot study. There were 8 sections of grade 10 students in the school. Among the 8 sections, two sections, one as an experimental group and the other as a comparison group, were selected for the pilot study. The total number of participants in the pilot study was 83, out of which 42 students were taken as the experimental group and 41 students as the comparison group.

The pilot study was conducted over a period of three weeks, i.e., from 1 April 2024 to 23 April 2024, with three hours per week. In the process, section 'C', which was assigned as an experimental group, was taught past tenses and passive voice through teacher-student negotiated interaction, and section 'E', which was assigned as a comparison group, was taught the same grammar elements through the conventional (teacher-led) approach.

Conducting the pilot study aided the researcher in knowing the feasibility of the proposed research design, methodology, and data collection procedure. The pilot study also provided an opportunity for the researcher to test and refine research instruments, i.e., tests, questionnaires, interviews, and observation checklists. In the course of this, some tests and questionnaires that were ambiguous to understand were refined and written clearly for the main study. In addition, some irrelevant content in both the tests and the questionnaire was omitted. Furthermore, the pilot study facilitated the main study by letting the researcher know the setting, the target population, and cultural and contextual factors that may influence the main study.

Modifications were also performed on the teaching material in the pilot study. Some topics, contents, and tasks in the teaching material were not relevant to teaching grammar interactively and contextually. Hence, the researcher modified the teaching material in a way that gives an opportunity to students to negotiate with their teacher to learn grammar by using it in a meaningful context.

The researcher oriented the teacher, who conducted a pilot study about the nature of learning grammar through negotiated interaction. After the researcher trained the teacher on how to teach grammar through teacher-student negotiated interaction, the teacher tried to implement conversational (negotiated) interaction in teaching grammar in a good manner.

The results of the pilot study, along with the knowledge and insights gained from it, served as the foundation for the main study. Hence, the intervention and data collection for the main study were conducted from May 01, 2024, to June 30, 2024.

3.8.1. The findings of the pilot study

The results of the tests, questionnaire, interview, and classroom observation in the pilot study are briefly summarized in this subsection.

3.8.1.1. The pre-intervention results

To determine if all participants were equally proficient in the target grammatical features from the outset, a pretest was given before the pilot study's intervention. The findings are shown in the table that follows.

Table 3: The independent samples t-test pretest results

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Experimental	42	37.0238	3.19671	.793	81	.430
Comparison	41	36.4146	3.78798			

Table 3 shows a comparison of the pre-test score results of the experimental and comparison groups regarding their grammatical competence. The table displays that although the mean score of the experimental group ($M = 37.0238$, $SD = 3.6771$) was slightly greater than the mean score of the comparison group ($M = 36.4146$, $SD = 3.78798$), the independent sample test results showed no statistically significant difference between the two groups ($t = .793$, $df = 81$, $P > 0.05$). Thus, the two groups had almost similar grammatical competence in past tense forms and passive voice before the intervention, indicating that the students had similar grammatical competence before the intervention.

3.8.1.2. The post-intervention results

So as to examine if there was any statistical difference between the mean scores of two groups, the experimental and comparison groups were given a posttest after the intervention had been given for three weeks. The findings are displayed as follows:

Table 4: The independent samples t-test posttest results

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Experimental	42	55.1905	2.94037	6.71	81	.000
Comparison	41	50.9024	2.88795			

Table 4 shows the posttest results of the experimental and comparison groups. It was evident, therefore, that the mean score of the experimental group ($M = 55.1905$, $SD = 2.94037$) was significantly higher than the mean score of the comparison group ($M = 50.9024$, $SD = 2.88795$). Hence, the independent sample t-test revealed that the experimental group participants' competence in the target grammar elements was significantly higher than the comparison group participants' competence in the same grammatical elements after the intervention.

3.8.1.3. Results obtained from questionnaire, interviews and observation

Questionnaires and interviews were employed in order to investigate the perceptions of the experimental group students on grammar learning through teacher-student negotiated interaction. In addition, the experimental group members' real involvement in the classroom and their application of interactional modification techniques were evaluated through classroom observation. The results obtained from these data-gathering instruments are clearly displayed below.

Table 5: The descriptive statistics results of the questionnaire

One- Sample statistics						
	N	Mini	Max	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
Perception score	40	2.76	4.12	3.4234	.48773	.03126

Table 5 shows that the mean and standard deviation scores for the experimental group participants in the pilot study were 3.4234 and .03126, respectively. It appears that the participants' mean score (3.4234) was greater than the population mean, the average value of the responses from the entire population (i.e., 3.00) that was predicted. A one-sample t-test was run to see if there was a statistically significant difference between the hypothesized mean and the sample mean observed. The findings are shown below.

Table 6: The one sample t-test results of the questionnaire

One-Sample Test						
Test Value = 3						
	T	Df	Sig. (2tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Perception score	7.896	41	.000	.41352	.31324	.59182

As demonstrated in Table 6, there was a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) difference between the perception score ($t(41) = 7.896$, $p = 0.000$, and $MD = 0.41352$) and the predicted mean score (3.00). Hence, it may be possible to conclude that the perceptions of experimental group participants about learning grammar through teacher-student negotiated interaction were positive.

Based on data collected from semi-structured interviews and classroom observations, the students expressed that they were satisfied with the way they were able to learn grammar through teacher-student negotiated interaction. They stated that, as EFL learners, this method allowed them to experience learning grammar through practical application, which helped them recognise the form, meaning, and function of the target grammar elements. They also mentioned that the approach helped them to receive more varied and regular feedback in addition to immediate, in-person feedback from the teacher. Additionally, they noted that they had adequate opportunity to modify their own errors through teacher-student negotiation interactions.

They also said that they were happy in the classroom because they were learning grammar by using it for actual conversation. They felt that when the teacher pushed them to produce language using the target grammar elements, it enabled them to think and speak correctly, and this situation assisted them in processing the target grammar elements better than they were taught with the conventional teaching method they were familiar with earlier.

The data collected from classroom observations in four lessons also indicated significant progress in the students' participation from the first day to the next days, showing their involvement in participating in grammar classes, as evidenced by their increasing use of interactional modification techniques such as clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks, appeals for help, and repetition from one lesson to the next.

3. 9. Ethical considerations

The research was undertaken in a manner that respected the ethical principles involved in conducting research. This is because adhering to ethical principles is beneficial in order to protect the dignity, rights, and welfare of research participants (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Hence, informed consent, fair selection of research participants, social responsibility, and respect for intellectual property are the basic ethical principles that the researcher tried to address in doing the research.

Therefore, the researcher informed the participants about the goals, methods, possible dangers, and advantages of taking part in the research. Hence, participants could then freely agree to take part in the study. This means they had the capacity to understand the information provided and made a voluntary decision without pressure from the researcher or anyone else.

Informed consent ensures that participants can make an informed choice about whether to participate (Dornyei, 2007). In addition, the researcher tried to keep social responsibility by considering the advantages of grammatical competence and learning grammar communicatively for EFL students' academic communication. The last but very important part of research ethics considered in the study is respecting intellectual property. Hence, the researcher cited and credited all sources of information, ideas, and prior works used as references to do the research.

3.10. The intervention material

The researcher attempted to combine fundamental ideas of grammar acquisition through TSNI and classroom tasks in the preparation of the intervention materials. The focus of the intervention was to teach grammar by integrating form and meaning. This study employed picture-based storytelling and information-gap tasks as its task types, which could create exposure to learn the target grammar elements communicatively.

The intervention material emphasized the presence of contexts for target structures and opportunities for interactional modifications. The tasks were designed to give opportunities to students to use the target grammar elements for classroom conversation with a teacher to learn grammar better. Several works, including Long (1992), Whong (2008), Kumaravadivelu (2006), Nassaji and Fotos (2011), S. Gass et al. (2011), Gurzynski-Weiss (2014), and Wang and Castro (2010), were referred to by the researcher at the time of developing the intervention material. Hence, the material was adapted from different sources, like those mentioned above.

Experienced English language teachers were invited to check the tasks in the material to ensure that the language used in the tasks was at an appropriate level for the participants of the study. The topics and tasks of the intervention material were supposed to be relevant and contextual to students' backgrounds and daily lives. The material was also prepared to create an environment in which students can get interactionally modified input and allow students to modify their output and other students' output. Furthermore, the intervention material was prepared in a way that students could get interactional feedback and scaffolding from the teacher.

The content of the material is organized into an introduction, learning objectives, classroom tasks, and exercises related to past tenses and passive voice. The researcher thought about whether the contents of the material could be addressed in the allotted intervention time

while preparing it. Some modifications were made to the material based on the feedback from advisers and colleagues, as well as the results of the pilot study.

3.11. Procedures of the intervention

The intervention of the study was started after the researcher obtained the necessary permissions and approval from the school administration. But before that, the researcher developed intervention material for the experimental group based on the notions of teacher-students negotiated interaction in teaching grammar. However, the comparison group students were taught with grade ten textbooks. Before starting to conduct the research, the researcher obtained consent from participants to participate in the study and collected data about students' academic performance by giving pre-intervention tests.

Then the researcher started giving an intervention by clearly defining the objectives of the course for both experimental and comparison groups according to the materials of each group. Hence, the experimental group participants were taught past tenses and passive voice via teacher-student negotiated interaction, and the comparison group students were taught the same grammatical elements through the conventional (teacher-led) method.

The intervention was given for 45 minutes in one period for four classes in a week, totaling 24 hours in 8 weeks. In doing so, every student received a picture-based story and information-gap tasks showing different actions in it, and to start the negotiation, the teacher took the initiative by asking students to tell him what happened in the story. Sometimes, the teacher told students the first action of the picture and asked them to tell him the next action in the form of an information-gap task.

Pictures that show a sequence of events or a short narrative were used as classroom tasks. Hence, to begin the class, the teacher asked the students to tell him a story based on the picture given to them. When the students omitted past tenses, used incorrect forms of past tenses and passive voice, or did not understand the actual verb used in the classroom conversation, the teacher gave implicit corrective feedback in the form of a clarification request. The negotiation continues by using techniques of negotiation (clarification request, confirmation check, comprehension check, recast, and repetition) until both the teacher and students reach a common understanding.

The teacher who taught the experimental group encouraged the students to participate in the class. When the students raised clarification questions, the teacher simplified the linguistic input through grammatical restructuring or repetition. In addition, the teacher provided opportunities for the students and pushed them to modify their output and other students. Thus, students were able to practice the target linguistic forms syntactically and test their hypothesis on how to use the target grammar elements for communication.

In the process, when the students couldn't modify their speech, the teacher gave implicit interactional feedback to the students. Therefore, they could get interactionally modified input from their teacher and output from themselves. Since grammar was taught through negotiated interaction, the students may not have paid attention to the target grammar elements. However, the teacher drew the students' attention towards the target grammar elements through oral input enhancement techniques like intonation, stress, and pronunciation.

The comparison group students were taught the target grammar elements by using grade ten English textbooks through the conventional (teacher-led) approach. The students were forced to listen to and take notes from the teacher. After that, the students were given grammar-practicing tasks to complete, including matching, completion exercises, sentence composing, and the like. After evaluating the students' work, the experimenter gave them written, verbal, and explicit corrective feedback.

During the intervention, the researcher ensured the similarities of the teaching-learning facilities, like seating arrangements, visual aids of the blackboard, and classroom environment in terms of lighting, between the two groups. Hence, the only difference between the two groups was an instructional approach to teaching grammar. During the teaching-learning process, the researcher performed classroom observation for three weeks to see how the experimental group students were interacting with the teacher in grammar classes. After the intervention was completed, the researcher gave a post-test and two delayed post-tests. After that, the students' perceptions towards TSNI in grammar classes were gathered via a questionnaire and interview.

Chapter Four: Data Presentation and Analysis

4.1. Introduction

As mentioned in the preceding chapters, this study investigates teacher–student negotiated interaction and its effects on EFL students’ grammar competence and classroom participation. Thus, this chapter presents the results of the study based on the data collected through tests, questionnaires, classroom observation and interviews. In the process of data presentation and analysis, the findings of the study are followed by the analysis and discussion in relation to the research questions and relevant literature. To this end, it first deals with the quantitative data, which will later be supported by the qualitative data interpretations.

A detail analysis is made to see how teacher–student negotiated interaction affects EFL students’ grammar competence and classroom participation. Additionally, it looks at whether the interactional approach may have long-lasting effects on the students’ grammar competence. The effectiveness of the approach is appraised by contrasting its outcome with that of the conventional (teacher-led) approach. Furthermore, the experimental group's classroom participation and perceptions towards grammar learning through teacher-student negotiations are going to be analyzed.

4.2. Comparisons of pretest results on past tense forms

Both the experimental and comparison group students were given a pre-test, and the results were analysed through an independent sample t-test. The test focused on identifying grammatically incorrect sentences and correcting them, filling gaps by using appropriate forms of verbs given in brackets, completing dialogues about past events, and writing a story. The results are presented in the following table.

Table 7: Independent samples t-test of the pre-test results on past tenses

Grammar	Question	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Past Tenses	Grammaticality	Experimental	42	11.4146	2.26909	0.506	81	0.614
	Judgment	Comparison	41	11.6905	2.67316			
	Gap filling	Experimental	42	9.0000	2.43951	-0.882	81	0.381
		Comparison	41	9.4634	2.34625			
	Completion	Experimental	42	8.7619	2.05782	0.920	81	0.360
		Comparison	41	8.3659	1.85413			
	Writing	Experimental	42	7.4048	2.08431	0.597		0.552
		Comparison	41	7.1463	1.85150			

As can be seen in Table 7 above, four aspects of questions (grammaticality judgment, gap filling, completion, and writing), each rated out of 25, were used to measure the students' competence in past tenses. Although there was a slight difference between the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups in each task, the two groups obtained almost similar scores in the pretest. Hence, there was no significant difference in their competence in past tenses between the two groups before the intervention was made. However, as shown in the table, the comparison group scored slightly higher than the experimental group in grammaticality judgment (11.6905) and gap-filling (9.4634) tasks.

On the other hand, the experimental group scored a little bit higher than the comparison group in completion (8.7619) and writing (7.4048) questions. The experimental group scored better in grammaticality judgment questions (11.4146) than in other types of questions on past tense forms in the pretest. But the experimental group scored less in writing (7.4048). Like the experimental group, the comparison group scored better in grammaticality judgment (11.6905) questions and less in writing (7.1463) questions about past tense forms in the pretest. However, generally, as indicated in Table 7, the p-value in each task is greater than 0.05, indicating that there was no significant difference between the two groups' pretest results. This means that the

experimental and comparison groups had similar competence in past tense forms before the intervention was made.

The summary of the pretest scores is essential to see how the two groups are in their competence in past tense forms before the intervention was made. Thus, the summary of an independent sample t-test was performed, and the table below indicates the results of this statistical analysis.

Table 8: Summary of the pretest results on past tenses

Grammar	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Past	Experimental	42	36.5813	5.98657	0.575	81	0.567
tenses	Comparison	41	36.6661	5.61136			

The overall scores of the participants, as indicated in Table 8, show the comparison of descriptive statistics and the independent samples t-test of the pre-test results of the mean scores of the two groups on past tenses. As indicated in the table, the mean score of the experimental group is 36.5813, and the mean score of the comparison group is 36.6661. The standard deviations of the experimental group and the comparison group are calculated as 5.98657 and 5.61136, respectively, for the pre-test. Thus, the result of the table shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the control group and the experimental group ($t = 0.575$, $df = 8$, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that students in both groups have the same competence in past tenses before the intervention. The comparison of the two groups' scores was also made in the post-test.

4.3. Comparisons of posttest results on past tense forms

The analyses of the posttest scores of both the experimental and comparison groups on their competence in the past tense are presented in this section of the study. Thus, after the intervention, students were given the same tasks (grammaticality judgment, gap filling, completion, and writing) as in the pretest to measure students' competence in past tense forms. To this end, an independent samples t-test was used to examine if there existed a significant

difference between the two groups in their competence in past tenses. The following table shows the results of the posttest scores of the two groups.

Table 9: Independent samples t-test of the posttest results of past tenses

Grammar	Question	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Past Tenses	Grammaticality	Experimental	42	19.8571	2.39483	11.533	81	0.000
	Judgment	Comparison	41	14.6341	1.65463			
	Gap filling	Experimental	42	15.6429	2.17325	8.163	81	0.000
		Comparison	41	12.3415	1.42495			
	Completion	Experimental	42	15.1667	1.69528	10.288	81	0.000
		Comparison	41	11.6829	1.36819			
	Writing	Experimental	42	14.2143	2.31154	6.504	81	0.000
		Comparison	41	11.4878	1.38061			

As can be seen in Table 9, the experimental and the comparison groups were compared based on their posttest scores in past tense forms. Accordingly, the experimental groups' scores in each of the four tasks were higher than the comparison groups' scores. As can be seen from the table, the posttest scores of the experimental group (grammaticality judgment = 19.8571, gap filling = 15.6429, completion = 15.1667, and writing = 14.2143) were significantly higher than the posttest scores of the comparison group (grammaticality judgment = 14.6341, gap filling = 12.3415, completion = 11.6829, and writing = 11.4878). Therefore, the independent samples t-test of Table 9 shows that there was a substantial difference between the scores of the experimental and comparison group students. Thus, it could be understood that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group in the test scores of past tenses after the intervention. The summary of an independent sample t-test was also run, and the results of this statistical analysis are presented below.

Table 10: Summary of the posttest results on past tenses

Grammar	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Past tenses	Experimental	42	64.8333	4.87861	14.875	81	0.000
	Comparison	41	50.0732	4.11941			

The above table depicts the comparison of the experimental and comparison groups' overall results of posttest results in the past tense. As demonstrated in Table 10, the posttest scores of the experimental group in past tense forms were found to be significantly higher than those of the comparison group. The comparison of the posttest results of the two groups indicates that the experimental group's mean score was found to be 64.8333, and the comparison group's mean score was 50.0732, with 4.87861 and 4.11941 SD values, respectively. Hence, the summary of the independent samples t-test reveals that the students in the experimental group significantly exceeded the students in the comparison group in the overall competence in the target grammar elements.

Generally, the post-test results show that teacher-students negotiated interaction as an intervention to teaching grammar was considerably effective in improving students' competence in past tense forms. Hence, teaching past tenses through teacher-students negotiated interaction was proven to be more effective than teaching these grammatical elements through the conventional (teacher-led) method.

4.4. Comparisons of pretest results on passive voice

The second target grammar element in this study was passive voice. Hence, like past tenses, descriptive statistics and independent sample t-test were computed to know and compare the scores of the experimental and comparison group students in the pretest. The results and comparisons are presented below.

Table 11: Independent samples t- test of the pretest results of passive voice

Grammar	Question	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig(2-tailed)
Passive voice	Sentence transformation	Experimental	42	10.2381	1.44505	0.951	81	0.344
		Comparison	41	9.9024	1.75791			
	Grammaticality judgment	Experimental	42	10.7561	1.68494	1.454	81	0.150
		Comparison	41	11.3333	1.92121			
	Multiple choice	Experimental	42	8.4762	1.82447	-0.343	81	0.732
		Comparison	41	8.6098	1.71578			
	Gap filling	Experimental	42	7.7857	1.68979	1.308	81	0.195
		Comparison	41	7.2683	1.91082			

In Table 11, a comparison was made between the average scores of the experimental and comparison groups in the pretest. As shown in the table, the mean score of the experimental group in each task (sentence transformation = 10.2381, grammaticality judgment = 10.7561, multiple choice = 8.4762, and gap filling = 7.7857) was not significantly different from the mean score of the comparison group students in each task (sentence transformation = 9.9024, grammaticality judgment = 11.3333, multiple choice = 8.6098, and gap filling = 7.2683). However, the scores of the experimental group students in the two tasks, sentence transformation and gap filling, were slightly greater than the comparison group's scores. On the other hand, the comparison group students scored slightly better than the experimental group students in grammaticality judgment and multiple-choice tasks.

Table 11 also shows that the participants in the pretest scored below the average result in each question (task). Each task was rated out of 25, but the students scored lower than the average, i.e., 12.5. According to this, the students' competence with the target grammar elements was very low, which may have been because of the way grammar is typically taught in the classroom. Generally, it is possible to take into consideration that the two groups' performance in passive voice did not show any significant difference in the pretest. A summary of an independent samples t-test was performed in order to see the overall scores of students in the pretest results of passive voice. The results are stated below.

Table 12: Summary of the pretest results on passive voice

Grammar	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Passive voice	Experimental	42	37.2048	3.46452	1.440	81	0.154
	Comparison	41	36.4927	3.57242			

Table 12 above reveals that the experimental group has a mean score of 37.2048, and that of the control group is 36.4927 with regard to their competence in passive voice. Hence, although the sum of the pretest scores of the experimental group is a little bit higher than the score of the comparison group, there was no significant difference between the experimental and comparison groups ($t = 1.440$, $df = 81$, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, the two groups were considered to have similar competence in passive voice before the intervention was made.

4.5. Comparisons of posttest results on passive voice

Students in both the experimental and comparison groups were given the same task to examine their performance in passive voice after the treatment. Descriptive statistics and an independent samples t-test were employed to compare the scores of the two groups in the target grammar element. The results are shown in the following table:

Table 13: Independent samples t- test of the post-test results of passive voice

Grammar	Question	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Passive voice	Sentence transformation	Experimental	42	17.0952	2.03397	6.302	81	0.000
		Comparison	41	14.6098	1.51456			
	Grammaticality	Experimental	42	18.2619	1.78147	10.494	81	0.000
		Comparison	41	14.3659	1.59305			
	Multiple choice	Experimental	42	16.9762	1.88043	6.165	81	0.000
		Comparison	41	14.4634	1.83163			
	Gap filling	Experimental	42	13.8095	1.65630	11.240	81	0.000
		Comparison	41	10.1220	1.30758			

In Table 13, a comparison was made between the experimental and comparison groups for the posttest results of passive voice. Accordingly, the mean score of the experimental group in each task (sentence transformation = 17.0952, grammaticality judgment = 18.2619, multiple choice = 16.9762, and gap filling = 13.8095) was significantly higher than the mean score of the comparison group in each task (sentence transformation = 14.6098, grammaticality judgment = 14.3659, multiple choice = 14.4634, and gap filling = 10.1220). The post-test scores also show that students in each group scored the highest scores in sentence transformation tasks and the smallest scores in gap-filling tasks of passive voice. A summary of an independent sample t-test was computed to see whether these differences were statistically significant. The results are stated below.

Table 14: Summary of the posttest results on passive voice

Grammar	Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig(2-tailed)
Passive Voice	Experimental	42	66.3095	3.73832	15.077	81	0.00
	Comparison	41	53.3171	4.10755			

The data in Table 14 on the independent samples t-test reflect the total posttest scores of the experimental and comparison groups in passive voice. Accordingly, the overall score of the experimental group on passive voice was found to be significantly higher than that of the comparison group ($M = 66.3095$, $SD = 3.73832$, and $M = 53.3171$, $SD = 4.10755$, respectively, and $t = 15.077$, $df = 81$, $p < 0.05$).

Overall, the post-test results indicated that teacher-student negotiated intervention was more successful than the conventional (teacher-led) method of grammar instruction at improving students' competence with the target grammar characteristics.

4.6. Results of the one-way repeated measures ANOVA: Past tenses

Repeated measures one-way ANOVA is a statistical technique used to analyze data when the same subject (the experimental group in this context) is measured multiple times under different conditions or over time. The consistency of the participants' past tense competency was determined using both descriptive and inferential statistical methods. The participants' mean and standard deviation scores on past tenses for each test are displayed in the table below.

Table 15: Descriptive statistics

Grammar	Test	Group	N	Mean	SD
Past Tenses	Test 1	Experimental	42	36.9762	5.61135
	(pretest)	Comparison	41	36.2439	5.98657
	Test 2	Experimental	42	64.8333	4.87861
		Comparison	41	50.0732	4.11941
	Test 3	Experimental	42	65.1667	4.92835
		Comparison	41	51.2439	4.34039
	Test 4	Experimental	42	63.3095	4.70334
		Comparison	41	50.3902	4.03034

As shown in Table 15, the pretest results for the experimental group ($M = 36.9762$, $SD = 5.61135$) were essentially the same as those of the comparison group ($M = 36.2439$, $SD = 5.98657$). However, the comparison of the means of each posttest shows that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group (posttest 1 = 64.8333, posttest 2 = 65.1667, and posttest 3 = 63.3095) and the mean scores of the comparison group (posttest 1 = 50.0732, posttest 2 = 51.2439, and posttest 3 = 50.3902). Repeated measures ANOVA was also performed to compare the means of the two groups, which helps to determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences among the means of the two groups in their scores of the posttests (test 2, test 3, and test 4).

Table 16: Tests of between-subjects effects

Measure: MEASURE_1						
Transformed Variable: Average						
	Type III					
Source	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	820900.438	1	820900.438	4813.668	0.00	0.983
Groups	27967.792	1	27967.792			
Error	13983.896	81	170.535			

As indicated in the table above, the test of between-subjects effects was used to evaluate the effects of TSNI and the conventional (teacher-led) methods on the two groups' competence in past tenses by comparing the post-test scores. Hence, as can be seen from the above table, the p-value is 0.00, which is less than the 5% alpha level of significance. This shows that there was a

significant difference between the post-test scores of the two groups. Thus, we can conclude that TSNI could result in consistent past tense competence over time.

In addition, multiple pairwise comparisons of means were applied to identify which test scores are different from each other and which ones are similar. Multiple comparisons of means were also beneficial to determine whether the test scores of the experimental group are consistent over time. Pairwise comparisons of the experimental group's mean scores on the four repeated past tenses are shown in the table below.

Table 17: Pairwise Comparisons

<i>Measure: MEASURE – 1</i>						
(I) Test	(J) Test	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval For Difference ^b	
					Lower bond	Upper bond
1	2	-27.857 [*]	1.264	.000	-30.410	-25.304
	3	-27.190 [*]	1.260	.000	-29.735	-24.646
	4	-26.333 [*]	1.261	.000	-28.880	-23.787
2	1	27.857 [*]	1.264	.000	25.304	30.410
	3	.667	.789	.403	-.928	2.261
	4	1.524	.992	.132	-.480	3.527
3	1	27.190	1.260	.000	24.646	29.735
	2	-.667	.789	.403	-2.26	.928
	4	.557	.739	.253	-.636	2.350
4	1	26.333	1.261	.000	23.787	28.880
	2	1.524	.992	.132	-3.527	.980

3	-.857	.739	.253	-2.350	.636
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Based on estimated marginal means

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments)

The results of the pairwise comparisons of the four tests, as shown in Table 17, indicate that the experimental group's mean score in each posttest is meaningfully higher than their pretest score ($p < 0.05$). But as the table shows, there was no statistically significant difference in mean scores between test 2 and test 3 (.789), test 2 and test 4 (.992), and test 3 and test 4 (.739) ($p > 0.05$). Hence, it can be concluded that teacher-student negotiated interaction brought consistent past-tense competence over time. The experimental group's scores on the three posttests were also examined for statistically significant differences using Mauchly's test of sphericity. The results are shown below.

Table 18: Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Measure: MEASURE-1							
Within	Mauchly's	Approx.	Df	Sig	Epsilon ^b		
Subjects	W	Chi			Greenhouse-	Huynh-	Lower
Effects		Squence			Geisser	Feldt	Bond
Test	.859	6.086	2	.048	.876	.912	.500

As can be seen in Table 18, Mauchly's Test of Sphericity was used to assess whether the assumptions of sphericity have been met. The p-value in Mauchly's test was not deemed significant ($p < 0.05$), as the table above shows. Furthermore, because the epsilon value was less than 1, the findings in the 'sphericity assumed' rows could not be provided. In such cases, Mauchly's test of sphericity is rejected; instead, the breach of sphericity is corrected using either the Greenhouse-Geisser or Huynh-Field tests, which are supplied by SPSS Statistics. Given that Huynh-Feldt is less cautious and less effective at detecting treatment effects, the researcher decided to present the Greenhouse-Geisser results from the 'within-subjects effects' table below.

Table 19: Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1							
Source		Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Test	Sphericity Assumed	49.016	2	24.508	1.626	.203	.038
	Greenhouse-Geisser	49.016	1.753	27.967	1.626	.203	.038
	Huynh-Feldt	49.016	1.825	26.864	1.626	.203	.038
	Lower-bound	49.016	1.000	49.016	1.626	.203	.038
Error(Test)	Sphericity Assumed	1236.31	82	15.017			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1236.031	71.858	17.205			
	Huynh-Feldt	1236.31	74.808	16.526			
	Lower-bound	1236.31	41.000	30.154			

The above table shows tests of within-subjects effects, which are helpful to know whether there is a change in posttest scores of students taken at different times. The table shows that there was no statistically significant difference in the experimental group's mean scores throughout the three posttests ($F(1.753, 71.858) = 1.626, p > 0.05$). The partial eta squared (η^2) result in the table showed how much the effect changed the participants' ability to use the target grammar elements, and the p-value showed how much past-tense competence affected the posttests. As a result, the three posttests' difference magnitude was 0.038, indicating inconsequential variance because it is less than the predetermined cut-off threshold of 0.14. Consequently, it was found that students' competence in past tense form gained through teacher-student negotiated interaction was long-lasting.

4.7. Results of the one-way repeated measures ANOVA: Passive voice

Repeated measures one-way ANOVA was also used to find out the consistency of students' competence in passive voice. Hence, the consistency of the participants' passive voice competency was similarly determined by using both descriptive and inferential statistical

methods. The participants' mean and standard deviation scores on passive voice for each test are displayed in the table below.

Table 20: Descriptive statistics

Grammar	Test	Group	N	Mean	SD
Passive Voice	Test 1	Experimental	42	37.4048	3.46452
	(pretest)	Comparison	41	36.2927	3.57242
	Test 2	Experimental	42	66.3095	3.73832
		Comparison	41	53.3171	4.10755
	Test 3	Experimental	42	64.310	4.95866
		Comparison	41	51.9512	4.14096
	Test 4	Experimental	42	65.0714	5.57605
		Comparison	41	51.2195	4.70379

As Table 20 illustrates, the experimental group's pretest findings ($M = 37.4048$, $SD = 3.46452$) and the comparison group's ($M = 36.2927$, $SD = 3.57242$) were nearly the same. But in each posttest, there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group (posttest 1 = 66.3095, posttest 2 = 64.310, and posttest 3 = 65.0714) and the mean scores of the comparison group (posttest 1 = 53.3171, posttest 2 = 51.9512, and posttest 3 = 51.2195). The means of the two groups were also compared by using repeated measures ANOVA. This helped to determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences among the means of the two groups in their scores of the posttests (test 2, test 3, and test 4).

Table 21: Tests of between-subjects effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Transformed Variable: Average

	Type III	Df	Mean square	F	Sig	Partial
Source	Sum of squares					Eta Squared
Intercept	862290.799	1	862290.799	5027.744	0.00	.984
Groups	28127.068	1	28127.068			
Error	14063.534	81	171.507			

The test of between-subjects effects, as shown in the above table, assisted in comparing the posttest results in order to assess the effects of teacher-students negotiated interaction and the traditional (teacher-led) approaches on the two groups' competence in passive voice. Based on the test, as the table above shows, the p-value is 0.00, which is below the 5% alpha level of significance. This indicates that the two groups' posttest results differed significantly from one another. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that a negotiated interaction between the teacher and the students could lead to consistent passive voice competency over time.

Multiple pairwise comparisons of means were also used to determine which test results were similar and which were different. Multiple comparisons of means were also beneficial to determine whether the test scores of the experimental group are consistent over time.

Pairwise comparisons of the experimental group's mean scores on the four repeated past tenses are shown in the table below. In order to ascertain whether the test results of the experimental group are consistent over time, multiple comparisons of means were also helpful. Pairwise comparisons of the experimental group's mean scores on the four repeated passive voice are shown in the table below.

Table 22: Pairwise Comparisons

Measure: MEASURE_1

(I) Test	(J) Test	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-28.905 [*]	.745	.000	-30.409	-27.400
	3	-26.905 [*]	1.804	.000	-30.547	-23.262
	4	-27.667 [*]	1.009	.000	-29.704	-25.629
2	1	28.905 [*]	.745	.000	27.400	30.409
	3	2.000	1.531	.199	-1.091	5.091
	4	1.238	.711	.089	-.199	2.675
3	1	26.905 [*]	1.804	.000	23.262	30.547
	2	-2.000	1.531	.199	-5.091	1.091
	4	-.762	1.691	.655	-4.178	2.654
4	1	27.667 [*]	1.009	.000	25.629	29.704
	2	-1.238	.711	.089	-2.675	.199
	3	.762	1.691	.655	-2.654	4.178

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

As can be seen in Table 22, the results of the pairwise comparison of the four tests show that the experimental group's mean score in each posttest is significantly higher than their pretest score ($p < 0.05$). However, as the table shows, there was no statistically significant difference in mean scores between test 2 and test 3 (.199), test 2 and test 4 (.089), and test 3 and test 4 (.655) ($p > 0.05$). Hence, it can be concluded that teacher-students negotiated interaction brought consistent passive voice competence over time.

The experimental group's scores on the three posttests were also examined for statistically significant differences using Mauchly's test of sphericity. The outcomes are displayed below.

Table 23: Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Measure: MEASURE_1							
Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	Df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
Test	.437	33.156	2	.000	.640	.651	.500

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity was employed to determine whether the sphericity assumptions were satisfied, as shown in Table 23. As the accompanying table demonstrates, the p-value in Mauchly's test was not considered significant ($p < 0.05$). Moreover, the results in the 'sphericity assumed' rows could not be given because the epsilon value was less than 1. In such cases, Mauchly's test of sphericity is rejected; instead, the breach of sphericity is corrected using either the Greenhouse-Geisser or Huynh-Feldt tests, which are supplied by SPSS Statistics. Given that Huynh-Feldt is less cautious and less effective at detecting treatment effects, the researcher decided to present the Greenhouse-Geisser results from the 'within-subjects effects' table below.

Table 24: Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1							
Source		Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Test	Sphericity Assumed	85.587	2	42.794	1.071	.347	.025
	Greenhouse-Geisser	85.587	1.279	66.907	1.071	.323	.025
	Huynh-Feldt	85.587	1.302	65.722	1.071	.324	.025
	Lower-bound	85.587	1.000	85.587	1.071	.307	.025
Error (Test)	Sphericity Assumed	3277.079	82	39.964			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	3277.079	52.447	62.483			
	Huynh-Feldt	3277.079	53.393	61.377			
	Lower-bound	3277.079	41.000	79.929			

To determine whether there is a change in the posttest scores of students taken at different times, the above table displays tests of within-subjects effects. The experimental group's mean scores on all three posttests did not show statistically significant changes, as the

table demonstrates ($F(1.279, 52.447) = 1.071, p > 0.05$). The p-value indicated the extent to which passive voice competency affects the posttests, and the partial eta squared (η^2) result in the table indicated the extent to which the effect altered the participants' capacity to apply the target grammatical elements. As a result, the three posttests' difference magnitude was 0.025, indicating inconsequential variance because it is less than the predetermined cut-off threshold of 0.14. As a result, it was found that students' competence in passive voice acquired through teacher-student negotiated interaction was long-lasting.

4.8. Analysis of questionnaire data

Implementing any language teaching/learning method or approach is subject to several factors. One of them is the learners' perceptions about the new approach to learning a foreign language (Dembo et al., 2007). Hence, in this section, an attempt has been made to summarize the important findings of students' perceptions – their beliefs, feelings, and understandings – obtained from the questionnaire in the study. A fourteen-item questionnaire was designed and administered at the end of the experiment. The questionnaire was filled in by 42 students in the experimental group. The main objective of the student questionnaire was to find out their perceptions towards teacher-student negotiated interaction in the context of grammar learning. The five Likert scales – strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, neutral = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1 – were contained in the questionnaire. The data obtained by these five Likert scales were analyzed parametrically in the study.

Actually, there is a lot of disagreement in the literature on the issue of whether parametric statistics can be used to evaluate Likert scales. The argument is sourced from the belief that because Likert data is ordinal, parametric statistics should not be used to analyze it. But as Khatun (2021) noted, it is incorrect to categorize Likert scales as strictly ordinal. Instead, responses obtained using Likert scales can be regarded as interval data, and as such, parametric statistics can be useful tools for more sensitive and powerful data analysis.

Furthermore, as long as the data are normally distributed, parametric data analysis approaches can be applied to the analysis of rating scale data (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). In summary, Shapiro and Wilk claimed that rating scales that are averaged and summed can be regarded as continuous data. This led to a parametric analysis of the study's questionnaire data.

In the current study, the researcher hypothesized the population mean by considering the existing related literature because there is no set cut-off point that displays the population mean score on students' perceptions of learning grammar through teacher-students negotiated interaction. The five-item Likert scales were therefore totaled and divided by the total number of scales (five), yielding the following result: $(5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1) = 15 \div 5 = 3.00$. As a result, the estimated population mean was found to be 3.00. In light of this, the questionnaire was analyzed, and the one-sample t-test was run.

Before performing parametric tests, it is necessary to check for normality using Shapiro-Wilk or graphical tests (Q-Q plots). However, most of the time, graphical tests are exposed to subjective judgments about the distribution of data around the mean value (central tendency) (Khatun, 2021). But the statistical method of testing normality is not exposed to subjective judgments. Hence, the researcher used statistical methods to test the normal distribution of the data around the mean (central tendency). Based on this, the findings are displayed as follows:

Table 25: Normality test

Normality test					
	Descriptives			Shapiro- Wilk	
	Skewness	Kurtosis	Statistic	Df	Sig
Perception score	-0.083	-0.526	.989	42	.994

As shown in the table above, a Shapiro-Wilk test was not significant ($p > 0.05$). Shapiro and Wilk (1965) stated that the Shapiro-Wilk Test should be $p > 0.05$ to show that there is no significant difference in the distribution of data around the mean value. On the other hand, Khatun (2021) suggested that the skewness and kurtosis z-values should be between -1.96 and 1.96 for a sample size < 50 . Hence, based on these parameters, the perception scores of the experimental group students about teacher-student negotiated interaction to learn grammar were approximately normally distributed with -0.083 and -0.526 skewness and kurtosis values, respectively. The participants' questionnaire scores are displayed in the table below.

Table 26: The descriptive statistics results of the questionnaire

One- Sample statistics						
	N	Mini	Max	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
Perception score	42	2.93	4.57	3.6038	.05668	.36732

According to Table 26, the mean and standard deviation scores of the 42 participants who answered the questionnaire were 3.6038 and 0.36732, respectively. The mean score of the participants (3.6038) was reportedly higher than the estimated population mean (3:00). This indicates that the students showed positive feelings and good understanding of TSNI in the grammar classes. Additionally, the findings suggest that students believe TSNI enhances grammar learning in EFL classrooms. However, a one-sample t-test was conducted because the descriptive statistics results alone were insufficient to ascertain whether there was a statistically significant difference between the sample mean and the hypothesized mean.

Table 27: The one sample t-test results of the questionnaire

One-Sample Test						
Test Value = 3						
				95% Confidence		
				Interval of the		
				Difference		
	T	Df	Sig. (2tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Perception score	10.653	41	.000	.60381	.4893	.7183

The perception score ($t(41) = 10.653$, $p = 0.000$, $MD = 0.60381$) was found to be higher than the hypothesized mean score, and the difference was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), as shown in Table 27. Thus, it can be concluded that participants had positive perceptions about the

use of teacher-student negotiated interaction to learn grammar (past tenses and passive voice as target grammar elements).

4.9. Analysis of the interview data

As previously mentioned, an interview was carried out with six students in the experimental group who volunteered to participate in the interviews. The purpose of the interview was to explore students' feelings and impressions on teacher–students negotiated interaction and to further enrich the data gained through the questionnaire. In addition, it was aimed at finding out students' views on whether or not their understanding and use of past tenses and passive voice was enhanced. In order to achieve this, each respondent was asked a series of questions, and the data from the interviews is analyzed below.

4.9.1. Comparison of past experience and negotiated interaction

The general impression given by the interviewees suggested that they approached learning grammar deductively by listening to the teacher, taking short notes, and reading textbooks, as their past experience of learning grammar. They stated that they had been learning grammar starting from elementary grades. However, they highlighted that they lacked learning grammar by using it for real-life communication and context-based grammar learning. The respondents also added that throughout their journey, they were struggling to see the relevance of grammar to real-life communication; rather, they worried about making mistakes while using grammar for communication.

One of the interviewees, Shewakena, said, "I found my experience of grammar learning of no relevance to applying grammar in practical situations. Likewise, Tigist added, "I was always worried about the correct forms rather than using these forms communicatively; because of this, I don't know how I use the target grammar elements communicatively." Furthermore, Dawit said, "the way I learnt grammar before didn't give me freedom to think, write, and speak about something by myself." Many of the respondents also admitted that their experience in grammar learning was not interactive and contextual, which led them to forget the forms of target grammar elements easily.

But the respondents noted that they found the process of learning past tenses and passive voice through negotiated interaction to be an engaging and interesting experience. They explained that they enjoyed learning past tenses and passive voice through picture-based storytelling and information gap tasks that could give them ample opportunities to use the language in the classroom. All of the respondents added that interactional grammar learning gave them the opportunity to learn the two grammar elements by using them for communication in the classroom.

Concerning this, Aster stated, “I didn’t have any opportunity to use the English language communicatively outside the classroom; hence, teacher–student negotiated interaction helped me to learn past tense and passive voice by using them for conversation with the teacher.” Bogale also replied, “Negotiated interaction helped me to make a speech by using past tenses and passive voice, and this, in turn, helped me bring the target grammar elements into my focal attention.” According to the participants’ responses, they have many opportunities to be clear on the target grammar elements when they use conversational interaction to learn grammar in the classroom. For instance, Biniam explained,

My former experience learning grammar was either through listening to the teacher and taking short notes from him or reading different books about grammar. However, in negotiated interaction, when the linguistic input was not clear to me, the teacher encouraged me to ask him to make the grammar element meet my level. When I asked him, he clearly simplified the grammar elements through restructuring, repeating, and rephrasing. After that, the past tense and passive voice became clearer for me to use for communication.

4.9.2. Students’ improvement in using correct grammar

After the intervention, the participants were asked to describe any improvements or changes they believed to have occurred. Their reaction to these revealed that although learning grammar through teacher–students negotiated interaction was a relatively new trend at the time, they found it straightforward to use target grammar elements for both oral and written communication in the classroom.

Concerning this, Dawit explained, “the interactional grammar learning helped me to learn past tenses and passive voice by practicing them through oral interaction with the teacher. This situation created more opportunities for me to learn from my mistakes and later to be better at using past tenses and passive voice properly.” Aster added, “Repeated use of past tenses and passive voice for oral communication in the classroom helped me to notice the forms and how they are used for real-life communication easily.” The results of the classroom observation also confirmed the actual improvements that students demonstrated in their communicative use of the target grammatical parts.

The participants claimed that at first it was challenging to interact with the teacher in the classroom, because it was not common to negotiate with the teacher in the class, but gradually they found it enjoyable, and their ability to use grammar effectively for oral and written communication increased. Biniam expressed it as follows:

During the intervention, I was frustrated by the teacher's use of past tenses and passive voice in the classroom. However, gradually, I became interested in having conversations about picture-based storytelling and information-gap tasks with the teacher. Then I could understand the past tense and passive voice and how they are used for day-to-day communication.

As can be understood from the participants’ understanding, teacher-student negotiated interaction was helpful to them in identifying grammatically incorrect sentences and correcting them easily. They said that this was because they had chances to express confusion about a sentence structure, prompting the teacher to clarify. This process encouraged them to think critically about their own language use. Aster said, “When I was asked to produce a speech by using target grammar features, I was thinking about the correct forms of past tenses and passive voice to express my ideas well”. Shewakena also added, “The classroom conversation with the teacher made past tenses and passive voice salient to me.” In addition, participants noted that the teacher had provided immediate feedback on errors they committed during classroom interaction. This correction helped them to identify grammatically incorrect sentences and correct them easily.

A teacher often gave correct grammatical structures during interactions as models in the form of feedback, giving students a clear reference. This direct exposure helps students

internalize correct forms. Furthermore, as the interviewees stated, a teacher usually encouraged them to correct their grammatically incorrect speeches by themselves, and this situation helped them identify where their mistakes were made. For instance, Dawit said, “during the classroom negotiation, I had been given many chances to modify my erroneous speech, which helped me to learn from my mistakes”. The interviewees also mentioned that a teacher created scenarios where specific grammatical structures are relevant, allowing them to practice in context. Bogale expressed this as:

The tasks that the teacher brought to us were essential to using past tenses and passive voice for classroom communication. We were using the target grammar elements frequently for classroom conversation, which in turn helped us to automate the grammar elements easily.

Most of the participants reported that negotiated interaction between a teacher and students helped them not only to identify grammatical errors but also fostered an environment where they learnt to recognize and correct their own mistakes. This collaborative approach enhanced their grammatical competence and confidence in language use. For instance, Shewakena reflected on this as, “Teacher-student negotiated interaction increases my competence in using the grammar, increases my motivation to learn grammar, and makes me confident in using the target grammar elements for communication.”

The participants also said that negotiated interaction improved their ability to fill gaps in sentences by changing the present simple tense into the appropriate past tense forms and complete different dialogues given by the teacher with correct forms of verbs. In addition, classroom interaction helped them to practice how to use active and passive voice for real-life communication, for instance, oral communication and story writing.

The interviewees reflected that the interaction encourages them to express their thoughts and ideas, leading to a deeper understanding of past tenses and passive voice. They explained that this situation helped them to enjoy the classroom and perform tasks given by the teacher in a good manner. Tigist said, “since the focus of the classroom was making conversation with the teacher, I didn’t worry about grammar rules, and this motivates me to attend the class well.” Since they understood past tenses more deeply, they could write stories by using topics given by their teacher or by taking their own topics.

4.9.3. Reflections on integration of form, meaning and function

Concerning the role of teacher–students negotiated interaction in integrating form, meaning, and function, the participants suggested that the approach helped them learn past tenses and passive voice better because it created context to use the target grammar elements with their real-world meanings and functions. They said that the interactional approach is a better instructional option in addressing the three basic aspects of language, i.e., form, meaning, and use, in the classroom. For instance, Dawit stated that “in the interactional approach of grammar learning, the teacher provided context for grammatical structures, helping students understand how forms convey different meanings in various situations.”

Another interviewee, Aster, noted that “I think teacher-student negotiated interaction helped us learn grammar by stimulating real-life scenarios where grammar is used functionally. This helped us see the relevance of grammar in our own classroom communication.” They also felt that the classroom tasks, picture-based storytelling, and information-gap tasks, used to teach grammar through negotiation, allowed the students to practice grammatical structures in meaningful contexts, emphasizing their functional use. The participants believed that interactional feedback, which was immediately given by the teacher as responses to students’ questions about past tenses and passive voice, deepened students’ understanding of how grammar operates in real communication. Tigist expressed it this way:

Engaging in negotiation encourages me to think critically about language use, fostering my deeper cognitive processing of grammatical concepts. This approach promoted active learning, where I was not just a passive recipient of the knowledge but an active participant in my learning process. This intern helped me to realize how past tenses and passive voice are used for real-life communication.

Overall, as it is possible to understand from the interviewees’ responses, teacher-student negotiated interaction facilitates a holistic understanding of grammar. By integrating form, meaning, and function, students are better equipped to use grammar effectively in both written and spoken communication. This process not only enhances their grammatical competence but also builds their confidence in using language in real-life contexts.

4.9.4. The role of negotiated interaction for classroom participation

The respondents expressed that negotiated interaction fosters a more dynamic classroom environment where they feel encouraged to participate actively. This interaction often involves questioning, clarifying, and discussing grammar rules, making them more engaged. Regarding this, one respondent said, “when the teacher actively engaged in dialogue with me, it fostered a sense of trust and comfort in me.” I was more likely to participate when I felt valued and understood by the teacher.” Another participant, Biniam said,

When the teacher used open-ended questions and prompts in the classroom interaction, I started to think critically and respond to the teacher. This intern created a more dynamic environment for me to learn grammar by using it for classroom conversation. During the classroom conversation, the teacher used different strategies of negotiation that encouraged us to ask and answer different questions. Sometimes the teacher forced us to correct our grammatically incorrect speech; this situation allowed us to be involved in the teaching-learning process and use the target grammar features to express our real-life events.

The respondents appreciated the teacher–student negotiated interaction regarding its participatory nature for all students in the classroom. They said that all of them were ready to respond to the teacher’s questions because the teacher may have asked any one of us suddenly. Hence, everyone was part of TSNI in grammar classes. Bogale explained, “I enjoyed the classroom situation because it gave me chances to be engaged in the teaching-learning process by using past tenses and passive voice for oral communication in the classroom.”

The interviewees revealed that the teacher didn’t discourage them when they made grammatical errors in their conversation with him. This situation motivated them to participate in the classroom conversation. This indicates that both the teacher and students focused on using past tenses and passive voice communicatively in the classroom. One of the participants, Dawit, said, “The classroom situation was full of opportunities to use past tenses and passive voice in the context of conversation rather than worrying about the rules of past tenses and passive voice to study them.”

All in all, according to interviewees’ responses, negotiated interaction between teachers and students not only enhances participation but also contributes to a more collaborative and

engaging learning experience. By fostering a culture of communication and respect, teachers can significantly boost students' confidence and willingness to participate actively in the classroom.

4.9.5. Benefits of teacher-students negotiated interaction to learn grammar

The interviewees reflected that teacher-students negotiated interaction in grammar classes significantly enhanced their understanding and mastery of grammar in several ways. Regarding this, Tigist suggested, “Negotiated interaction encouraged me to actively participate in discussions about grammar rules and their applications.” Another student, Dawit, said, ‘When the teacher and I negotiated meanings in the classroom, I could ask questions and seek clarification on grammar points they find confusing. This dialogue helped me ensure misunderstandings about passive voice and past tenses.’”

The respondents also expressed that negotiated interactions helped them by involving real-life examples and contexts, making grammar more applicable. This contextualization helped them see the relevance of grammar in their communication. Aster suggested her ideas on this as follows:

Interactional grammar learning gave me an opportunity to use the target grammar elements in a natural-like environment. As an EFL student who has no opportunity to practice the English language outside the classroom, negotiated interaction gave me the chance to learn past tenses and passive voice by using them for communication in the classroom.

The participants also revealed that in teacher–students negotiated interaction, the teacher could provide immediate, personalized feedback during interactions. They explained that the feedback helped them to correct errors and understand the distinctions of grammar. An interviewee, Shewakena, stated, “the teacher gave interactional corrective feedback to me as a response to my linguistically problematic utterances in the classroom, which helped me to learn past tenses and passive voice better.” Hence, in teacher–students negotiated interaction, feedback is most effectively utilized by learners because it is provided under real operating conditions (i.e., in natural contexts in which learners are trying to actually perform their grammar skills).

The respondents also expressed that negotiating grammatical rules and their applications encouraged them to think critically about language use, promoting a deeper understanding rather than rote memorization. In addition, the participants felt that creating a supportive environment where students can express their thoughts and questions fosters confidence. Regarding this, Bogale said, “as I felt more secure in my understanding, I was more likely to take risks in using grammar correctly.” Furthermore, the participants suggested that teachers may tailor their explanations and interactions based on the needs of individual students, providing targeted support where necessary.

In summary, teacher-students negotiated interaction fosters a dynamic and collaborative learning environment that enhances comprehension, application, and retention of grammar concepts.

4.9.6. Negotiated interaction for students’ confidence and motivation

The respondents revealed that the negotiated interaction encouraged them to express their opinions and contribute to the learning process, and this helped them feel more valued in grammar classes. They also stated that this empowerment boosted their confidence as they saw their ideas being taken into account. One of the respondents, Tigist, said, “Engaging in discussions and negotiations fostered a sense of membership in the classroom. We learnt from each other, which could increase our motivation to participate and engage with the material.” The participants also reflected that through negotiation, teachers could provide tailored feedback that addresses their needs. This personalized approach helped them understand their progress and enhanced their confidence.

In the same vein, interviewees’ reflection also showed that negotiating learning goals with the teacher allowed them to take ownership of their education. Participants believed that when they saw their goals as achievable, their motivation to learn grammar increased. The data from students’ responses also showed that stronger teacher-students negotiation fosters a supportive environment to learn grammar. They reflected that when they feel connected to their teachers, they are more likely to be motivated and confident in their grammar abilities. Shewakena explained,

Teacher–students negotiated interaction to learn grammar could make the content more relevant to students’ lives. This relevance can increase their intrinsic motivation to engage with the material. For instance, when the teacher engaged me in dialogue about grammar, it helped me to engage actively in the teaching-learning process. The interaction also allowed me to express my thoughts, questions, and doubts, making me feel more involved in the learning process.

Generally, the data from respondents revealed that incorporating teacher-students negotiated interaction in the classroom can create an environment where students feel confident and motivated. By fostering collaboration, providing personalized feedback, and encouraging ownership of their learning, teachers can significantly enhance students’ confidence and motivation in grammar classes.

4.9.7. The role of interactional feedback to learn grammar

When asked about the use of teacher–students negotiated interaction to learn grammar, Aster replied, “Interactional feedback I received through interactional modifications induced me to selectively pay attention to some of the problematic grammatical features.” Other respondents explained that interactional feedback helped them identify and clarify grammatical errors, allowing them to understand their mistakes. Shewakena put it this way:

When the teacher responded to students’ errors through feedback, he potentially created conditions for us to attempt to produce the correct forms ourselves. Hence, I realized that the instructional approach could encourage me to correct my erroneous speeches and learn from my mistakes. The interactional feedback was also beneficial in encouraging me to actively participate, making grammar learning more dynamic and less passive.

The respondents expressed that interactional feedback allows them to correct errors in real time, reinforcing learning and promoting better comprehension of target grammatical elements. The responses of students are consistent with Long’s (1992) interaction hypothesis, which suggests that implicit negative feedback, which is obtained through negotiated interaction, facilitates students’ grammar learning. Thus, interactional feedback helps learners to avoid communication breakdowns and repair and sustain classroom communication.

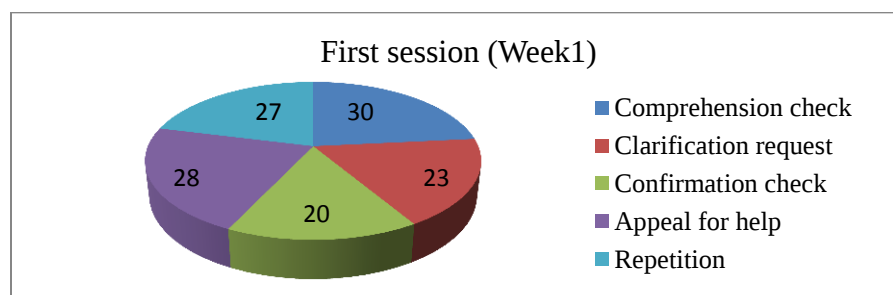
Concerning interactional feedback, Dawit said, “the interactional feedback that I received from the teacher supported me to gradually increase my grammatical competence and go from simple to complex grammatical structures.” Binam also added, “Interactional feedback encouraged me to think about language use, enhancing my understanding of grammatical rules and structures.” To sum up, effective teacher-student interactional feedback is essential for grammar acquisition, as it not only addresses errors but also promotes a deeper understanding and application of grammatical concepts for real-life communication.

4.10. Analysis of observational data

The main objective of classroom observation was to see the students’ participation in teacher-student negotiated interaction in grammar classes. The observation was focused on an examination of the frequency of the students who used five techniques of negotiation – comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, appeals for help, and repetition – as indicators of their classroom participation. According to Long (2015), any type of students’ classroom participation could not be out of those five techniques of classroom negotiation.

The observation was done in three sessions; each session contained one week of observation. In each week, three hours of classroom observation, 45 minutes in each lesson for four days per week, were made. A total of 12 lessons that took 9 hours were observed to see students’ classroom participation in teacher-student negotiated interaction in grammar classes.

Figure 3: Students’ involvement in the first session of classroom observation

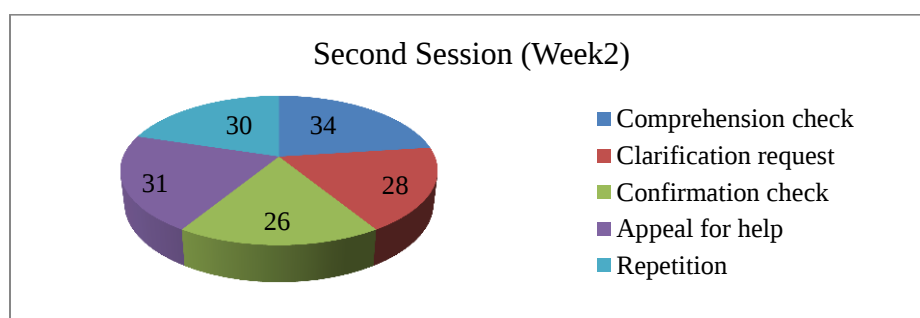


As it is seen in Figure 3, the frequency of students’ involvement in comprehension checks was 30 (23.43%). Hence, in the first session of classroom observation, students’ classroom participation was primarily manifested by responding to comprehension questions

raised by the teacher. The frequency with which students participated in asking for assistance was 28, or 17.97%, less than responding for comprehension checks.

As a result, as one component of classroom participation, students were also better at asking the teacher for help when they needed it. However, the frequency of students participating in confirmation checks was just 20 (12%), indicating that students employed this component of classroom participation less frequently than they did the other four. Using the five classroom negotiating strategies as the fundamental components of students' participation, the main goal of classroom observation was to see the advancement of students' participation from one observation session to the next. Therefore, take a look at figures 2 and 3 below to see how students were progressing with their participation in each negotiation strategy.

Figure 4: Students' involvement in the second session of classroom observation

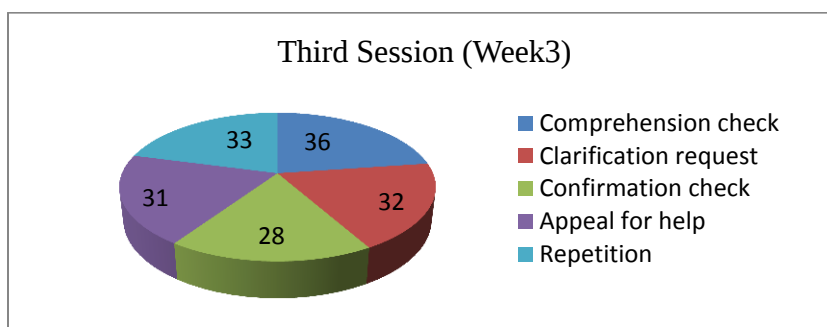


As can be seen in Figure 4 above, students significantly improved their participation in class from the first to the second session of observations. In comparison to the total frequency of the students participating in session one classroom observation (128), which was considerably lower, the total frequency of students participating in session two classroom observation (149) was greater. From the first to the second classroom observation, the students' participation increased in every negotiation technique.

Their frequency of answering comprehension questions, repeating what they said before, appealing for help, making clarification requests, and performing confirmation checks ranged from 30 to 34, 28 to 31, 27 to 30, 23 to 28, and 20 to 26, respectively. Hence, students' involvement in questions aimed at asking their understanding of the instruction, asking for clarification of the teacher's speech, verifying their understanding of what the teacher said, asking for assistance, and repeating what they said before were taken as students' classroom

participation, which was increased from session one to session two classroom observation. This indicates that teacher-students negotiated interaction was effective in increasing students' participation in grammar classes.

Figure 5: Students' involvement in the third session of classroom observation

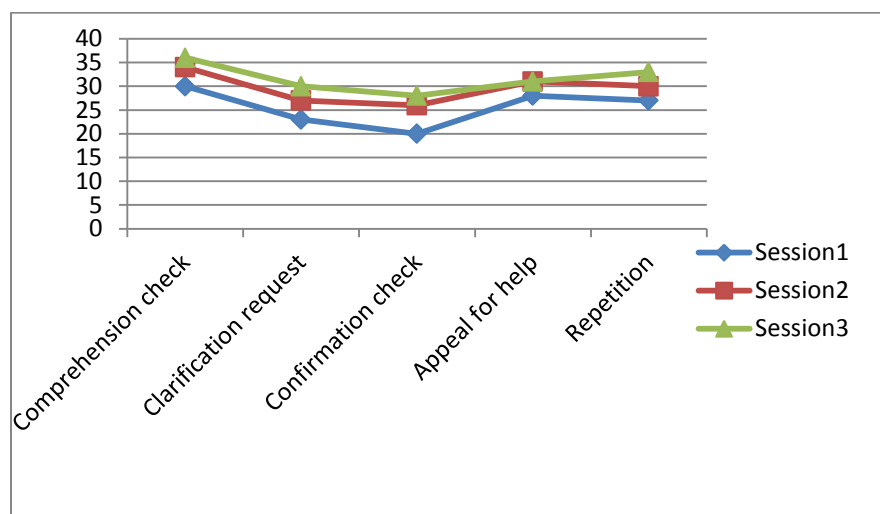


As seen in Figure 5 above, students' participation in class increased significantly from the second to the third session of classroom observation. More students participated in session three classroom observations than in session one classroom observations (160 compared to 149), a significant increase in the overall frequency of student participation. From the second to the third class observation, there was an increase in the students' participation in every negotiation technique.

There was a range of 34 to 36, 30 to 33, 28 to 32, and 26 to 28 in the number of times they answered comprehension questions, repeating what they said before, asking for clarification, and carrying out confirmation checks. However, although students' frequency of participation in appealing for help is high, it didn't show progress from session one classroom observation to session two classroom observation.

But the total frequency that shows students' involvement in grammar classes showed significant progress from 128 to 149 to 160 in sessions one, two, and three classroom observations, respectively. This implies that teacher-student negotiated interaction is a very helpful grammar instruction approach to increase students' participation, and this, in turn, helps to learn the target grammar elements in a natural-like environment. From the findings, it could be assumed that grammar instruction through negotiated interaction increases students' classroom participation from time to time, as presented in Figure 6 below.

Figure 6: The progress of students' participation from session1 to session3



The qualitative result from the audio record also showed the use of teacher-student negotiated interaction to facilitate students' classroom participation in grammar classes. As in the interaction below, students' classroom participation increased from session one classroom observation to session two classroom observation, which was manifested by their use of the negotiation strategies to extend their communication with their teacher in grammar classes. See the classroom discourse below.

1. Audio record on session one classroom observation

Teacher: (shows a picture of a boy playing with a ball). What did you think the boy did?

Students: (No response from the students)

Teacher: please see the picture carefully and tell me what happened

Student1: The boy.....um...the boy plays with the ball.

Teacher: Good! But remember we are talking about the past. Anyone who can change it?

Student2: He play with the ball.

Teacher: He played with the ball? (Stresses on the target grammar element)

Student2: Yes, he played with the ball.

Teacher: Do you have any question?

Students: (No response from the students)

Teacher: Okay, Now let's look at the next picture. What is happening here? (Shows a picture of the boy falling)

Student3: The boy.....um...the boy falls down.

Teacher: What did you say? Anyone please?

Student4: He fell down.

Teacher: Exactly! Now let us put it together. Can you tell me what happened in this two pictures?

As it can be seen above, the teacher initiated the conversational interaction by asking the students what was going on in the picture. Even if some students find it difficult to answer the teacher's questions, the teacher nonetheless encouraged the students to produce the desired grammar elements in the form of conversational interaction. Some students were hesitant to participate in the first teacher-student negotiated interaction session, but they were more willing to do so in subsequent classroom exchanges. When the students answer questions from the teacher and modify their grammatically incorrect speech, the teacher reinforces students' participation by using statements of approval like Great, that is, etc., to encourage students' classroom participation. This situation helped students to actively participate in grammar classes.

Hence, students' classroom participation increased from session one classroom interaction to session two classroom interaction and so on. Therefore, the linguistic input was the result of teacher-students negotiated interaction, not only from the teacher alone.

2. Audio record in session two classroom observation

Teacher: Okay, students, today we are going to learn expressing past actions by looking at stories told through pictures. Let's examine the first picture. What happened?

[Shows an image of a boy eating the food]

Student1: Um....the boy.....the boy is eating food.

Teacher: Yes, the boy is eating the food. But how we express the same action in the past?

Student2: Um....the....the boy ate the food.

Teacher: The boy eated the food? (Stress on the target form)

Student2: The...um...the boy eats the food.

Teacher: The boy ate the food?

Aster: Yes, the boy ate the food.

Student3: Is the boy ate the food mean the past?

Teacher: Yes, ate is the past tense form of eat.

Teacher: Alright students, let us move on to the next picture. [Shows a man getting dressed]

Student4: The man.....the man getting dressed.

Teacher: Great! The man is getting dressed.....in the past?

Student5: The...um...the man.....the man getted dressed.

Teacher: Is it getted? Any other student please?

Student6: The man.....the man got dressed.

Teacher: Wonderful!

Student7: Teacher, is it the man got dressed?

Teacher: Yes, the man got dressed.

Teacher: Now students go to the next pictures and tell me what happened.

The above classroom interaction shows that students' participation increased from the first session of classroom interaction to the second session of classroom interaction. In the first session of classroom interaction, most of the students' roles were to give responses to the teachers' questions. But in the second session of classroom interaction, students not only gave responses to the teacher's questions but also asked the teacher for clarification and confirmation checks. The interaction was two-directional, which means that the teacher and students ask and answer different questions of each other. The target grammar element was the result of an extended negotiation between a teacher and students in the classroom. Sometimes students were silent when their teacher asked some questions in the first session of classroom interaction. But gradually, students enjoyed the teaching-learning situation, and their participation was high in the next session of classroom interaction. This implies that students' classroom participation increased from lesson to lesson, which indicated that teacher-student negotiated interaction in grammar classes increased students' classroom participation.

Chapter Five: Discussions and Implications of the Results

5.1. Discussions of the results

The grammar teaching approach in Ethiopia highly depends on the focus on forms approach, in which students passively attend classes by listening to the teacher and reading the textbooks. However, a teaching and learning environment, especially for EFL learners who have no external exposure to communicate with the target language, is better to create an opportunity for learners to learn linguistic elements by using them for real-life communication in the classroom (Bickel & Fisher, 2022; S. Gass et al., 2011; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

Given this, the current study aimed to investigate the effects of teacher–student negotiated interaction (TSNI) on EFL students' grammatical competence and classroom participation, focusing on past tenses and passive voice. The findings revealed significant improvements in the students' grammar competence when taught through TSNI compared to the conventional teacher-led approach. Additionally, students demonstrated increased classroom participation and positive perceptions toward interaction-based grammar learning.

In the past tenses, the experimental group showed a mean score of 64.83 in the posttest, while the comparison group scored 50.07. The independent samples t-test ($t = 14.875$, $p < 0.05$) confirmed a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Likewise, in the posttest results of passive voice, the experimental group scored 66.31, while the comparison group scored 53.32. And the independent samples t-test ($t = 15.077$, $p < 0.05$) confirmed a significant difference between the two groups in their passive voice competence.

Hence, the students involved in the comparison group demonstrated better understanding of form–function relationships in passive constructions. The findings are aligned with the argument of S. Gass et al. (2011) and Loewen (2003) that negotiated (conversational) interaction helps learners to learn grammar by integrating form and meaning, and this helps them to identify form, meaning, and function relationships of target linguistic elements. The outcomes of this study are supported by Long (1999, 2015), which confirms that negotiated interaction facilitates grammar acquisition by promoting noticing, modified output, modified input, and cognitive engagement.

The findings are also supported by Swain's (1995) Output Hypothesis, which suggests that pushed output (oral production) helps learners notice gaps in their interlanguage, leading to better grammatical accuracy. The results of repeated measures ANOVA further confirmed that the improvement was consistent over time, indicating long-term retention of the target grammar elements. Mackey (1999) suggested that conversational interaction in the classroom facilitates the grammatical development of learners. The investigation furthermore supports the finding of Wang and Castro (2010), which suggested that integrating input- and output-based classroom interaction is beneficial for EFL students to learn grammar and apply it for real-life communication.

Six classroom exercises (grammaticality judgment, multiple choice, gap-filling, completion, sentence transformation, and writing) were used to measure the students' competence in the target grammar elements. The experimental group scored better than the comparison group in all posttests in the grammaticality judgment test. Hence, TSNI helped identify grammatically wrong sentences and correct them easily. The study by Philp & Iwashita (2013) supports the findings, highlighting the importance of classroom interaction in identifying grammatically correct and incorrect language productions.

In completing and writing test items, the scores obtained by the experimental and the comparison groups indicate that negotiated interaction is better than traditional teacher-led grammar instruction in improving the students' written communication. Furthermore, the scores of the experimental and comparison groups in the gap-filling test item also imply that TSNI is better than teacher-led grammar instruction in making students change the given verb forms into the appropriate past tense forms and passive voice.

In multiple-choice and gap-filling tests, it is noted that the students in the experimental group performed better than the comparison group. These findings indicate that in terms of choosing grammatically correct verb forms and changing present simple tense into the appropriate past tense forms, there was a significant difference between the results of TSNI and the conventional (teacher-led) grammar instruction. Posttest scores of sentence transformation tasks also show that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group in changing active sentences into passive sentences.

Both the experimental and the comparison groups were also measured in completion tests in which incomplete dialogues were presented to students with one or more verbs in the past tense missing. The scores show that experimental groups were significantly better than comparison groups in completing written dialogues according to the flow and meaning of the conversation. The results are supported by the findings of Del et al. (2000) that classroom interaction facilitates students' language production when they participate in communicative tasks. Although written dialogues are different from oral (spoken) dialogues, written dialogues can require students to demonstrate their ability to use the target grammatical elements accurately and appropriately based on the context and time frame of the conversation.

The classroom observation data revealed that the students' classroom participation increased progressively across the three sessions of classroom observation. The frequency of negotiation strategies (comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, appeals for help, and repetition) rose from 128 in session 1 to 160 in session 3, indicating growing engagement of the students. Comprehension checks (responses to teacher questions) were the most frequent (30 in session 1, increasing to 36 in session 3) type of classroom participations. In addition, the frequency of clarification requests (students asking for explanations) increased from 23 to 32. Furthermore, the frequency of confirmation checks (verifying understanding) rose from 20 to 28. This suggests that TSNI fosters an interactive classroom environment, where students actively engage in meaning negotiation, leading to better noticing and processing of the grammatical forms.

Most of the students in the classes were silent when their teacher asked some questions in the first session of classroom interaction. Hence, in the first session of classroom observation, the role of most students was to give responses to the teachers' questions. But in the second and third sessions of classroom observation, the students not only gave responses to the teacher's questions but also asked the teacher for clarification and confirmation checks. The interaction was two-directional, which means that the teacher and the students ask and answer different questions of each other.

The students enjoyed the teaching-learning process, and their participation was high in the next sessions of classroom observation. The inputs of the target grammar element resulted from an extended negotiation between the teacher and the students. This implies that the students'

classroom participation increased from lesson to lesson, suggesting that TSNI in grammar classes increased students' classroom participation.

The questionnaire and interview results indicated that students had positive perceptions of TSNI. The one-sample t-test ($t = 10.653$, $p < 0.05$, $MD = 0.60381$) in the questionnaire confirmed that the students strongly agreed that TSNI improved their grammar learning. The interview responses of the students highlighted that the students found grammar more meaningful when used in real-life communication. In addition, they appreciated implicit feedback (e.g., recasts, clarification requests) over explicit rule explanations. Furthermore, the interactive tasks (picture-based storytelling and information-gap tasks) made grammar learning engaging and practical.

These findings align with Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory, which emphasizes social interaction as a key driver of learning. The experimental group students were more confident and motivated when grammar was taught interactively rather than through rote memorization.

The students' questionnaire and interview results also showed that the students have a high perception of TSNI because it encouraged them to express their thoughts and ideas, leading to a deeper understanding of the target grammar elements. As for the participants, this situation helps them to enjoy the classroom and perform tasks given by the teacher in a good manner.

Furthermore, the participants' interview responses suggested that negotiated interaction between the teacher and the students not only enhances participation but also contributes to a more collaborative and engaging learning experience. The students believe that TSNI fosters a dynamic and collaborative learning environment that enhances comprehension, application, and retention of grammatical rules. The data from respondents also revealed that applying TSNI in the classroom can create an environment where students feel confident and motivated. By fostering collaboration, providing personalized feedback, and encouraging ownership of their learning, teachers can significantly enhance students' confidence and motivation in grammar classes.

Generally, the study demonstrates that TSNI is more effective than traditional teacher-led grammar instruction in enhancing grammatical competence and classroom participation. By integrating form, meaning, and function through interactive tasks and negotiation strategies, EFL

learners could develop both accuracy and fluency in grammar. The findings advocate for interactive grammar teaching in EFL contexts, where students could actively engage in real-life language use rather than passive rule memorization.

5.2. Implications of the results

The results of this study that found significant positive effects of Teacher-Student Negotiated Interaction (TSNI) on EFL students' grammatical competence and classroom participation carry important implications that can be helpful for teachers, curriculum designers, teacher trainers, and policymakers, particularly within the Ethiopian EFL context and similar environments.

Pedagogical implications of the study indicate a move away from traditional teacher-centred to interaction-centred grammar teaching. The study strongly implies that the conventional, teacher-led, and deductive approach to grammar instruction is less effective for learning grammar. According to the findings of the study, teachers are not the sole sources of grammatical knowledge but rather the facilitators of classroom interaction. The results also imply the effectiveness of the focus on form approach, in which grammar can be learnt better through integrating meaning and form by using techniques that draw learners' attention to grammatical structures within communicative contexts.

Applying negotiated interaction in a good manner requires comprehension checks, confirmation checks, clarification requests, recasts, and repetitions to promote students' involvement in the teaching/learning process. Using interactive tasks, specifically picture-based storytelling and information-gap activities, validates the use of task-based language teaching (TBLT) principles in grammar classes. These interactive tasks are effective tools for generating negotiated interaction.

Therefore, designing and implementing such tasks is very helpful to create a natural-like communicative environment in the classroom. Furthermore, the results suggest that implicit interactional feedback types like recasts, comprehension checks, repetitions, etc., are more effective and less discouraging for students than explicit, direct error correction, as it maintains the flow of communication and encourages student participation.

The findings of this study also have many implications for curriculum and materials development for grammar instruction. Hence, the outcomes of the study indicate that a syllabus that presents grammar as a linear list of rules to be mastered does not facilitate grammar learning communicatively. But designing syllabi that are task-based or interaction-driven, where grammatical objectives are woven into communicative goals, enhances conversational grammar learning.

In addition, textbooks and teaching materials are not expected to contain decontextualised grammar drills. Rather, materials need to include activities that necessitate communication and negotiation of meaning. Materials also need to include tasks that create interactive learning environments (e.g., telling a story requires past tenses; describing a process requires passives) in grammar classes. Furthermore, teaching materials need to guide teachers on how to foster classroom interaction around grammatical points. Curriculum and teaching materials need to promote grammar instruction by integrating it with speaking and listening to be learnt in a natural-like environment.

The findings of this study also have implications for teacher education and professional development in language teaching in general and grammar teaching in particular. Hence, TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and TEFL training programmes must prioritise interactive teaching methodologies. Student teachers need theoretical knowledge and, crucially, practical hands-on experience in implementing TSNI, FonF, and task-based learning. In-service training is required for teachers to implement TSNI in a proper manner.

Since many language teachers in Ethiopia are trained in traditional methods of grammar teaching, continuous professional development (CPD) workshops are essential. These workshops should demonstrate TSNI techniques, provide practice in designing interactive tasks, and address teachers' potential concerns about classroom management and coverage of the syllabus in an interactive classroom. Training must also address teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching. The study implies that a shift is needed from the belief that “grammar is learnt through memorisation” to the belief that “grammar is acquired through communicative use and interaction.”

The outcomes of the study put forward some basic implications for educational policy. In the first place, the study promotes CLT principles that endorse CLT principles that emphasise

interaction and communication, moving beyond Grammar-Translation and Audio-Lingual methods that still influence many classrooms. Secondly, the finding forwards assessment reform in grammar instruction. The study's use of tests that measure application (grammaticality judgement, gap-filling, writing) rather than just rule recall implies a need for assessment reform.

Grammar-related exams should test communicative competence and the ability to use grammar accurately in context, which would force a positive washback effect on teaching methodologies. The findings also imply fair resource allocation and provision of resources needed for interactive teaching, which may include teacher training funds, the development of new teaching materials, and potentially smaller class sizes to make sustained interaction more feasible.

The study forwards some basic theoretical implications. In the first place, it supports the interaction hypothesis. The findings provide strong empirical support, particularly in an Ethiopian EFL context, for Long's updated version of the Interaction Hypothesis. It confirms that negotiated interaction facilitates grammar acquisition by providing comprehensible input, opportunities for modified output, and implicit feedback and by promoting noticing. The results of the study also give validation for Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory. The results align with Vygotsky's sociocultural concept of learning as a socially mediated process, where knowledge is co-constructed through interaction with a more knowledgeable interlocutor (the teacher).

Furthermore, the findings forward the synthesis of grammar teaching approaches. The study successfully argues against the strict dichotomy of “focus on forms” vs. “focus on meaning.” It demonstrates the efficacy of a middle ground – Focus on Form – where attention to grammar arises naturally from meaningful communication.

The role of implicit feedback in negotiated interaction implies that teachers need to develop the skill of providing corrective feedback implicitly (e.g., through recasts) within the flow of conversation, which is shown to be effective without damaging student motivation. The study successfully links an instructional method (negotiated interaction) not only to observable behaviour (participation) but also to a positive affective outcome (student perception). This implies that future research should continue to measure both behavioural and attitudinal factors.

The observed increase in participation frequency across the three sessions implies that negotiated interaction makes grammar classes less intimidating and more engaging. Students transition from passive recipients to active participants, which boosts their confidence and intrinsic motivation to learn. The approach moves students from semantic processing (just getting the meaning across) to syntactic processing (paying attention to grammatical form). This implies that students can develop grammatical accuracy without sacrificing communicative fluency, achieving a key goal of modern language teaching.

Interview data suggests students moved beyond memorization to a deeper understanding of how grammar functions in context (integrating form, meaning, and use). The implication is that knowledge gained through negotiated interaction is more likely to be retained and successfully organized in spontaneous communication. The study demonstrates the value of authentic, classroom-based research. It implies that further research is needed in different contexts to explore the generalizability of these findings and to refine interactive techniques for various learner demographics and proficiency levels.

Generally, the implications of this study are profound and practical. They call for a fundamental paradigm shift in how grammar is taught in EFL contexts like Ethiopia. The results argue that effective grammar learning is not a product of passive reception but of active participation in communicative interaction. Implementing TSNI is presented not as an optional technique but as a necessary approach for developing the grammatical competence needed for real-world communication, thereby finally addressing the long-standing problem of students knowing rules but being unable to use them effectively. Educational policymakers, curriculum designers, and teachers should work to integrate the principles of negotiated interaction into EFL classrooms to foster better, more participatory, motivating, and effective grammar learning environments.

Chapter Six: Summary, Conclusions, Recommendations, and Limitations

6.1. Summary

As stated in the previous chapters, quasi-experimental research with a pre-test post-test comparison group design was conducted to investigate the effects of teacher–student negotiated interaction on grade ten EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation. Grammar competence fosters better communication, builds professionalism, and advances academic achievement. Therefore, students' grammar competence and classroom participation are enhanced through teacher–student negotiated interaction in which students can learn grammar by using it for real–life communication in the classroom.

To conduct the study, two grade ten sections were selected based on the proficiency test given to the population to select the participants. Then, one section with 42 students is taken as the experimental group and another section with 41 students as the comparison group. In this study, one English language teacher taught both groups to minimize teachers' variability. However, the experimental group was taught the material prepared by the researcher based on the notions of negotiated interaction, and the comparison group was with the grade ten textbook.

The quasi-experiment lasted for almost eight weeks, from May 01, 2024, to June 30, 2024. At the end of the treatment, the participants' grammar competence was examined through posttests. In addition, classroom observation, questionnaires, and interviews were conducted to know the comparison group students' classroom participation and perception towards using teacher–student negotiated interaction to learn grammar.

The validity of the instruments was checked on the basis of judgmental evaluation from the researcher's supervisors and EFL teachers. In addition, experts' views were taken from their research findings to check the validity of the instruments. On the other hand, the reliability of the instruments was evaluated through inter-rater reliability. Furthermore, the pilot study provided an opportunity for the researcher to test and refine research instruments, i.e., tests, questionnaires, interviews, and observation checklists.

The data gathered through the grammar competence test and questionnaires were analyzed using one-sample t-tests, independent samples t-tests, and repeated measures ANOVA. Observational data were analyzed through descriptive statistics and classroom discourse analysis.

On the other hand, the data collected through interviews was analyzed through thematic analysis. The findings of the study showed that teacher-student negotiated interaction is more effective than conventional (teacher-led) grammar instruction in improving students' ability to understand and use past tense forms and passive voice. In addition, teacher-student negotiated interaction enhanced EFL students' classroom participation in grammar classes. Furthermore, the students had a positive perception towards teacher–student negotiated interaction for learning grammar.

6.2. Conclusions

This study investigated the effects of teacher-student negotiated interaction (TSNI) on EFL students' grammar competence by comparing it with traditional teacher-led instruction. Negotiated interaction is one of the possible instructional options for teaching grammar by integrating form and meaning. Hence, based on the findings of the study, it is possible to conclude that teaching grammar through teacher–students negotiated interaction, which can be facilitated by using picture-based storytelling and information-gap tasks, is more beneficial than teaching grammar through the conventional (teacher-led) grammar instruction.

The findings of the study show that teacher–students negotiated interaction facilitates grammar learning by creating a natural–like environment, which helps the students to put grammatical rules to use in the context of conversation. The findings also suggest that teacher–students negotiated interaction facilitates grammar learning through hypothesis testing about the structures and meanings of the target linguistic features, obtaining immediate corrective feedback from the teacher, developing target language production automatically, and forcing the students to shift from semantic to syntactic processing. Accordingly, the outcome of the study suggests that classroom opportunities, especially for EFL students who have no external exposure, to use the target grammar elements for oral classroom communication develop the grammar elements in relevant circumstances.

It has been demonstrated that teacher-students negotiated interaction has a facilitative role in language learning. Hence, the use of different classroom interactional tasks draws the students' attention towards target grammar elements and gives them as many opportunities as possible to use the target grammar elements for classroom conversation to learn it better. Therefore, this learner-centered grammar instruction gave a better chance for the experimental

group students to learn grammar better than the comparison group students who learn the same grammatical elements via the conventional (teacher-led) approach.

Regarding the effects of teacher-students negotiated interaction on EFL students' classroom participation, the results of the study indicate that negotiated interactions between a teacher and students is learner-centered approach and hence, the approach encourages EFL students to participate in grammar classes. Furthermore, the interaction makes the students hold a positive perception towards learning grammar. The findings of this research also suggest that classroom opportunities for the students to use the target language grammatical elements for oral communication encourage EFL students' classroom participation and positive perception of grammar learning. Accordingly, a teacher uses a variety of classroom interaction tasks in order to arouse students' interest and give them as many opportunities as possible to use the target grammar elements for classroom conversation to learn them better.

6.3. Recommendations

The results of this study have a number of implications for interactive grammar teaching and further research. Hence, some recommendations that can be put into practice and for future research are provided below.

- Based on the findings of this study, it was found that teacher-student negotiated interaction has enhanced EFL students' grammar competence and classroom participation. The improvements that students show in grammatical judgment, gap filling, completion, sentence transformation, and story writing tasks compared to the comparison group students proved that TSNI is very helpful for learning grammar. Furthermore, the students expressed a positive perception of TSNI as a method for enhancing their grammar learning. Therefore, teachers should consider applying teacher-student negotiated interaction in grammar lessons.
- More precisely, TSNI gave exposure to the students to interact with the form, meaning, and use of the target grammar elements, in which the students could notice how the target grammar elements can be used for real-life communication. This was basically facilitated by the tasks used in the classroom. Therefore, it can be possible to recommend that grammar lessons should incorporate interactive tasks (e.g., picture-based storytelling,

information gap) that could give opportunities to EFL students to use the target grammar elements for conversation in the classroom to integrate form (structure of target grammar elements), meaning conveyed by these forms and use (how the target grammar elements can be used for communication) in classrooms.

- This study proved that negotiated interaction in grammar lessons helps to create a conducive environment for students to get modified/simplified input. Based on the study, classroom negotiation gives emphasis to meeting EFL students' needs for using grammar for effective oral communication. Hence, at the time of classroom negotiation, the students could have been given opportunities to ask a teacher for assistance on how the target grammar element is used for communication. This situation has the potential to make the input more simplified for the students, which may, in turn, facilitate grammar development. Therefore, English language teachers and syllabus designers are expected to give emphasis to solving EFL students' comprehension problems through grammatical restructuring, rephrasing, lexical substitution, or repetition in classroom negotiation.
- The findings revealed that the students who were treated with teacher-students negotiated interaction had been given opportunities to modify their incorrect use of the grammatical elements in oral production. This situation facilitated the students' grammar learning by providing opportunities for the students to practice L2 forms and to test their hypotheses about the use of the grammar elements. Output also facilitated the students' processing of the target linguistic elements better by forcing them to shift from semantic processing to syntactic processing. Therefore, in order to help students learn grammar more effectively through oral production, teachers and syllabus designers should integrate structured speaking activities that focus on target grammar elements in meaningful contexts and encourage grammar-in-context through speaking.
- Implicit corrective feedback, which is one construct of teacher-students negotiated interaction, didn't discourage the participation of students in grammar classes. This output-promoting feedback, which was given to students in the form of techniques of negotiation like clarification requests, confirmation checks or comprehension checks, elicited the students' production of the target linguistic elements. Hence, teachers should give implicit corrective feedback by reformulating students' incorrect utterances

naturally, without explicit correction, and eliciting students to correct their ungrammatical speeches.

- The value of interaction in grammar classes is also explained through sociocognitive and sociocultural approaches, in which students can get assistance and scaffolding from interlocutors, the teacher in the context of this study. Hence, teachers' assistance and scaffolding facilitated the students' grammar competence and classroom participation in grammar lessons in the study. Therefore, assisting and scaffolding students to learn target grammar elements should be the primary responsibility of teachers. In addition, the aim of grammar syllabuses should focus on teaching grammar interactively and communicatively.

6.4. Limitations of the study

As stated earlier, the findings indicate TSNI affects the students' grammar competence and classroom participation. Yet, before the findings are generalized to the whole population, some of the limitations should be addressed to make future researchers fill the gap (Creswell, 2014). One question concerns the degree to which these results could be generalized to other general secondary schools. It was only one general secondary school that was selected in this study, and the participants were also selected from two grade ten sections in the selected general secondary school. The question that remains is how applicable TSNI is to the problems of students' grammar competence and classroom participation in other general secondary schools with students struggling with using grammatical elements for real-life communication. The other limitation is that TSNI may not represent other types of interactions, like learner–learner or learner–native speaker interactions. Therefore, it needs further research to see the effects of these types of interactions on students' grammar competence. In addition, all participants of this study were from the same L1 background and culture. Therefore, it may lack the generalizability of the findings to other settings and cultures. Future studies should explore diverse EFL contexts.

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Appendix A: Tests - pilot study

Past tenses

I. Grammaticality Judgment Test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect.

1. Last week I go to the park.
2. Last night my neighbors were shouting for hours and I couldn't get to sleep.
3. My cousin visited us last summer.
4. When the teacher enters the class everybody had done the homework.
5. I opened the door and looked inside.
6. The plane land ten minutes ago.
7. When I am younger, I played with classroom friends.
8. I bought ten books when I was grade eleven student
9. We walked to school yesterday.
10. She laughs when I told her the joke.
11. You and Aster were not at school yesterday.
12. My brother cut his finger this morning.
13. I kicked the ball hard and it breaks a window.

II. Gap Filling

Complete the following gaps by using the verbs in brackets into a suitable past verb form.

This time last year, I (1)_____ (cycle) in the rain along a country broad in France with a friend of mine. We (2) _____ (decide) to go on a cycling holiday in Normandy. Neither of us (3) _____ (be) to France before, but we (4) _____ (know) some French from our time at school and we (5) _____ (manage) to brush up on the basics. Now we (6) _____ (wonder) if we (7) _____ (make) the right decision. We (8) _____ (plan) our route carefully in advance, but we (9) _____ (forget) one important thing, the weather. It (10) _____ (rain) solidly since our arrival and that night we (11)_____ (end up) sleeping in the waiting room at a railway station. Then

the next morning as we (12) _____ (ride) down a steep hill my bike (13) _____ (skid) on the wet road and I (14) _____ (fall off). I (15) _____ (realize) immediately that I (16) (break) _____ my arm, and after a visit to the local hospital I (17) _____ (catch) the next train to Calais for the ferry home. Unfortunately my parents (18) _____ (not/expect) me home for a fortnight, and (19) _____ (go) away on holiday. So I (20) _____ (spend) a miserable couple of weeks alone, reading 'Teach Yourself French'.

III. Completion

Complete the following conversation with correct form of the past tenses

1. Teacher: What did you do yesterday morning?

Student: _____

2. Father: Why did you show bad behavior in front of guests?

Soon: Excuse me, I showed bad behavior because _____

3. Supervisor: Why didn't you complete your proposal on time?

Advisee: Because I _____

4. Teacher: Good morning students? Why did you absent yesterday?

Students: Because most of us _____

5. Aster: Did you tell Dawit about the ceremony

Mamo: No, because _____

6. Dawit: Did you enjoy reading English novels when you were a student?

Selamawit: Yes, I _____. But I prefer Amharic fictions.

7. Solomon: Do you ever bake?

Abebe: Yes, my mother _____.

8. Your friend: Have you been to Hawassa?

You: Yes, I _____.

9. Teacher: What was wrong with you?

Student: I _____

10. Father: Were you playing football yesterday?

Son: _____

V. Writing

Write a paragraph of about 80 to 120 words on one of the topics given below by using past tenses.

- Your primary education
- The success of a famous person you know in history

[illegible]

Passive voice

I. Writing

Change the following sentences from active to passive voice

1. He drives a red car.
2. The company produces high-quality goods.
3. I clean my room every day
4. My sister is singing in a choir concert tonight.
5. They are preparing a surprise party for their friend.
6. I am teaching a yoga class at the community center
7. She has bought a new car.
8. They have lived in this city since 2010.
9. He has lost his keys.

10. I finished reading the book yesterday.
11. The company will be launching a new product in the coming months.
12. My friend will be preparing dinner for us tonight.
13. The students will be writing their research papers next week.

II. Grammaticality Judgment Test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect.

1. The lesson is teaching by the teacher.
2. The song is being sung by a famous artist.
3. The data are being analyzing using statistical methods.
4. The clothes are being washing by the washing machine.
5. The computer is being repaired by a technician.
6. The presentation being prepared by the marketing department.
7. The package has been shipped to the customer.
8. The decision has been making by the committee.
9. The document has signed by the CEO.
10. The house was building by the contractor in 2010.
11. The letter is writing by Sarah.
12. The movie watched by millions of people.
13. The report is prepared by the team

III. Multiple choices

Choose the best answer for each of the following questions. Circle letters of your choices.

1. His duty must _____ by him in a week.
 A. finished B. be finished C. be finishing D. finish
2. The gate must _____ by Melaku every morning.
 A. not be opened B. be opening C. open D. have opened
3. He might _____ his breakfast.
 A. have been eating B. have eaten C. ate D. have ate
4. The clothes _____ by my mother.
 A. were bought B. are buying C. buy D. were buying
5. We would usually _____ burgers in the food court.
 A. have eaten B. eating C. eat D. ate

6. Asters' assignment _____ throughout the day.
 A. has done B. has being done C. being done D. did
7. The chocolate _____ by the children now.
 A. is eating B. was eaten C. has been eaten D. is being eaten
8. The art collection containing over 2000 works _____ in the fire.
 A. was lost B. lost C. had lost D. being lost
9. I will _____ the cakes.
 A. baked B. have baked C. have been baked D. have been baking
10. The candle _____ by him.
 A. is lightening B. is not lightened C. was lightening D. lights
11. Let the truth always _____.
 A. is spoken B. be spoken C. are spoken D. were spoken
12. You _____ not to smoke in public place.
 A. are requested B. be requested C. are request D. request
13. My uncle _____ to Ethiopia next week.
 A. will come B. will be come C. will have been come D. come

V. Gap Filling

Complete the following gaps by using active or passive forms of the verbs in bracket.

1. A car _____ by me now (drive).
2. My book has _____ by her (steal).
3. He _____ his books all the day (revise).
4. The assignment _____ by me (complete).
5. We shall have _____ our home-work (do).
6. The problems cannot _____ by me (solve).
7. Can the teacher _____ us the assignment this week (give)
8. This book must _____ by you (learn).
9. Chess might _____ by them (play).
10. Students should _____ all lessons (learn).

Appendix B: Experimental group teaching material

Introduction

This teaching material focuses on past tenses (simple past, past continuous, past perfect, and present perfect). These grammatical elements are presented in the form of teacher-students negotiated interaction in which students are expected to use to express their past activities and events and understand and make inferences about the forms, meanings, and functions of past tenses in the different contexts that they can be used by a teacher and students.

Objectives: At the end of this lesson, you should be able to:

- Express past actions shown in pictures by using proper forms of past tenses
- Work out the forms, meanings, and uses of past tenses in various context
- Understand the forms, meanings, and uses of past tenses
- Improve your knowledge of past tenses and using it for daily communication
- Enhance your skills and abilities to use past tenses

Talking about completed actions of the past

1. See the pictures bellow and talk with your teacher about completed actions happened in the past.



Teacher: Okay, students, today we are going to learn expressing past actions by looking at stories told through pictures. Let's examine the first picture. What happened?..... Dawit?

Dawit: Um....the woman.....the woman is collecting coffee cherries.

Teacher: Yes, the woman is collecting coffee cherries. But how we express the same action in the past?.....Ahmed?

Ahmed. Um....the....the woman is collected coffee cherries.

Teacher: The woman is collected coffee cherries? (Stress on the target form).....Aster?

Aster: The...um...the woman collects coffee cherries.

Teacher: The woman collected coffee cherries?

Aster: Yes, the woman collected coffee cherries.

Teacher: Alright students, let us move on to the next picture.....Belay?

Belay: The womanand.... child are sweeping the floor.

Teacher: Great! The woman and her child are sweeping the floor...in the past?..Worku?

Worku: The...um...the man.....the woman and her child swept the floor.

Teacher: What did you say? swept? Anyone?

Worku: The woman.....the woman and her child swept the floor.

Teacher: Wonderful! Now students go to the next pictures and tell me what happened.

2. Use the past simple forms of the verbs written in brackets to complete the blank spaces.

- a. My father ----- grade 12 student in 1992 (be).
- b. He----- Addis Ababa University in 1993. He ----- Biology (join, study).
- c. But my father-----biology so he changed to chemistry (like).
- d. Then he-----university in 1996 and ----- to teach in Dangila Secondary School (finish, start).
- e. But after five years, in 2000 he----- British for scholarship (go).

3. Individually, write a paragraph of five to seven sentences that describes the activities you did yesterday.

Expressing past actions in progress

1. See the pictures bellow and talk with your teacher about past actions in progress



Teacher: Okay, students, today we are going to learn expressing past actions in progress by looking at stories told through pictures. Let's examine the first picture. What happened?..... Assefa?

Assefa: Um....they.....they wash dishes.

Teacher: They wash dishes? Mamaru?

Mamaru: Um....the....they are washing dishes.

Teacher: Yes, they are washing dishes. But how we express past actions in progress?.....Abel?

Abel: They...um...they were washing dishes.

Teacher: Great! Now students go to the next pictures and tell me what happened.

2. Use the past continuous forms of the verbs written in the box bellow or any other verbs you like and interact with your teacher on how to express past actions in progress.

drink open get write swim paint clean pretend

E.g. Teacher: What were you doing when I phoned to you?

Student1: I were drink my coffee when you phoned to me.

Teacher: You were drink your coffee when I phoned to you?

Student2: I was drink my coffee when you phoned to me.

Teacher: DRINK? Dawit... could you try?

Dawit: I was drinking my coffee when you phoned to me.

Teacher: Good..... you were drinking your coffee when I phoned to you.

Dawit: Yes, I was drinking my coffee when you phoned to me.

1. Write the past continuous forms of the verbs written in brackets to complete the text.

The first two are done as examples.

A few years ago we were living (live) in Addis Ababa at the time of the Adiwa festival. My wife was not working (not work) that weekend so we decided to drive to Cannes to see some of the new films. The sun (1) _____ (shine) when we arrived and the town looked beautiful. It was very busy – lots of people (2) _____ (walk) in the streets. But it wasn't very hot that day so people (3) _____ (not sunbathe) on the beach. We got to our hotel and went to the restaurant. We had a big surprise – Aster (4) _____ (sit) at the back of the restaurant! But she (5) _____ (not have) lunch, she (6) _____ (talk) to some other famous places. It was so exciting!

3. Complete the questions and short answers below. Use information from Exercise 2.

1. Was the sun shining when they arrived? Yes, it was.
2. _____ lots of people _____ in the streets? – Yes, they were.
3. _____ people _____ on the beach? – No, they weren't.
4. Who _____ at the back of the restaurant? – Aster
5. _____ she _____ lunch? – No, she wasn't.

Actions started in the past and continues up to present, recently completed actions and past actions with indefinite time

1. Use the present perfect forms of the verbs listed below and talk about actions started in the past and continue up to now, recently completed events and past actions with indefinite time.

live	break	play	complete	be	finish	speak	drive	see
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E.g.1. Teacher: Okay, students where do you live?

Student1: I lived here for the past five years.

Teacher: “You lived here for the past five years?”

Student2: Teacher...teacher..., I am living here for the past five years.

Teacher: “You are living? is it living?”

Student3: I have lived here for the past five years.

Teacher: That is great! (The teacher writes the modified input on the black board).

E.g. 2. Teacher: Students, can you describe the physical appearance of an elephant?

Student: Sorry teacher, I don't see an elephant physically in my life.

Teacher: "You haven't seen an elephant physically?"

Student: Yes I haven't seen an elephant physically.

1. Underline the correct word or phrase written in italics in each sentence.

a. I can't believe it, Inspector. You mean that Smith *stole/has stolen/has bee stealing* money from the till all this time.

b. You three boys look very guilty! What did you do/have you done/have you been doing since I left/have left the room?

c. Why on earth didn't you tell/haven't you told me about that loose floorboard? I tripped/have tripped over it just now and hurt myself.

d. It's a long time since I saw/have seen/have been seeing your brother Paul. What did he do/has he done/has he been doing lately?

e. I can't believe that you ate/have eaten/have been eating three pizzas already! I only brought/have only brought them in fifteen minutes ago!

f. Don't forget that you didn't see/haven't seen Dr. Abebe. She *has waited/has been waiting* outside since 10.

g. What did you think/have you thought of Brighton? Did you stay/Have you stayed there long?

h. I feel really tired. I weeded/have weeded/have been weeding the garden for the last three hours and I didn't rest/haven't rested for a single moment.

j. I'm having problems with Dawit. He has called/has been calling me up in the middle of the night and told/telling me his troubles.

k. How long did you have/have you had/have you been having driving lessons?

Expressing an action which was done before another action in the past

1. Interact with your teacher about an action which was done another action by using the past perfect forms of the verbs listed bellow

finish work marry paint live loss pass

E.g. Teacher: When did you do your homework?

Student1: I have finish my homework when the teacher entered the class.

Teacher: “‘You have finish your homework when the teacher entered the class?’”

Student2: I have finished my homework when the teacher entered the class.

Teacher: Do you mean “ ‘ You had finished your homework before the teacher entered the class.

Student2: Yes, I had finished my homework when the teacher entered the class.

2. Use the verbs in brackets to complete them in the past perfect (simple or continuous) and/or the past simple.

1. When I _____ (get) home, I _____ (realize) that I _____ (leave) my phone at work.
2. When Almaz finally (get) her license, she _____ (take) driving lessons for more than two years.
3. The thief _____ (be) only arrested after he _____ (burgle) more than ten houses in the village.
4. I _____ (be) sorry when I _____ (hear) about Jim's problems, though I _____ (never like) him very much.
5. When my mother _____ (come) to visit us in Hong Kong last year, she (never be) on an airplane before.
6. My sister _____ (phone) last night to say that she _____ (pass) all her exams.
7. When the lorry driver _____ (fall) asleep at 2.13 a.m., he _____ (drive) non-stop for nearly 20 hours.
8. When I _____ (see) the film everyone was talking about, I _____ (think) it _____ (be) one of the most boring films I _____ (ever see).

3. Study the following sentences and talk about them with your teacher and try to identify the first and second actions.

1. Mary had given me Tony's address before she left.
2. When the boys arrived at the cinema, the film had already started

3. Before we reached the station we saw that we had lost our way.
4. All the tickets had been sold before the concert began.
5. They took a shower after they had finished the game.
6. I asked Mr. Green how many books he had read
7. Mum asked me why I had not tidied up my room.
8. Bob was sorry that he had told me the story.
9. Alan watched TV after he had had lunch.
10. The sun shone yesterday after it had been cold for many weeks.
11. Uncle David went to the doctor after he had been ill for a month.
12. Before the police caught the thief, he had stolen two more watches.
13. Mum once painted a picture although she had never learnt it.
14. I did not tell my teacher that my mum had helped me with my homework.
15. I was very angry when I saw that my brother had eaten my apple.
16. The bike was much more expensive than he had thought at first.
17. Dad drove me home after I had fallen into the water.
18. Marion asked me what had happened to me last week.
19. We had eaten two Big Macs before we went home.
20. Paul did not say that he had taken Albert's watch.

Reviewing present perfect, simple past, and past perfect

1. Write about the following topics with two paragraphs and read it to your teacher.

- a. Your educational history
- b. Any bad or good news you face in the past
- c. Your friends in elementary school

2. Study the following sentences and talk about them with your teacher and try to identify the first and second actions.

1. The days became colder after it had snowed.
2. Martin told me that he had been in London.
3. I felt great after I had passed the exam.
4. It was Freddy who had cleaned the room.
5. He has ignored his work and frequently played games on his cellphone.

6. I was sorry that I had not been nicer to him.
7. Nobody came to the meeting because Angela had forgotten to tell them about it.
8. I know that I had seen her somewhere before.
9. Because she had not checked the oil for so long, the car broke down.
10. She couldn't find the book that I had lent her.
11. Ethiopians have never given our hands to our enemies since the dawn of history .
12. It was a firm that I had never heard of.
13. When she came in we all knew where she had been
14. The lesson had already started when I arrived.
15. Someone has stolen my laptop computer
16. Our university has brought about a significant change in managing the financial office over the last ten year..
17. When he had painted the kitchen he decided to have a rest.
18. After I had finished the report, I saw that it was too late.

Questions, Negatives and past forms of irregular verbs

3. Talk about events that you didn't do in the past with your teacher by using irregular verbs written in the box. See an example bellow.

Write see get eat shut go begin become choose fall

E.g. Teacher: Did you go out last night?

Student1: Yes, to the cinema but I don't enjoyed the film.

Teacher: "To the cinema but you don't enjoyed?" is it?

Student2: Yes, I went to the cinema and I didn't enjoyed the film

Teacher: "You went to the cinema but you didn't enjoy it?"

Student3: Yes, I went to the cinema but I didn't enjoy.

4. Read what Aster says about a typical working day

I usually get up at 7 o'clock and have a big breakfast. I walk to work, which takes me about half an hour. I start work at 8.45. I never have lunch I finish work at 5 o'clock I 'm always tired when I get home. I usually cook a meal in the evening. I don't usually go out. I go to bed at about 11 o'clock. I always sleep well.

Yesterday was a typical working day for Aster. Write what she did or didn't do yesterday.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. <u>She got up at 7 o'clock.</u> | 7. _____ at 5 o'clock. |
| 2. She _____ a big breakfast. | 8. _____ tired when _____ home. |
| 3. She _____ . | 9. _____ a meal yesterday evening. |
| 4. It _____ to get to work. | 10. _____ out yesterday evening. |
| 5. _____ at 8.45. | 11. _____ at 11 o'clock. |
| 6. _____ lunch. | 12. _____ well last night. |

Introduction

This teaching material focuses on passive voice in which using passive voice strategically can add variety to students' writing style, making it more interesting and sophisticated. In addition, using passive voice can be useful when students want to emphasize the object or when the subject is unknown, unimportant, or irrelevant. It also helps to depersonalize the writing by removing the explicit mention of the subject. Furthermore, passive voice helps to maintain a clear and concise description of procedures, experiments, or observations in students' writing.

Objectives: At the end of this lesson, you should be able to:

- Use passive voice to add variety to your writing style, making it more interesting and sophisticated.
- Shift the focus from the subject performing the action to the object receiving the action.
- Depersonalize the writing by removing the explicit mention of the subject.
- Soften the impact of a statement or to avoid assigning blame or responsibility directly.
- Focus solely on the action by removing the subject.
- To maintain a clear and concise description of procedures, experiments, or observations.

Using passive voice

1. See the pictures bellow and talk with your teacher about what is happening



Teacher: Okay, students, today we are going to learn expressing actions by using passive voice. Hence, looking at the picture in your text book and tell me what is happening. Let's examine the first picture. What happened?..... Aster?

Aster: Um....people.....the people are washing their clothes.

Teacher: Yes, the people are washing their clothes. But how we express the action in the passive voice?.....Belayneh?

Belayneh. Um....the....the clothes are washing by the people.

Teacher: The clothes are washing by the people? (stress on the target form).....Selamawit?

Selamawit: The...um...the clothes are washed by the people.

Teacher: The clothes are being washed by the people?

Selamawit: Yes, the clothes are being washed by the people.

Teacher: Alright students, let us move on to the next picture.....Belay?

Belay: The man..... the man is looking after goats and sheep.

Teacher: Great! The man is looking after goats and sheep...in passive voice?....Degu?

Degu: The...um...the goats and sheep.....the goats and sheep are looking after by the man .

Teacher: What did you say? Are looking? Anyone?

Solomon: The goats....um...the goats and sheep are being looked after by the man.

Teacher: Wonderful! Now students go to the next pictures and tell me what happened.

Sentence transformations in present simple tense

2. Interact with your teacher to change the following active voice sentences in the present simple tense written below in to passive sentences.

14. Daniel writes a novel every month.

15. The cat chases the mouse.

16. She sings beautifully.

17. They play basketball on weekends.

18. We eat dinner at 7 o'clock

E.g.1. Teacher: Who can change 'Daniel writes a novel every month' in to passive?

Student1: A novel is writes every month by Daniel.

Teacher: What did you say? Anyone please?

Student2: A novel is writing every month by Daniel

Teacher: “A novel **is written** every month by Daniel?”

Student2: Yes, a novel is written every month by Daniel.

3. Change the following active voice sentences in to passive voice

1. The teacher explains the lesson to the students.
2. He drives a red car.
3. The company produces high-quality goods.
4. I clean my room every day.
5. The students read the book.
6. John drives the car

3. Complete the following gaps by using the passive forms of verbs in the brackets.

14. The lesson _____ by the teacher (teach).
15. The song _____ by a famous artist (sing).
16. The tub _____ with water (fill).
17. Sonia _____ by Professor Brown (teach).
18. The computer _____ by the technician (repair).
19. The data are _____ using statistical methods (analyze).

Sentence transformations in the present continuous tense

1. Interact with your teacher to change the following active voice sentences in the present continuous tense written bellow into passive sentences.

1. Sarah is cooking dinner in the kitchen.
2. The children are playing in the park.
3. We are studying for our exams at the library.
4. He is writing a novel on his laptop.
5. The construction workers are building a new skyscraper downtown.
6. The team is practicing for the upcoming match.

E.g. Teacher: please transform ‘Sarah is cooking dinner in the kitchen’ into passive voice?

Student1: Dinner cooked in the kitchen by Sara.

Teacher: “Dinner cooked in the kitchen by Sara?” Where is verb to ‘Be’?

Student2: Dinner is cooked in the kitchen by Sara.

Teacher: Where is a continuous form of a verb?

Student2: Okay, Dinner is being cooked in the kitchen by Sara.

Teacher: That is great!

Correcting passive sentences in the present perfect tense

1. Correct the following wrongly written passive sentences in the present perfect tense by interacting with your teacher

1. The car has repaired by the mechanic.
2. The book has been writing by a renowned author.
3. The house has sold to a new owner.
4. The project has been completing by the team.
5. The cake has being backed by my sister

E.g. Teacher: Okay students, who can correct the first passive sentence?

Student1: The car has been repaired by the mechanic.

Teacher: Okay, any other student?

Student2: The car has being repaired by the mechanic.

Teacher: “The car **has been** repaired by the mechanic? ”

Student2: Yes, The car has been repaired by the mechanic.

1. Change the following active voice sentences in to passive voice sentences

1. I have finished my homework.
2. She has visited Paris twice.
3. They have already eaten dinner.
4. He has written a book.
5. We have seen that movie before.

2. Complete the following gaps by using the passive forms of verbs in the brackets.

1. The letter has _____ to the recipient (deliver).
2. The problem has _____ by the IT department (solve).
3. The package has _____ to the customer (ship).
4. The decision has _____ by the committee (make).
5. The document has _____ by the CEO (sign).

Sentence transformations in the past simple tense

1. Interact with your teacher to change the following active voice sentences in the simple past tense written below into passive sentences.

1. John played soccer yesterday.
2. She ate a delicious meal at the restaurant.
3. They went to the beach last summer.
4. We watched a movie on Friday night.
5. The cat chased the mouse around the house.

E.g. Teacher: Okay students; who can change the first sentence into passive voice?

Student1: Soccer is played yesterday by John.

Teacher: What did you say?

Student2: Soccer was being played by John yesterday?

Teacher: “Soccer was played by John yesterday?”

Student3: Yes, soccer was played by John yesterday.

2. Change the following active voice sentences in to passive voice sentences

1. The students studied hard for the exam.
2. Sarah baked a cake for her sister's birthday.
3. The company produced a new line of products.
4. I finished reading the book yesterday
5. The teacher gave me the book

3. Complete the following gaps by using the passive forms of verbs in the brackets.

1. The cake _____ by my grandmother yesterday (bake).
2. The car _____ by the mechanic in last week (repair).
3. The book was written by a famous author.
4. The house _____ in 1920 (build).
5. The letter _____ yesterday (send).

Correcting passive sentences in the past continuous tense

1. Correct the following wrongly written passive sentences by negotiating with your teacher

1. The cake was been baked by Mary.
2. The cars are being repaired by the mechanic yesterday.

3. The house was been painted by a professional painter.
4. The documents were be reviewed by the team.
5. The concert is being enjoyed by the audience last week.

E.g. Teacher: Okay, students who can correct the first passive sent

Student1: The cake was baked by Mary.

Teacher: “The cake was baked by Mary?”

Student2: The cake was been baked by Marry.

Teacher: “The cake was being baked by Marry?”

Student3: Yes, the cake was being baked by Mary.

2. Change the following active voice sentences in to passive voice sentences

1. I was studying for my exam last night.
2. She was cooking dinner while I was watching TV.
3. They were playing soccer when it started to rain.
4. He was reading a book when the phone rang.
5. We were walking in the park when we saw a beautiful sunset.

3. Complete the following gaps by using passive forms of verbs in past continuous tense form in the brackets.

1. The cake _____ by Mary (bake).
2. The car _____ by the mechanic (repair).
3. The house _____ by a professional painter (paint).
4. The documents _____ by the team (review).
5. The concert _____ by the audience (enjoy).

Sentence transformations in the past perfect tense

1. Interact with your teacher to change the following active voice sentences in the simple past tense written bellow into passive sentences.

1. He had already eaten dinner when his guests arrived.
2. The train had left the station by the time we reached there.
3. They had completed the project before the deadline.
4. She had already finished her homework before her friends arrived.
5. The movie had started by the time we got to the theater.

E.g. E.g.1. Teacher: Okay students, anyone to change the first sentence into passive voice?

Student1: Dinner had already eaten by him before his guests arrived.

Teacher: “Dinner had been already eaten by him before his guests arrived?”

Student2: Yes, dinner had been already eaten by him before his guests arrived.

2. Change the following active voice sentences in to passive voice sentences

1. Sarah had already booked her flight before she received the invitation.
2. The company had achieved record sales before the recession hit.
3. I had finished reading the book before the movie adaptation was released.
4. The storm had passed by the time we reached the beach.
5. The recipient had received the message.

3. Complete the following gaps by using passive forms of verbs in the past perfect tense form in the brackets.

1. The cake _____ by the time we arrived at the party (eat).
2. The report _____ before the deadline by the team (submit).
3. The car _____ by the mechanic before it broke down again (repair).
4. The movie _____ millions of people before it won the award (watch).
5. The documents _____ by the receptionist, causing a delay (misplace).

Correcting passive sentences in the future tense

1. Correct the following wrongly written passive sentences in the future simple tense by interacting with your teacher

1. The cake will baked by my sister.
2. The documents will be signing by the manager.
3. The house will been cleaned by the cleaning service.
4. The package will be delivering tomorrow.
5. The report would be prepared by the team.
6. The project will be being completing by the team tomorrow.
7. The new building will be being constructing by the construction crew next month.
8. The car will be being repairing by the mechanic all day.
9. The cake will have baked by the time the guests arrive.
10. The report will have submitted before the deadline.

11. The project will have completed by the end of the month

E.g. Teacher: all right students, who can correct the first sentence?

Student 1: The cake will bake by my sister.

Teacher: “The cake will bake by my sister? Is it?”

Student2: The cake will be baking by my sister.

Teacher: “The cake will be baked by my sister?”

Student2: Yes, the cake will be baked by my sister.

2. Change the following active voice sentences in to passive voice sentences

1. I will eat dinner at 7 p.m. tomorrow.
2. She will finish her project by next week.
3. They will visit their grandparents during the summer vacation.
4. He will buy a new car next month.
5. We will attend the conference on Friday.
6. I will be studying for the exam tomorrow evening.
7. They will be playing soccer at the park this weekend.
8. She will be working on a new project next week.
9. By tomorrow, I will have completed my assignment.
10. They will have finished building the new bridge by next month.
11. She will have earned her degree by the end of this year.
- 12.

3. Complete the following gaps by using passive forms of verbs in the future simple tense form in the brackets.

1. The car _____ by the mechanic (repair).
2. The movie _____ by millions of people (watch).
3. The project _____ by the deadline (complete).
4. The tickets _____ online (buy).
5. The letter _____ and sent to the recipient (write).
6. The books _____ being read by the students during the class (be).
7. The concert will be being _____ attend by thousands of fans (attend).
8. The house will be being _____ by the cleaning service next week (clean).

Sentence transformations in the conditional tenses

1. Interact with your teacher to change the following active voice sentences in the conditional tense written below into passive sentences.

1. If I had enough money, I would travel the world.
2. If she studied harder, she would pass the exam.
3. If they won the lottery, they would buy a luxurious mansion.
4. If we worked together, we could finish the project in time
5. If I had studied harder, I would have passed the exam.
6. If she had listened to my advice, she would have avoided the problem.
7. If they had arrived on time, we would have caught the train.
8. If he had practiced regularly, he would have become a skilled pianist.

E.g. Teacher: Okay students, who can change the first sentence

Student1: If I had enough money, the world would travel.

Teacher: Could you say it again please?

Student2: If I had enough money, the world would be traveled.

Teacher: You are right!

2. Change the following active voice sentences in to passive voice sentences

1. If he practiced every day, he would become a skilled pianist.
2. If you called the police, they would come to help you.
3. If it rained tomorrow, we would stay indoors.
4. If she had more free time, she would volunteer at the shelter.
5. If we had taken a different route, we would have avoided the traffic jam.
6. If you had called me earlier, I would have been able to help you.
7. If the weather had been better, we would have gone for a hike.
8. If they had won the match, they would have advanced to the finals.

3. Complete the following gaps by using passive forms of verbs in the conditional tense form in the brackets.

1. The room would _____ by the hotel staff if requested (clean).
2. The concert tickets would _____ by my friend if they were available (buy).
3. The letter would _____ by him if he had the necessary information (write).

4. The decision would _____ by the committee if they reached a consensus (make).
5. The problem would have _____ if more time had been given (solve).
6. The package would have _____ if the delivery had not been delayed (receive).
7. The book would have _____ if it had been more interesting (read).
8. The project would have _____ if the necessary resources had been provided (receive).
9. He _____ a letter now (write).
10. Aster _____ a book today in the morning (read).
11. He _____ at by them yesterday (look).
12. The watchman always _____ the door (opens).
13. Eggs _____ by hens (lay).
14. The dinner is always _____ by her (prepare).
15. Chocolates _____ by them at this time (eat).
16. The guitar is always _____ by Jacob (play).
17. They _____ bananas (eat).
18. The newspaper is _____ by him (read).

Appendix C: Tests-Main study

Test one: Past tenses

I. Grammaticality judgment test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect

1. Last week, I went for a long walk in the park and enjoy the beautiful weather.
2. The giant panda give birth to a cub last night.
3. In the previous month, I traveled to Hawassa and visited Lake Langano.
4. When I was a child, I used to spend my summers at my grandparents' house in the countryside.
5. In 2015, the national football match is held in Bahir Dar and I had the opportunity to attend some of the games.
6. During my elementary school years, I played in the school band and performed in various concerts and competitions.
7. In the early 2000s, cell phones are becoming increasingly popular, and I remember getting my first mobile phone during that time.
8. When I was growing up, my family used to go on road trips every summer, exploring different states and national parks.
9. In my previous job, I was responsible for managing a team of software developers and overseeing the development of various projects.
10. Who invented the computer?
11. That event happens long ago.
12. Are there many students in yesterday's class?
13. We visited our uncle last week.

II. Gap Filling

Complete the following sentences by using the verbs in brackets into a suitable past verb form.

1. Daniel _____ (give) me Aster's address before she left.
2. When the boys arrived at the cinema, the film _____ (already, start).
3. Before we reached the station we saw that we _____ (lose) our way.
4. All the tickets _____ (be) sold before the concert began.

5. They took a shower after they _____ (finish) the game.
6. I asked Mr Abebe how many books he _____ (read)
7. Solomon asked me why I _____ (not tidy) up my room.
8. Melaku was sorry that he _____ (told) me the story.
9. Efrata watched TV after he _____ (have) lunch.
10. The sun _____ (shine) yesterday after it _____ (be) cold for many weeks.
11. My uncle _____ (go) to the doctor after he _____ (be) ill for a month.
12. Before the police _____ (catch) the thief, he _____ (steal) two more watches.
13. Selamawit once _____ (paint) a picture although she _____
(never, learn) it.

III. Completion

Complete the following conversation with correct form of the past tenses

1. A: Hey, do you remember that camping trip we took last summer?
B: Oh yeah, _____
2. A: When did you leave the school?
B: _____
3. A: What happened when you suddenly fell over?
B: _____
4. A: Have you ever been to Addis Ababa?
B: _____
5. A: What did he tell you at his office?
B: _____
6. A: What was the reason that you were very happy yesterday?
B: _____
7. A: Did you hear the bad news when you spoke to him?
B: _____
8. A: What did she say when you asked her about the issue
B: _____
9. A: Was it raining before you left the bus station?
B: _____

10. A: I saw you on the street. Where were you going?

B: _____

V. Writing

Write a paragraph of about 80 to 120 words on one of the topics given below by using past tenses.

- a. Your last week activities
- b. The happiest festival you never forget

Passive voice

I. Writing

Change the following sentences from active to passive voice

6. The children were laughing and playing in the playground.
7. The mechanic was fixing the car engine when I arrived.
8. The teacher was explaining the lesson to the students.
9. Sarah was singing a song while Jack was playing the guitar.
10. The children were laughing and playing in the playground.
11. The mechanic was fixing the car engine when I arrived.
12. The teacher was explaining the lesson to the students.
13. Sarah was singing a song while Jack was playing the guitar
14. The company will launch a new product next year.
15. Mary will complete her studies and graduate in May.
16. The team will win the championship next season.
17. The train will arrive at the station at 8 a.m. tomorrow.
18. He will start his new job on Monday.

II. Grammaticality Judgment Test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect

1. The old man was helped by Rita.
2. I have called by him.
3. Football will be played by you.
4. The book would have read by her.
5. The cake had eaten by the time we arrived at the party.
6. The report had been submitted before the deadline by the team.
7. The can repair by the mechanic before it broke down again.
8. The package will be delivered tomorrow.
9. The report will be prepared by the team.
10. The research paper will have been published in a prestigious journal.
11. The package would be delivered by the courier if there were no delays.

12. The project would complete by the deadline if all the tasks were assigned efficiently.
 13. The movie would be watched by us if we had enough time.

III. Multiple choices

1. Choose the best answer for each of the following questions. Circle letters of your choices.

1. The picture had _____ by them.
 A. seen B. been seen C. saw D. see
2. You _____ not to smoke.
 A. are requesting B. request C. being request D. are requested
3. Your teacher should _____.
 A. obey B. been obeyed C. be obeyed D. being obeyed
4. The rose _____ sweet.
 A. smells B. is smelled C. is smelling D. had been smelled
5. All the children _____ an interesting story.
 A. are heard B. heard C. were heard D. hears
6. I _____ by Daniel.
 A. am helping B. have helped C. had been helping D. am being helped
7. Many books _____ by Aster.
 A. have been read B. are been reading C. are reading D. have read
8. Tewodros _____ a book yesterday morning.
 A. was being read B. was reading C. is reading D. had been reading
9. Ram _____ a letter.
 A. will have written B. will be written C. will be writing D. had written
10. Some students _____ in especial case in the class.
 A. should help B. should be helping C. should been help D. should been helped
11. I _____ you necessary help.
 A. shall give B. shall be given C. had been given D. should be given
12. Let a glass of water _____ by him.
 A. bring B. be bring C. be brought D. was brought
13. Your company _____ by many people.
 A. should be loved B. be love C. should be loving D. loves

V. Gap Filling

2. Complete the following gaps by using active or passive forms of the verbs in the brackets.

1. The child _____ to clean her room (tell).
2. The professor _____ you instructions (give).
3. The fish _____ by the seagull (catch).
4. The game _____ by the rookie (win).
5. Hundreds of residents _____ the library every week (visit).
6. The letter _____ by the secretary yesterday (write).
7. John _____ an apple in the morning (eat).
8. Flowers _____ every year (plant).
9. This photo _____ by my friend (take).
10. The committee _____ the meeting (cancel).
11. I _____ this by my brother (give).
12. The guide _____ you the museum (show).
13. The bank _____ yesterday (rob).

Test two: Past tenses

I. Grammaticality judgment test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect.

1. Mary has given me Aster's address before she left.
2. When the boys arrived at the cinema, the film had already started.
3. Before we reach the station we saw that we had lost our way.
4. All the tickets had been sold before the concert began.
5. They took a shower after they finished the game.
6. I asked Daniel how many books he reads.
7. My mother asks me why I had not tidied up my room.
8. Bob was sorry that he had told me the story.
9. Alan watched TV after he has had lunch.
10. The sun shone yesterday after it had been cold for many weeks.
11. My uncle went to the doctor after he was ill for a month.
12. Before the police caught the thief, he had stolen two more watches.
13. Aster once painted a picture although she had never learnt it

II. Gap Filling

Complete the following sentences by using the verbs in brackets into a suitable past verb form

1. It _____ (rain) for hours when the sun finally came out.
2. I left home before I realized I _____ (forget) my mobile phone.
3. Julia _____ (already find) somewhere to live when Rob offered her a room.
4. Did you know that Harry _____ (change) his plans?
5. Why did no one tell me that my computer _____ (crash)?
6. Alice _____ (have) such a bad day that she decided to have an early night.
7. Yesterday morning I got up and looked out of the window. The sun was shining but the ground was very wet. It _____ (rain).
8. She was very annoyed. She _____ (wait) for hours before the bus arrived.
9. When we got there, we saw that the town _____ (destroy) by the tornado.
10. I was shocked when I saw that my motorcycle _____ (steal).

11. Although the ship _____ (hit) by the bad storm, it managed to arrive on time.
 12. After I _____ (wait) for one hour, I finally saw the dentist.
 13. I was late for school. When I arrived, the teacher _____(come) into the class.

III. Completion

Complete the following conversation with correct form of the past tenses

1. A: Where did you go yesterday morning?
 B: _____
2. A: Have you finished your homework? When did you finish it?
 B: _____
3. A: When did you buy your car?
 B: _____
4. A: What happened when you reached the airport?

5. A: After completing your assignment what did you do yesterday?
 B: _____
6. A: When did you start learning English language?
 B: _____
7. A: Have you cleaned the room?
 B: _____
8. A: I have never seen an elephant; what about you?
 B: _____
9. A: You look very tired! what happened on you?
 B: _____
10. A: Where did you live before you come to this?
 B: _____

V. Writing

Write a paragraph of about 80 to 120 words on one of the topics given below by using past tenses.

- a. Your last week activities
- b. Unforgettable event in your life

Passive voice

I. Writing

Change the following sentences from active to passive voice

1. The construction workers are building a new skyscraper downtown.
2. The team is practicing for the upcoming match.
3. They have lived in this city since 2010.
4. He has lost his keys.
5. He wrote a letter to his friend.
6. The students studied hard for the exam.
7. The mechanic was fixing the car engine when I arrived.
8. The teacher was explaining the lesson to the students.
9. The team had won five consecutive matches before their first loss.
10. Sarah had already booked her flight before she received the invitation.
11. Mary will complete her studies and graduate in May.
12. The team will win the championship next season.
13. My friend will be preparing dinner for us tonight.

II. Grammaticality Judgment Test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect

1. The documents ought to sign by both parties.
2. The package would have been received if the delivery had not been delayed.

3. The book would have read if it had been more interesting.
4. The project would complete by the deadline if all the tasks were assigned efficiently.
5. The movie would be watched by us if we had enough time.
6. The announcement will have been made by the principal during the assembly.
7. The decision will have been taking by the board of directors by the time of the meeting.
8. The garden will be watering by the gardener every evening.
9. The books will be being read by the students during the class.
10. The package had been delivered to the wrong address by the courier service.
11. The damage had been doing to the house before the insurance claim was filed.
12. The novel was being written by a famous author.
13. The project was managing by a skilled coordinator.

III. Multiple choices

Choose the best answer for each of the following questions. Circle letters of your choices.

1. The man must _____ five burgers.
A. have eaten B. have been eaten C. eat D. ate
2. The law _____ to protect the public.
A. will passed B. was passed C. pass D. would pass
3. My mother _____ me to avoid the lake.
A. is advised B. has been advised C. advised D. was advised
4. Compromises _____ by all the warring factions.
A. were offered B. offered C. were offering D. offers
5. The pigs _____ near the main road in Tamworth.
A. saw B. have seen C. were seen D. had seen
6. John _____ away but _____ two hours later.
A. Was run/arrested B. ran/arrested C. ran/was arrested D. ran/arrest
7. The actress _____ a beautiful gown.
A. wear B. was wore C. had been wore D. wore
8. Halle Berry _____ in many movies.
A. has seen B. has been seen C. had seen D. saw
9. Many movies _____ in Hollywood.

- A. are made B. have made C. had made D. made
10. The names of the winners _____ printed in tomorrow's newspaper.
- A. Can be B. would be C. will be D. may be
11. The actress _____ all the people who helped her win.
- A. thanked B. are thanked C. were thanked D. will be thanked
12. Hollywood _____ at the beginning of the twentieth century.
- A. Has built B. was built C. has been building D. was building
13. Hollywood _____ the movie capital of the U.S.
- A. has become B. was become C. has been become D. became

V. Gap Filling

Complete the following gaps by using active or passive forms of the verbs in the brackets.

1. The winner _____ by a committee (choose).
2. They are _____ an award (present).
3. The best movie will _____ (pick).
4. They _____ the winner's name (announce).
5. The winners were _____ by journalists (interview).
6. You can _____ the movie on DVD (see).
7. Someone _____ the window by 3:00 p.m. (break).
8. We were _____ by a strange man (watch).
9. My manager _____ him to arrive earlier (tell).
10. The mistake could not have _____ by them (make).
11. Someone _____ the building last year (paint).
12. Penicillin _____ by Alexander Fleming in 1928 (discover).
13. Police officers were _____ the evidence (examine).

Test three: Past tenses

I. Grammaticality judgment test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect.

1. I work in a travel agency now. Before that I work in a shop.
2. We invited them to last our last week party but they were absent.
3. The police stop me on my way home last week.
4. She passes her examination very well because she studied very well.
5. Mozart wrote more than 600 pieces of music.
6. We have seen a Rose in town in a few days ago.
7. I went to the cinema three times last week.
8. I was cold, I shut the window.
9. They weren't able to come because they are so busy.
10. Did you go out last night or were you too tired?
11. The film was not very good. I don't enjoyed it very much.
12. This time last year I was living in Addis Ababa.
13. What are you doing at 10 o'clock last night?

II. Gap Filling

Complete the following sentences by using the verbs in brackets into a suitable past verb form

1. She _____ (go) home alone.
2. The wind _____ (blow) throughout the night.
3. An apple _____ (drop) on his head.
4. The Princess's ball _____ (roll) into the well.
5. A frog _____ into the well and _____ it back to her. (jump/bring)
6. Jack _____ (get) the highest grade in his English class.
7. The party _____ (begin) at 8:00 P.M.
8. He _____ his old car and _____ a new one. (sell/buy)
9. Jack _____ (climb)up the ladder carefully.
10. Who _____ (shut) all the windows?
11. Ancient people _____ (think) the huge bones belonged to giants.

12. The scientists _____ (find) the skull in museum's basement.

13. He _____ (know) the answer to the student's question.

III. Completion

Complete the following conversation with correct form of the past tenses

1. A: When did you marry?

B: _____

2. A: Do you ever visit Lalibella Church in Ethiopia?

B: _____

3. A: What did you do after you have finished the homework?

B: _____

4. A: Have you ever ridden in an ambulance?

B: _____

5. A: What time did you start work in yesterday morning?

B: _____

6. A: When did you build your second house?

B: _____

7. A: Where do you prefer for your last year's entertainment?

B: _____

8. A: Where did you study your first degree?

B: _____

9. A: Why did you neglect to do the exercise?

B: _____

10. A: What made you to be worried?

B: _____

V. Writing

Write a paragraph of about 80 to 120 words on one of the topics given below by using past tenses.

1. Your childhood memories
2. The first time you went to a city

Passive voice

I. Writing

Change the following sentences from active to passive voice

1. The company ought to invest in new technology.
2. He would always help his friends in need.
3. We should exercise regularly to stay healthy.
4. They might travel to Europe next summer
5. If we had taken a different route, we would have avoided the traffic jam.
6. If you had called me earlier, I would have been able to help you.
7. If the weather had been better, we would have gone for a hike.
8. He will have saved enough money to buy a car by the age of 25.
9. We will have traveled to five different countries by the end of our trip.
10. The company will have launched its new product by next week.
11. He will be attending a conference next month.
12. The children will be swimming in the pool all afternoon.
13. The company will be launching a new product in the coming months.

II. Grammaticality Judgment Test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect

1. An essay has been writing by him.
2. Jacob always plays the guitar.

3. The bananas are being eaten by them.
4. Has he been done the work?
5. Has the apartment been leaving by them?
6. He created this masterpiece.
7. The newspaper is being read by him.
8. The teacher called the student.
9. The fruits were not buying by her.
10. He was being waited for by them.
11. Her work had been finished by me
12. He had been missed the last meeting.
13. The meeting will be started by him.

III. Multiple choices

Choose the best answer for each of the following questions. Circle letters of your choices.

1. The assignment _____ by me.
A. completed B. had completed C. had been completed D. was completing
2. Was he _____ his books?
A. revising B. been revised C. revised D. is revised
3. My tuition fee will _____ by my uncle.
A. paid B. be paid C. be paying D. have paid
4. We shall _____ our home-work.
A. done B. be done C. have done D. be doing
5. Shall our home -work _____ by us?
A. have been done B. have been doing C. are doing D. were doing
6. This book must _____ by you.
A. been learning B. being learnt C. be learnt D. be learning
7. Students should _____ all lessons.
A. learn B. be learned C. be learning D. have leaned
8. You _____ to do me a favor tonight.
A. are requested B. are requesting C. request D. have requested
9. Kindly do not _____ in public place.
A. be smoking B. smoke C. have smoke D. be smoked
10. Was he _____ his books?
A. revised B. being revised C. had revised D. revising
11. The candle _____ by him.

- A. was lightening B. is lighted C. has lightened D. lights
12. Is a car _____ by me?
A. being driven B. was driven C. was driving D. driving
13. Grass _____ by the cow.
A. was eaten B. is eaten C. has been eating D. has been eaten

V. Gap Filling

Complete the following gaps by using active or passive forms of the verbs in the brackets.

1. Someone is _____ our house at the moment (paint).
2. _____ to work hard by my boss (make).
3. Somebody _____ our house (break into).
4. The living room had _____ with flowery wallpaper (decorate).
5. Everyone knows the portrait _____ by an Italian (paint).
6. The furniture _____ in dust yesterday (cover).
7. The car hasn't _____ for a long time (serve).
8. They are _____ to put in a new water-heater next week (come).
9. We had _____ the wiring with a qualified electrician (check).
10. The island _____ by people of mainly Chinese origin (inhibit).
11. The armed police _____ the window (surround).
12. Asters parents are _____ her study hard (make).
13. It is _____ that the two injured men were repairing overhead cables (think)

Test four: Past tenses

I. Grammaticality judgment test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect.

1. I did not tell my teacher that my mother helped me with my homework.
2. I was very angry when I see that my brother had eaten my apple.
3. The book was much more expensive than he had thought at first.
4. Meron asked me what had happened to me last week.
5. We had eaten lunch before we are going home.
6. Daniel did not say that he had taken Albert's watch.
7. The days became colder after it was snowed.
8. Martin told me that he had been in London.
9. I felt great after I pass the exam.
10. It was Freddy who had cleaned the room.
11. I was sorry that I had not been nicer to him.
12. Nobody came to the meeting because Aster forgets to tell them about it.
13. I know that I had seen her somewhere before.

II. Gap Filling

Complete the following sentences by using the verbs in brackets into a suitable past verb form

1. She _____ home alone. (go)
2. The wind _____ throughout the night. (blow)
3. An apple _____ on his head. (drop)
4. The Princess's ball _____ into the well. (roll)
5. We _____ the champions last year. (are)
6. A frog _____ into the well and _____ it back to her. (jump/bring)
7. Melaku _____ the highest grade in his English class. (get)
8. The party _____ at 8:00 P.M. (begin)
9. He _____ his old car and _____ a new one. (sell/ buy)
10. Aster _____ up the ladder carefully. (climb)
11. Who _____ all the windows? (shut)

12. The weather _____ fine this morning. (is)

13. What _____ at the university in the morning? (d)

III. Completion

Complete the following conversation with correct form of the past tenses

1. A: What happened when you met the police?

B: _____

2. A: Can you tell me about your last week presentation?

B: _____

3. A: How could you scored in the previous exam

B: _____

4. A: What did you see as other possible outcomes in your last year project?

B: _____

5. A: What did you do where you were at Addis Ababa?

B: _____

6. A: Could you tell me what Aster said you in the classroom?

B: _____

7. A: What did an English teacher say in the classroom?

B: _____

8. A: Where did you live before coming to Addis Ababa?

B: _____

9. A: Why did you score less in the National Exam?

B: _____

10. A: What did your father say in the morning?

B: _____

V. Writing

Write a paragraph of about 80 to 120 words on one of the topics given below by using past tenses

- a. Your childhood best friend
- b. Your last year summer vacation

Passive voice

I. Writing

Change the following sentences from active to passive voice

1. The company produces high-quality goods.
2. The team is practicing for the upcoming match.
3. The team has won the championship.
4. The students studied hard for the exam.
5. We were walking in the park when we saw a beautiful sunset.
6. He had already eaten dinner when his guests arrived.
7. The company will launch a new product next year.
8. Mary will complete her studies and graduate in May.
9. The children will be swimming in the pool all afternoon.
10. We will have traveled to five different countries by the end of our trip.
11. If you called the police, they would come to help you.
12. If we had taken a different route, we would have avoided the traffic jam.
13. I could hear the music playing from the next room.

II. Grammaticality Judgment Test

Read each of the following sentences and write 'Yes' if the sentences is grammatically correct and 'No' if it is incorrect. If your answer is 'No' underline the part of sentences that is incorrect

1. The project is being managed by our team leader.
2. The letter has been delivering to the recipient.
3. The window was breaking by a stray baseball.
4. The novel was being written by a famous author.
5. The package had been delivered to the wrong address by the courier service.
6. The letter will be written and send to the recipient.
7. The garden is being watered by the gardener every evening.
8. The tickets will have been booking for the concert next week.
9. The movie would be watched by us if we had enough time.
10. The concert would have been enjoying if the sound system had been working properly.
11. The documents ought to be signed by both parties.
12. If the weather had been better, we would have gone for a hike.
13. The project will have been completing by the time the deadline arrives.

III. Multiple choices

Choose the best answer for each of the following questions. Circle letters of your choices.

1. Another company has _____ over our company.
A. taken B. been taken C. being taking D. take
2. The lock of the front door had _____ with someone.
A. tempered B. been tempered C. temper D. being tempering
3. We don't know how they _____ of the body.
A. was disposed B. are disposed C. disposed D. dispose
4. Is homework _____ by Daniel?
A. written B. writing C. been written D. wrote
5. Does Aster _____ English?
A. learn B. been learning C. is learning D. was learning
6. Let the dog not _____.
A. beat B. been beaten C. is beating D. be beaten

7. Let me _____.
 A. be helped B. being helped C. been helped D. be help
8. You _____ to help me.
 A. request B. are requested C. are requesting D. requested
9. Please _____ me some money.
 A. lend B. lending C. being lend D. been lend
10. Your lessons should _____ by you.
 A. be learned B. been learned C. been learning D. be learning
11. The room _____ with lights last night.
 A. filled B. is filled C. was filled D. was filling
12. Her manners _____ us very much.
 A. was pleased B. please C. had been pleased D. pleased
13. He _____ the work in the coming Saturday.
 A. will finish B. will be finished C. will be finishing D. will been finished

V. Gap Filling

Complete the following gaps by using active or passive forms of the verbs in the brackets.

1. An interesting story _____ by all the children last night (hear).
2. We _____ the Child (love).
3. I _____ by Ram (follow)

Appendix D: Student questionnaire

Dear student,

The aim of this questionnaire is to gather data about your perceptions of learning grammar through grammar negotiated interaction. The questionnaire is likewise planned to find out whether or not the teacher-students negotiated interaction allowed you to improve your ability to recognize and use the target grammar features. The responses you give can contribute to the enhancement of the quality of grammar instruction in particular and the English language teaching in general in the Ethiopian secondary schools. I, therefore, request you to give honest answers. Your honest responses are greatly valued and appreciated. Thank you in advance for your collaboration!

Self-assessment of perceptions about teacher-students negotiated interaction

Please rate your feelings for each item below a scale between 1 to 5. Tick under your choice.

1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= neutral 4= agree 5= strongly agree

1=በጣም አልስማማም 2= አልስማማም 3= መወሰን አልችልም 4= እስማማለሁ 5= በጣም እስማማለሁ

1	Negotiated interaction (NI) is encouraging and enjoyable to learn grammar ሰዋሰዱን በድርድር ተኮር አቀራረብ መማር አዝናኝና አበራታችኋል::	1	2	3	4	5
2	I enjoyed learning grammar through conversation, and dialogue with the teacher in the class. ሰዋሰዱን ከአስተማሪው ጋር በክፍል ውስጥ በወይይት እና ድርድር መማሪያ አስደስቶኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
3	NI helped me to understand the forms and meanings of target grammar elements መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት ትኩረት የተደረገባቸውን የሰዋሰድ መዋቅሮችና ትርጉማቸውን ለመረዳት ጠቅሞኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
4	TSNI made me think about the forms of past tenses and passive voice.	1	2	3	4	5

	የአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት ስለ አለፈ ጊዜ ሰዋሰደና ተደራጊ ድምፅ እዳገናዝብ አድርጎኛል፡፡					
5	NI gives me opportunities to use past tenses and passive voice for real-life communication in the classroom መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት የአላፊ ጊዜ ሰዋሰደና ተደራጊ ድምፅን ተጨባጭ ለሆነ ተግባራት እንድጠቀም አግዞቼኛል፡፡	1	2	3	4	5
6	TSNI helped me to identify meaning-form relationships of target grammar elements. የአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት ትኩረት የተደረገባቸውን የሰዋሰደ መዋቅሮችና የትርጉም ዝምድናቸውን ለመረዳት ጠቅሞኛል፡፡	1	2	3	4	5
7	I understand that TSNI helped me to get quality feedback from my teacher in grammar classes. የአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት በሰዋሰደ ክፍለ ጊዜ ከስተማሪዬ ጥሩ ግብረ-መልስ ለማግኘት እንደሚረዳኝ ተገንዝቤያለሁ፡፡	1	2	3	4	5
8	The feedback during NI didn't discouraged me to participate in grammar classes በመስተጋብራዊ ወይይት ወቅት የሚሰጠኝ ግብረ-መልስ በሰዋሰደ ክፍለ ጊዜ በነበረኝ ተሳትፎ እንድሸማቀቅ አላደረገኝም፡፡	1	2	3	4	5
9	NI increased my ability to use passive voice in real-life communication መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት ተደራጊ ድምፅን ለነባራዊ ተግባራት የመጠቀም አቅሜን ጨምሮታል፡፡	1	2	3	4	5
10	NI increases my confidence to learn grammar መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት ሰዋሰደን በምማርበት ጊዜ በራስ የመተማመን መንፈስ እንዲኖረኝ አግዞኛል፡፡	1	2	3	4	5
11	Learning grammar through TSNI is not difficult ሰዋሰደን በአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት መማር አስቸጋሪ አይደለም፡፡	1	2	3	4	5

12	Learning grammar through TSNI is my preferable learning style ሰዋሰወን በአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት መማር ለእኔ ተመራጭ የመማር ስነ-ዘዴ ነው፡፡	1	2	3	4	5
13	I need my teacher to give me chance to correct my erroneous speech to learning grammar. አስተማሪዬ የራሴን የንግግር ስህተቶች በራሴ የማስተካከል እድል እዲሰጠኝ እፈልጋለሁ፡፡	1	2	3	4	5
14	I expect from the teacher to teach me grammar rules explicitly አስተማሪዬ የሰዋሰወ ህጎችን በግልፅ እንዲያስተምረኝ እፈልጋለሁ፡፡	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E: Student interview questions

1. Do you think that there is a difference between your past experience in learning grammar and learning it through teacher-students negotiated interaction? How do you think it differs?

ከአሁን በፊት ሰዋሰዱን በተማርህበት/ሽበት መንገድና በአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት ሰዋሰዱን በመማር መካከል ልዩነት አለ ብለህ/ሽ ታምናለህ/ኛለሽ?

2. How do you express your improvement in using correct grammar in communication? ሰዋሰዱን ለተግባራት በመጠቀም ሂደት ውስጥ ያለህን/ሽን መሻሻል እንዴት ትገልፀዋለህ/ጭዋለሽ?

3. What is your reflection on the role of teacher-students negotiated interaction to integrate form and meaning in grammar learning?

የአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት የሰዋሰዱ ማስተማሪያ ስነ-ዘዴ መዋቅርና ትርጉምን በማቀናጀት ሂደት ያለውን ሚና እንዴት ታየዋለህ/ታይዋለሽ?

4. Do you believe that students' classroom participation in grammar classes is enhanced through teacher-students negotiated interaction? How?

የአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት የተማሪዎችን የክፍል ውስጥ ተሳትፎ ያሻሽላል ብለህ/ሽ ታምናለህ/ታምኛለሽ? እንዴት?

5. What benefits do you get from teacher-students negotiated interaction in learning past tense forms and passive voice?

በአስተማሪና ተማሪዎች መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት አለፈ ጊዜ ሰዋሰዱንና ተደራጊ ድምፀትን ለመማር እንዴት ጠቀመህ/ሽ?

6. Can you explain how negotiated interaction builds your confidence and motivation to learn grammar in the class?

መስተጋብራዊ ወይይት እንዴት በራስ መተማመንና ሰዋሰዱ የመማር ፍላጎትን እንደሚገነባ ልታብራራልኝ/ልታብራራልኝ ትችላህ/ትችያለሽ?

Do you like the type of feedback you got from the teacher about past tense forms and passive voice in the interactional classroom? Why?

Appendix F: Student questionnaire raw data

No	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Sum	Av.
1	4	2	1	3	2	4	3	5	3	5	3	5	5	3	48	3.43
2	4	4	4	5	5	3	4	3	5	5	3	3	5	2	55	3.93
3	3	5	4	5	3	3	4	2	4	4	2	1	3	2	52	3.71
4	2	2	1	1	4	4	2	5	3	4	5	3	4	4	44	3.14
5	4	5	5	4	4	2	4	2	4	5	3	3	4	5	50	3.57
6	2	3	4	2	2	4	3	3	3	5	5	4	5	3	48	3.43
7	4	4	2	4	4	5	1	3	5	5	3	3	4	2	49	3.5
8	5	4	4	5	2	5	3	3	4	5	3	5	4	4	56	4.0
9	3	4	5	2	4	4	5	3	5	4	3	5	4	5	64	4.57
10	4	5	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	5	3	2	5	53	3.86
11	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	3	5	5	5	4	4	2	60	4.29
12	4	3	2	4	4	2	5	4	4	5	2	5	5	3	52	3.71
13	4	4	4	5	5	4	2	3	5	4	3	5	4	2	54	3.86
14	2	3	3	3	4	3	2	4	4	4	5	5	4	3	53	3.79
15	2	2	2	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	45	3.21
16	4	4	5	5	3	4	3	1	2	3	4	2	5	3	48	3.43
17	4	4	5	5	2	3	4	5	5	5	3	5	3	5	61	4.36
18	4	5	2	4	4	3	3	4	5	3	4	2	3	3	52	3.71

19	4	4	4	4	2	2	1	3	3	4	3	5	4	3	46	3.29
20	5	4	1	5	5	4	5	3	5	4	3	5	4	4	57	4.07
21	3	3	1	4	3	3	4	5	5	4	3	2	3	5	48	3.43
22	2	5	2	4	4	2	3	3	3	5	2	4	3	4	46	3.29
23	5	5	4	4	4	4	3	1	3	5	1	4	3	3	49	3.5
24	5	3	5	5	2	1	2	5	1	4	2	3	3	2	43	3.07
25	4	4	3	3	1	3	2	4	4	4	3	4	5	5	49	3.5
26	5	5	4	5	4	3	5	2	4	4	3	5	4	3	56	4.0
27	3	3	5	5	4	4	2	4	3	5	3	4	4	4	53	3.79
28	4	3	5	4	1	2	5	1	4	3	1	4	4	2	43	3.07
29	2	4	3	4	5	3	3	2	4	5	4	3	5	5	52	3.71
30	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	5	2	4	3	3	4	3	50	3.57
31	2	5	3	4	4	3	2	2	5	4	2	5	5	5	51	3.64
32	1	4	4	5	3	2	3	5	4	3	2	4	5	4	49	3.5
33	4	4	4	5	3	4	5	3	3	5	4	3	5	4	56	4.0
34	3	3	5	5	3	4	1	3	3	3	3	4	5	4	52	3.71
35	4	4	1	3	2	4	2	3	3	4	2	5	5	3	45	3.21
36	5	5	3	4	5	3	3	4	2	5	4	5	4	3	55	3.93
37	3	3	3	4	5	3	4	2	3	3	3	3	4	5	48	3.43
38	4	3	4	5	2	4	2	1	4	5	2	5	5	3	49	3.5

39	3	3	4	3	2	4	3	1	5	4	2	3	3	3	43	3.07
40	4	3	3	3	4	5	4	2	3	4	4	3	2	2	46	3.29
41	5	4	4	2	4	3	4	2	4	4	3	3	3	2	47	3.36
42	2	2	4	1	3	1	5	4	5	3	3	4	3	1	41	2.93

Appendix G: Raw data of observation checklist

			Frequency	%
Week 1	1	Students who respond for comprehension checks	30	23.43
	2	Students who request for clarification	23	17.97
	3	Students who ask for confirmation checks	20	15.63
	4	Students who appeal for help	28	21.87
	5	Students' who repeat what is said before	27	21.1
	6	Total	128	100
Week 2	1	Students who respond for comprehension checks	34	22.82
	2	Students who request for clarification	28	18.8
	3	Students who ask for confirmation checks	26	17.45
	4	Students who appeal for help	31	20.8
	5	Students' who repeat what is said before	30	20.13
	6	Total	149	100
Week 3	1	Students who respond for comprehension checks	36	22.5
	2	Students who request for clarification	32	20
	3	Students who ask for confirmation checks	28	17.5
	4	Students who appeal for help	31	19.38
	5	Students' who repeat what is said before	33	20.62
	6	Total	160	100

Appendix H: Raw data of test results: Main study

Past tenses: Experimental group's pre-test (test one) result

R. No	G. Judgment test (25%)	Gap filling (25 %)	Completion (25%)	Writing (25%)	Total (100%)
1	16	5	7	7	35
2	13	4	6	3	26
3	19	8	7	6	40
4	12	12	6	5	35
5	10	15	4	5	37
6	11	10	10	9	40
7	11	9	7	7	34
8	7	8	9	8	32
9	14	10	11	9	44
10	10	10	12	7	39
11	15	6	7	8	37
12	11	11	9	7	38
13	17	13	11	11	52
14	10	9	6	4	29
15	13	14	12	12	49
16	12	10	10	8	40

17	8	9	11	5	33
18	13	7	8	9	37
19	16	8	8	7	39
20	10	10	9	7	36
21	14	10	7	10	41
22	9	8	9	6	32
23	12	11	9	7	39
24	12	5	8	6	31
25	10	7	6	13	37
26	14	9	10	9	42
27	10	4	9	6	29
28	14	10	11	9	44
29	7	7	6	4	24
30	13	10	10	9	42
31	8	10	9	8	36
32	8	6	10	6	30
33	10	10	8	8	36
34	12	8	5	9	34
35	14	7	9	7	37
36	10	9	8	5	32

37	9	9	11	6	35
38	10	12	10	9	41
39	13	10	11	6	40
40	11	7	10	8	36
41	12	10	9	7	38
42	12	11	13	9	45

Past tenses: Comparison group's pre-test (test one) result

R. No	G. Judgment test (25%)	Gap filling (25 %)	Completion (25%)	Writing (25%)	Total (100%)
1	13	7	6	7	32
2	15	5	6	4	30
3	15	9	7	8	39
4	13	12	9	5	39
5	10	15	5	5	36
6	11	8	6	8	33
7	12	8	7	6	33
8	14	9	9	8	40
9	16	13	10	10	49
10	12	11	7	6	35
11	13	14	11	7	45
12	9	9	6	6	30
13	10	13	6	10	39
14	10	9	6	5	30
15	16	12	11	11	50
16	12	10	10	8	31
17	14	10	7	7	38
18	13	13	12	8	46
19	15	7	10	8	40
20	10	10	9	8	37

21	9	7	6	7	29
22	10	11	9	9	39
23	10	7	8	5	30
24	11	8	7	6	32
25	9	10	10	8	37
26	12	12	10	10	44
27	8	5	8	5	26
28	10	10	12	8	42
29	8	7	7	4	26
30	11	9	9	7	36
31	11	10	9	9	39
32	9	6	8	9	32
33	7	10	8	3	28
34	11	10	9	8	38
35	14	9	9	9	41
36	10	7	8	7	32
37	9	9	8	6	32
38	11	11	10	8	42
39	12	10	12	5	39
40	13	9	9	9	40
41	10	7	7	6	30

Past tenses: Experimental group's test two results

R. No	G. Judgment test (25%)	Gap filling (25 %)	Completion (25%)	Writing (25%)	Total (100%)
1	20	15	13	16	64
2	24	19	15	18	76
3	19	16	12	17	64
4	15	17	19	15	66
5	25	16	13	15	69
6	20	15	15	13	63
7	24	17	13	15	70
8	22	19	16	14	71
9	20	10	15	9	65
10	21	12	18	13	65
11	24	19	16	18	77
12	17	18	14	11	60
13	18	13	14	14	59
14	23	18	15	12	68
15	19	14	16	12	61
16	19	13	16	15	63
17	18	14	13	16	61
18	18	17	16	18	59
19	20	13	17	17	67
20	20	14	12	10	56
21	22	16	17	15	70

22	19	17	15	12	60
23	17	15	16	13	61
24	20	16	14	16	66
25	21	15	13	14	63
26	20	13	15	10	58
27	24	20	13	16	61
28	22	13	15	13	64
29	20	16	16	12	64
30	20	16	17	15	68
31	17	15	17	11	60
32	16	17	14	16	63
33	17	14	16	13	60
34	20	18	14	15	68
35	19	16	14	15	64
36	22	15	15	16	67
37	16	14	15	11	56
38	20	17	17	18	72
39	17	15	14	14	60
40	20	19	17	14	70
41	19	17	19	15	70
42	20	14	15	15	64

Past tenses: Comparison group's test two result

R. No	G. Judgment test (25%)	Gap filling (25 %)	Completion (25%)	Writing (25%)	Total (100%)
1	16	12	11	12	46
2	15	10	12	11	48
3	16	18	13	12	59
4	14	18	12	12	56
5	14	15	11	11	54
6	16	16	12	11	55
7	16	17	12	13	56
8	12	14	12	14	52
9	13	18	12	12	55
10	14	15	10	9	48
11	13	14	12	12	51
12	10	13	9	12	45
13	16	16	13	13	58
14	14	17	11	12	54
15	16	13	12	13	54
16	15	14	11	13	53
17	14	12	11	12	49
18	15	16	13	11	55
19	15	18	11	12	56
20	14	19	11	12	56
21	13	16	10	11	50

22	13	16	10	10	49
23	16	14	12	12	54
24	15	18	12	11	56
25	16	15	14	14	59
26	13	15	9	10	47
27	13	13	12	13	51
28	15	14	11	11	51
29	17	16	11	12	56
30	15	17	12	12	56
31	15	15	12	11	53
32	18	16	13	12	59
33	15	13	11	9	48
34	16	14	12	13	55
35	18	14	13	11	56
36	16	17	14	13	60
37	15	14	11	10	50
38	14	14	16	10	54
39	15	17	11	10	53
40	12	18	12	8	50
41	12	18	9	9	48

Passive voice: Experimental group's pre-test (test one) result

R. No	S. transformation (25%)	G. judgment (25 %)	Multiple choice (25%)	Gap filling (25%)	Total (100%)
1	8	11	8	6	32
2	12	11	7	7	37
3	12	10	8	8	38
4	12	13	6	10	41
5	9	11	8	6	34
6	10	11	11	9	42
7	12	10	12	10	44
8	10	13	8	7	38
9	11	11	9	7	38
10	11	10	12	7	36
11	9	10	8	8	35
12	7	11	8	5	31
13	10	13	10	10	43
14	9	15	8	6	38
15	13	11	10	7	41
16	12	10	10	8	34
17	9	13	9	5	36

18	11	14	7	7	39
19	9	12	8	5	34
20	9	10	7	6	32
21	10	13	7	10	40
22	8	8	5	9	30
23	10	11	8	7	36
24	11	11	10	9	41
25	12	7	6	7	32
26	8	10	10	9	37
27	11	10	7	7	35
28	10	11	6	9	36
29	10	12	7	10	39
30	11	10	9	10	40
31	9	15	7	6	37
32	10	12	10	8	40
33	8	9	9	8	34
34	10	17	5	6	38
35	10	12	11	11	44
36	12	13	8	9	42
37	10	14	9	6	39

38	9	10	10	7	36
39	12	10	8	6	36
40	10	10	8	11	39
41	12	10	9	9	40
42	12	11	13	9	37

Passive voice: Comparison group's pre-test (test one) result

R. No	S. transformation (25%)	G. judgment (25 %)	Multiple choice (25%)	Gap filling (25%)	Total (100%)
1	13	13	8	7	41
2	7	8	7	6	28
3	8	10	10	9	37
4	7	12	10	5	34
5	7	11	9	6	36
6	7	11	6	7	31
7	9	10	8	6	33
8	11	11	8	5	35
9	10	10	5	10	35
10	10	10	11	7	38
11	10	13	12	10	45
12	10	13	11	5	39
13	10	13	10	10	39
14	13	13	10	6	41
15	10	11	8	7	36
16	9	10	10	9	38
17	10	10	10	8	38

18	11	11	9	9	40
19	8	12	9	5	34
20	9	10	6	7	32
21	9	10	7	8	34
22	9	10	9	6	35
23	12	12	10	8	42
24	11	11	10	9	33
25	7	10	9	8	34
26	10	10	10	7	37
27	10	15	8	5	38
28	10	11	6	9	35
29	10	9	6	6	31
30	8	11	10	10	39
31	14	7	8	4	33
32	9	8	7	10	34
33	11	9	9	6	35
34	10	11	9	8	39
35	10	9	12	12	44
36	13	15	6	5	37
37	11	10	7	6	34

38	12	10	9	7	38
39	10	10	9	4	33
40	12	10	8	9	39
41	9	11	7	7	34

Passive voice: Experimental group's test two results

R. No	S. transformation (25%)	G. judgment (25 %)	Multiple choice (25%)	Gap filling (25%)	Total (100%)
1	17	19	18	15	69
2	16	20	17	12	66
3	19	19	16	14	67
4	16	19	15	15	65
5	19	18	20	12	69
6	19	21	19	11	70
7	20	18	15	16	69
8	16	14	16	13	59
9	16	19	14	15	64
10	20	18	16	13	67
11	12	17	13	15	69
12	18	15	18	15	68
13	17	20	20	16	73
14	21	18	17	14	70
15	20	22	15	17	64
16	18	20	16	15	69
17	20	17	15	14	66

18	19	19	16	18	72
19	13	18	17	13	61
20	17	17	16	12	62
21	16	15	16	14	61
22	15	18	18	15	66
23	17	20	17	13	67
24	17	17	16	12	62
25	14	19	16	11	60
26	16	18	12	15	61
27	16	16	17	14	63
28	17	21	18	15	71
29	15	20	20	13	68
30	15	16	19	12	64
31	15	17	16	12	60
32	18	19	17	13	67
33	17	19	18	14	68
34	19	20	15	15	69
35	17	19	18	14	68
36	16	17	18	16	67
37	17	16	19	12	64

38	17	16	19	12	65
39	21	20	18	15	74
40	15	19	19	11	64
41	17	17	18	13	65
42	18	20	20	14	72

Passive voice: Comparison group's test two result

R. No	S. transformation (25%)	G. judgment (25 %)	Multiple choice (25%)	Gap filling (25%)	Total (100%)
1	13	13	13	10	49
2	11	13	12	9	45
3	13	13	14	11	51
4	14	11	10	10	45
5	12	13	12	9	46
6	13	14	11	12	50
7	13	15	16	10	54
8	14	16	16	10	56
9	15	13	15	11	54
10	14	14	13	12	53
11	17	18	16	9	50
12	16	15	15	11	57
13	16	16	16	10	58
14	14	16	17	10	57
15	14	13	14	11	52
16	16	14	15	9	54
17	15	14	16	10	55
18	15	15	17	9	56
19	12	14	14	9	49
20	14	15	12	8	49

21	14	16	13	7	50
22	13	12	13	12	50
23	14	16	15	10	55
24	14	12	14	10	50
25	15	14	13	11	53
26	15	14	16	9	54
27	15	12	16	9	52
28	16	16	17	13	62
29	14	14	17	8	53
30	13	17	15	8	53
31	15	17	15	10	57
32	16	15	14	11	56
33	17	15	13	12	57
34	15	14	15	10	54
35	16	15	17	10	58
36	16	14	16	10	56
37	16	12	12	10	50
38	14	13	14	10	51
39	15	14	12	11	52
40	18	15	16	12	61
41	17	17	16	12	62

Experimental Group- Delayed tests

R. N0	Past tenses		Passive voice	
	Test three	Test four	Test three	Test four
1	72	71	71	74
2	74	72	67	59
3	65	67	65	65
4	70	72	67	62
5	65	60	65	66
6	64	60	69	70
7	67	59	68	58
8	69	64	61	63
9	71	72	71	68
10	59	64	65	68
11	68	63	72	67
12	67	64	71	68
13	61	57	72	70
14	60	59	71	64
15	61	60	72	74
16	65	64	69	67

17	67	67	65	72
18	65	66	74	72
19	65	64	60	60
20	60	59	63	59
21	66	61	60	59
22	63	64	70	60
23	59	64	63	69
24	59	61	63	64
25	74	72	60	53
26	58	59	55	60
27	60	59	60	67
28	70	59	69	68
29	64	64	65	69
30	63	59	61	63
31	64	69	60	61
32	65	59	61	62
33	58	59	65	66
34	69	64	72	60
35	59	69	65	67
36	69	69	64	55

37	57	62	64	59
38	67	59	55	59
39	60	64	65	79
40	59	67	71	66
41	65	53	61	69
42	52	59	74	72

Comparison Group- Delayed tests

R. N0	Past tenses		Passive voice	
	Test three	Test four	Test three	Test four
1	51	52	50	49
2	49	48	47	45
3	53	47	49	45
4	60	54	41	43
5	52	50	49	54
6	53	52	52	53
7	53	49	55	45
8	52	53	50	46
9	53	48	55	51
10	53	50	52	56
11	58	51	50	46
12	52	48	60	62
13	62	60	53	53
14	62	63	50	55
15	55	54	62	56
16	54	48	51	54

17	54	50	56	55
18	49	51	54	52
19	53	51	50	55
20	53	52	45	40
21	50	46	46	52
22	50	52	50	49
23	47	42	53	55
24	50	50	52	54
25	48	51	50	51
26	46	49	55	54
27	44	49	56	53
28	54	50	54	52
29	46	50	54	47
30	49	48	51	49
31	43	40	57	44
32	46	48	49	58
33	47	51	56	56
34	47	52	60	45
35	51	47	51	55
36	48	47	50	56

37	49	51	52	53
38	50	50	53	54
39	47	51	52	50
40	55	52	45	51
41	53	59	53	47