

**ACTION RESEARCH: SUPPORTIVE TEACHER TALK
AND INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES
IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
EFL TEACHING CONTEXT
IN JAPAN**

by

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ABSTRACT

This study attempts to identify features of the teacher-researcher's language use and interactional strategies that either construct or obstruct opportunities for students, particularly the more reticent ones, to participate and learn, in a Japanese elementary school 5th and 6th grade (solo) EFL teaching context. To address the issue of learner reticence and to ensure that all learners have an equal opportunity to be involved in ALT (Assistant Language Teacher) fronted classroom activities, the study takes an action research approach and employs the SETT (self-evaluation of teacher talk) framework, which involved collecting 15 audio and 5 video recordings and iteratively analyzing these data using conversation analysis (CA) and reflective feedback interviews with colleagues. It was found that the teacher-researcher's follow-up moves tend to have a primarily evaluative function and that he tends to allocate turns unevenly during warm-up review activities. The report concludes that introducing an equitable turn-taking point-scoring system can level the playing field and motivate students to support each other in an enjoyable manner, and that providing a balance between the competing needs for formal evaluative feedback and content-based discursal follow-up can support students' learning effectively.

DEDICATION

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

| | |
|--------|--|
| ALT | Assistant Language Teacher |
| AR | Action research |
| ARC | Action research cycle |
| CA | Conversation analysis |
| CIC | Classroom interactional competence |
| EFL | English as a foreign language |
| F-move | Follow-up move |
| HRT | Homeroom Teacher |
| I-R-F | Initiate-Response-Feedback |
| MEXT | Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology |
| RQ | Research question |
| SETT | Self-evaluation of teacher talk |
| YL | Young learner |
| ZPD | Zone of Proximal Development |
| L1 | First language |

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The introduction of English in primary schools is now being widely implemented throughout Asia (Butler 2004). In Japan, foreign language learning has been adopted in varying degrees at the primary school level since 2002. Starting from 2011, it became compulsory for fifth and sixth graders (11- and 12-year-olds) nationwide. Although compulsory, so-called ‘English Activities’ fall under the domain of ‘general integrated studies’, and accordingly are currently limited to 35 instructional hours per grade per school year.

One major issue, however, is the acute shortage of teachers who are trained in teaching English to young learners. The official Japanese government policy is for homeroom teachers (HRTs) to be in charge of English activities, but it is a “rather uncomfortable fact that many [HRTs] simply don't want to teach English” (Gaynor 2014: 75). Busy with the many academic and administrative demands of their jobs, many teachers resent being asked to teach an additional class for which they have received no formal teacher training and see English as an unnecessary burden. Gaynor (ibid.: 75) reports that the majority of the homeroom teachers he surveyed regarded English as an unnecessary burden rather than a rewarding challenge. It is unsurprising then, that a comprehensive survey of elementary school teachers revealed that in most elementary school English classes, the Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) leads the lesson (Benesse 2010).

Another important issue is the fact that many students approach English activities rather reticently. As an ALT, I have been teaching English solo to elementary school students in Japanese public schools for several years now and have noticed that, when I invite volunteers to answer a question, the vast majority of students are often unresponsive, while a small minority are clearly more confident and active, likely because they are having private lessons outside of school. I tend to interact with the students who raise their hands more frequently than the students who do not, likely because I feel more confident of getting an acceptable response from the former and want to respect the needs of the latter. I therefore feel that my

‘action zone’ is limited and found myself asking: *How can I better support the more reticent students and ensure that I treat all students fairly, giving every student an equal opportunity to participate and learn, particularly during the teacher-fronted activities, in an enjoyable manner?*

To answer this question, I adopted an action research (AR) approach, which can be defined as teacher-initiated classroom investigation that aims to enhance understanding of the local context and improve some aspect of classroom practice through systematic collection and analysis of data (Kemmis and McTaggart 1988; Wallace 1998; Burns 2010).

1.2 Aim and Focus of Research

The aim of this study is to identify features of the teacher-researcher’s language use and interactional strategies that either construct or obstruct opportunities for students, particularly the more reticent ones, to participate and learn. It will be argued that using an appropriate research instrument, namely the Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) framework, to collect and analyze classroom data, and then collaboratively interpreting this data in reflective feedback interviews with colleagues, can enable teacher-researchers to develop a heightened awareness of interactional processes and make conscious changes to improve classroom practices accordingly. Following Wallace (1998) and Walsh (2013), developing understandings of local context lies at the heart of this dissertation, which will focus on how this teacher-researcher’s use of language and interactional strategies can be adjusted to create opportunities for learner involvement, particularly for the more reticent learners. I draw upon my extensive experiences as an ALT as well as 15 audio and five video recordings I have collected from five EFL classes at two public elementary schools in northern Hiroshima, as well as five reflective feedback interviews I have conducted with colleagues.

1.3 Organization

This dissertation is organized as follows. In chapter 2, the Japanese elementary school EFL teaching context will be discussed with regard to learners and teachers, and the need for teachers to develop classroom interactional competence. A few

studies based on real data from elementary schools in Japan will then be critically reviewed, and the research questions will be identified. In chapter 3, the AR approach and research methods adopted herein will be described in detail. In chapter 4, the present study's data will be analyzed and key findings will be highlighted. In chapter 5, the findings will be discussed with reference to the research questions and relevant literature as well as some emerging issues. The paper will conclude by discussing pedagogical implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter is organized as follows. First, the Japanese elementary school EFL teaching context will be described with regard to learners and teachers, and their respective needs. Next, the key concept of classroom interactional competence will be defined and related research will be reviewed in detail. Finally, a few studies on classroom discourse in Japan will be reviewed, and the research questions for the present study will be formulated.

2.1 The Japanese EFL teaching context

Japan is an EFL (English as a foreign language) country rather than an ESL (English as a second language) country. ESL learners generally have many opportunities to use English outside class. By contrast, EFL learners have few such opportunities. Additionally, the Japanese language has little in common with English, and uses a different writing system. As Paul (2003: 2) advises, "under these circumstances, we need to be careful about using teaching techniques that were originally designed for very different situations, at least not until we have questioned them critically."

2.2 Japanese elementary school students' characteristics and needs

In Japanese elementary schools, according to Japan's Ministry of Education (MEXT) (2013: 15), the aim of English is to familiarize students with the sounds of English and improve their communication skills. Most Japanese elementary school students are encountering English for the first time. Many embrace it enthusiastically, but some approach it rather reticently, maybe through shyness, or possibly because they find it difficult to form unfamiliar new sounds. In order that the latter group do not quickly start to dislike English, MEXT (ibid: 18) advises that teachers need to respect those students' needs by, for example, inviting volunteers rather than nominating individual students; providing choral practice before pair-work.

As Kennedy and Jarvis (1991: 5) suggest, young learners (YLS) may have no apparent reason to learn English, so the learning situation itself often needs to provide the motivation, meaning that the teacher needs to offer a variety of stimulating classroom activities. Studies on the motivation of Japanese elementary school students have

revealed that there is a steady developmental decline in motivation for learning EFL as the children progress to the higher grades (Carreira 2006). A study that investigated the likes and dislikes of fifth and sixth graders in comparison to third and fourth graders in one public elementary school in Tokyo, found that the higher graders generally enjoyed playing games and memorizing English more than the middle graders (Carreira 2011). It also found that a number of students felt frustrated when they did not understand what their teacher was saying and when other students were being noisy during English lessons. These studies suggest that the higher graders, who are beginning to develop more reflective and analytical capabilities in their first language, need more cognitively challenging yet enjoyable game-like activities, and need their teachers to provide plenty of supportive comprehensible talk and interactional adjustments in an orderly classroom atmosphere.

2.3 Developing Classroom Interactional Competence

A key challenge for teachers is for us to become more aware of the importance of an understanding of classroom interaction, and to develop what Walsh calls *classroom interactional competence* (CIC): the “ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning” (Walsh 2011: 132). Walsh suggests that we need to acquire a fine-grained understanding of what constitutes CIC and that this can only be achieved by using data from our own teaching context and dialoging with our colleagues. Although CIC is highly context-specific, at least three of its features are common to all contexts (Walsh 2013: 52-63):

- (1) The extent to which language use and pedagogic goals converge.
- (2) The extent to which it facilitates interactional space.
- (3) The extent to which a teacher can receive a learners’ contribution and improve it in some way by *scaffolding* (defined in section 2.3.3) or shaping it.

Let us look at each of these three features in turn.

2.3.1 Language Use and Pedagogic Goals

One feature of CIC is the extent to which language use and pedagogic goals converge. Language use and pedagogic goals must work together. A number of studies have

focused on the relationship between language use and pedagogic goals quite thoroughly, adopting an alternative approach to describing classrooms according to specific micro-contexts or modes, and making the key point that language use and interaction vary according to a teacher's agenda and what is happening at a specific moment (e.g. Seedhouse 2004; Walsh 2006a).

Walsh's (2006a; 2006b) study is particularly significant as it resulted in the development of the SETT (self-evaluation of teacher talk) framework, a data collection and analysis instrument that aims to enable individual teachers to evaluate the extent to which their language use and pedagogic goals are aligned, in order to raise their interactional awareness and improve the quality of their teacher talk. Walsh aimed to help a small group of university language teachers improve their classroom interactional competence by collecting and analyzing their own classroom data using an *ad hoc* self-observation and coding system which involves a guided reflective awareness-raising interview procedure:

This instrument was used, firstly, to enable teachers to analyze their own classroom data; secondly, to facilitate participation in reflective feedback interviews. Essentially, teachers made a series (5 or 6) of 'snapshot' recordings of their own lessons (each lasting about 15 minutes); analyzed their recordings by (a) identifying modes and (b) transcribing examples of interactional features using the SETT grid; finally, they discussed their evaluations with the researcher in a post-evaluation feedback interview. (Walsh 2006b: 134)

Building on the work of other researchers like Seedhouse (2004), Walsh identified four classroom micro-contexts that he called *modes*, each of which has its own distinctive interactional features aligned with specific pedagogic goals. He argues that by using a modes analysis and the SETT framework, teachers can enable themselves to develop a fine-grained understanding of the relationship between teacher talk, interaction and learning, which can enable them to identify ways to improve their classroom practices and to make conscious changes accordingly.

Since its publication in 2006, the SETT framework has been used in a range of teaching contexts, including a primary science classroom, initial teacher education programmes (PGCE) for English and Drama teachers (Walsh and Lowing 2008), and CELTA programmes around the world. Due to the fact that it has been tried and tested in such a range of teaching contexts, the SETT framework was selected to be

the main research instrument in this dissertation and its adapted use will be described in detail in chapter 3.

2.3.2 Creating “space for learning”

A second feature of CIC is the extent to which it facilitates interactional space: learners need “*space for learning*” to participate in the discourse, to contribute to class conversations, and to receive feedback on their contributions. “Space for learning” refers to

the ways in which teachers not only create opportunities for participation, but increase student engagement (both at the individual and whole class levels), promote dialogic interaction, enhance affordances (Walsh and Li 2013: 250).

Essentially, it means enhancing opportunities for all students to be involved in conversation with their classmates and the teacher, individually and as a whole class.

In their microanalytic study, which examines the ways in which teachers create ‘space for learning’ in a Chinese middle school EFL context, Walsh and Li (2013) use extracts of video-recorded interactions from two classes and identify specific interactional features which create space, enhance participation and increase opportunities for learning. Following the principles and theoretical underpinnings of conversation analysis (CA), and focusing on the ways in which two non-native speaker teachers create space for learning, the features identified in their data include: increased wait-time, reduced echo, and scaffolding or shaping (defined below) of responses. The key finding of their study is that teachers can, through the use of such interactional features, affect a qualitative and quantitative increase in opportunities for participation and learning. A key implication of their study, which has particular relevance to this dissertation, is that “small adjustments in the ways in which interaction is managed can result in major increases in both the amount and nature of space for learning” (ibid: 263).

The view of learning taken herein is that of social theories of learning which emphasize learning as “doing” rather than as “having” (Larsen-Freeman 2010).

“Learning is regarded as a process, an activity, something we take part in, perform. ... it is something which entails encounters with others, where participation is central to the process.

... Under this view, learning is viewed as participation and maintains that we can measure and track learning through the interactions which take place ... the moment-by-moment co-construction of meanings and participation can be traced by using conversation analysis (CA)" (Walsh and Li 2013: 250).

Walsh and Li ably demonstrate how CA can be used to trace the 'moment-by-moment co-construction of meanings and participation'. Following Walsh and Li, my own view is that participation alone cannot be equated with learning, but that it effects learning somehow by providing opportunities for reflection and thought. Indeed, there is plenty of evidence to show that learning and participation are closely connected and that participation can support learning (e.g. Van Lier 2000).

2.3.3 Supportive teacher talk: scaffolding in feedback

A third feature of CIC that is common to all contexts is the extent to which a teacher can receive a learners' contribution and improve it in some way by *scaffolding* or shaping it. Teachers modify their talk in many ways, during conversations with students; for example, by using simple grammar and vocabulary. In doing so, they can help children by offering systematic support, which is often referred to as '*scaffolding*' (Wood, Bruner and Ross 1976). According to Cameron (2003) and Pinter (2006), teacher talk is especially important in YL classrooms where it is (or should be) the main source of language input and medium of teaching and learning. It can help children get used to the intonation patterns and the sounds of the language. It also has an important social, affective function when teachers use a lot of praise and encouragement and model social conventions such as saying hello at the beginning of the lesson.

Bruner (1990; cited in Cameron 2001: 9) argued that such scaffolding will have a greater chance of effectiveness if it takes place within classroom "*routines*", which are features of events that provide context and familiarity for pupils to predict meaning and intention, but also offer a way for teachers to gradually add variation and novelty that can involve more complex language. If the new language is within a child's "Zone of Proximal Development" (ZPD), he or she will comprehend it and begin the process of internalizing it (Vygotsky 1962).

Cameron (2001) suggests that teachers need to provide scaffolding during the lesson planning process, and through the way they talk to the children while teaching a lesson. In lesson planning, teachers need to analyze the environment created by an activity in terms of demands on learners and support for learning, and aim to construct learning opportunities by adjusting the balance between demands and support. Setting clear and appropriate language learning goals is, Cameron suggests, key to the above process. In doing so, teachers are scaffolding the activity for children, and can further scaffold by breaking down tasks into manageable steps, each with its own sub goals, thereby creating step-by-step learning opportunities for them. If both of these types of scaffolding are provided, then it is more likely that opportunities for learning will occur. In other words, if we strike a balance between the demands and support of activities during the lesson planning process, then it will be much easier for us to create space for learning through our talk during the moment-by-moment process of teaching a lesson.

Building on Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) now well-known analysis of classroom interaction that identified the I-R-F pattern in which a teacher **I**nitiates an exchange, a student **R**esponds, and the teacher **F**ollows up, Cullen's (2002) research has emphasized the importance of scaffolding learners' contributions in feedback and highlighted the relationship between the feedback a teacher gives and the learning that occurs. In his study, which analyzed video-recorded data from a public secondary school in Tanzania, Cullen identified two main roles of the follow-up move (F-move): (1) evaluative and (2) discoursal. Arguing that each of these supports learning in different ways, he focuses on the importance of discoursal follow-up and identifies four specific strategies of effective discoursal follow-up (ibid. 124-25): (1) Reformulation, (2) Elaboration, (3) Comment, and (4) Repetition.

Considering the paucity of research on feedback, any future studies would be well advised, Walsh (2013: 132) suggests, to focus on feedback and evaluation rather than questioning and repair.

2.4 Teacher talk and interaction with young learners in Japan

Very few empirical studies of teacher talk and classroom interaction in the elementary school setting have been conducted in Japan. In what follows, a few studies that have particular relevance to this dissertation will be reviewed.

Using video-recorded data, Eguchi (2012) comparatively analyzed the effect of teachers' language use (first language and English vs. almost all English) on linguistic complexity and the use of interactional adjustment at 4 public elementary schools in Aichi. She found that the teachers who conducted the lessons almost all in English:

- (1) adjusted their talk to make it shorter and less complex,
- (2) employed a larger amount and wider variety of interactional adjustment in terms of repetitions, comprehension checks and supportive gestures, and
- (3) elicited oral responses from students and facilitated student-teacher interaction by employing student-repetitions, translation of student' s Japanese utterances, and display questions.

The results of Eguchi' s study are significant in that they encourage teachers to try to maximize the use of English, along with a large amount and wide variety of interactional adjustment, in their classrooms.

Shino (2014) used classroom observations and audio recordings to collect data in a Japanese primary school, and analyzed the interactions between an ALT, HRTs and students, focusing on how code switching (a change by a speaker from one language to another) was used by the ALT. Her observations revealed that the ALT used 3 main types of code-switching:

- (1) code-switching into Japanese at the beginning or end of the lessons to introduce or wrap-up the day' s target phrases and enhance pupils' understanding,
- (2) the use of Japanese honorific titles to address students, showing politeness and respect towards the host culture, and
- (3) cooperative reverse code-switching between the ALT and HRTs, where the ALT uses pupils' L1 Japanese if pupils seem to not understand while HRTs stick to English.

In summary, then, the key points discussed so far are as follows. Japanese elementary school students need a stimulating variety of cognitively challenging yet enjoyable

game-like activities, which are guided by supportive teacher talk and interactional adjustments, to improve their basic communication skills. Teachers need to develop CIC, which consists of three key abilities: (1) making language use and pedagogic goals work together, (2) creating interactional space for learners to participate, contribute and receive feedback on their contributions, and (3) scaffolding learner contributions in feedback. The development of CIC can only be achieved by using data from our own teaching contexts. Knowledge of what happens in textbook-based ALT-fronted lessons is in its infancy. A paucity of previous research has looked at language use and interactional adjustments in team-teaching contexts in which an HRT and ALT both seem to be playing an active role. No research has evaluated the extent to which language use and pedagogic goals converge, and how “space for learning” can be created by focusing on how language and interactional strategies are used, by an ALT who teaches solo. There thus appears to be a huge need for more research, based on real spoken data from Japanese elementary school EFL classes.

2.5 Research questions

To fill this major research gap, the following research questions (RQs) have been formulated:

RQ (1): *What interactional features of language is the teacher currently using?*

RQ (2): *To what extent is the teacher's language use congruent with his pedagogic goals?*

RQ (3): *How can the teacher change his use of language and interactional strategies to create “space for learning”?*

RQ (4): *How effective are these changes?*

CHAPTER 3: APPROACH AND METHODS

This dissertation used an AR approach and multiple methods of data collection and analysis in an attempt to identify features of this teacher-researcher' s language use and interactional strategies that can construct space for learning, and to make changes and assess their effectiveness accordingly. In this chapter, the AR approach, data-collection methods, participants and teaching context as well as the data analysis procedures will be described in detail.

3.1 Action research approach

I chose an AR approach because, as described in chapter 1, I wanted to address the problematic issue of learner reticence. As Wallace (1998) suggests, “most problems benefit from being aired or discussed in some controlled or structured way; ... action research is a form of structured reflection” that is “very problem-focused in its approach and very practical in its intended outcomes” (ibid: 15). As Burn' s (2010: 2) explains,

[t]he central idea of the *action* part of AR is to intervene in a deliberate way in the problematic situation in order to bring about changes and, even better, improvements in practice. Importantly, the improvements that happen in AR are ones based on information (or to use the research term, *data*) that an action researcher collects systematically.

The AR cycle adopted in this dissertation consists of four broad steps - those of planning, acting, observing and reflecting - represented in a cycle as shown in figure 3.1.

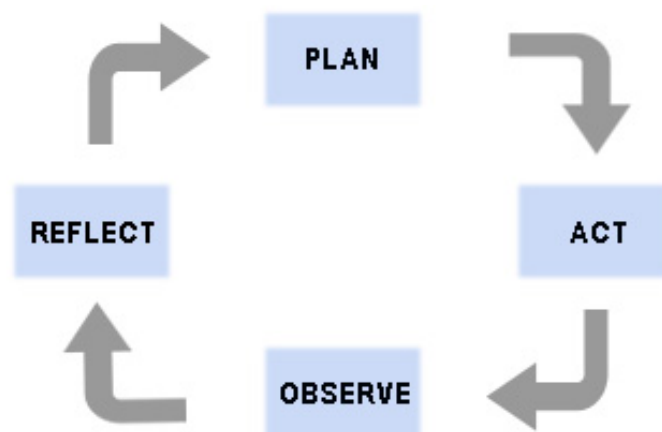


Figure 3.1: Cyclical AR model based on Kemmis and McTaggart (1988)¹

3.2 Data collection and analysis

To address my research questions, I chose to use the following methods to try to collect data from several angles to obtain an objective perspective.

First of all, I kept a detailed teaching journal, using the following procedure (based on Richards and Lockhart 1996: 7, 16-17):

- (1) Make entries on a regular basis; beginning writing immediately or as soon as possible after teaching a lesson or series of lessons. To guide journal entries, use reflection questions such as the following: *Were you able to accomplish your goals? What techniques did you use? Were students challenged by the lesson?* (see Appendix 1 for further questions that guided my journal entries).
- (2) Review journal entries regularly, again using reflection questions to guide the entries.

In addition to a teaching journal, I made lesson reports immediately or as soon as possible after each lesson to record what actually happened during the lesson, in particular whether there were any deviations from the lesson plan or any noteworthy events.

The disadvantage of the above methods is that they obtain subjective impressions of teaching and by their nature can capture only recollections and interpretations of events and not the actual events themselves. In order to obtain a more objective perspective on the actual events themselves, I made audio and video recordings of a series of lessons, and conducted reflective feedback interviews with colleagues.

The recordings were collected and analyzed using the SETT framework (from Walsh 2006a, 2006b), which, as described in section 2.3.1, was designed to enable teacher-researchers to systematically analyze their use of interactional features of language with regard to congruence with pedagogic goals and identifying specific changes with a view to creating space for learning. It is therefore well suited to find answers to the specific RQs I have formulated. The SETT procedure falls under the *ad-hoc*

¹ Image taken from: <http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/services/ldc/resource/evaluation/tools/action/>

structured self-observation scheme advocated by researchers like Wallace (1998). The procedure I used was the same as Walsh's procedure (see Appendix III), but adapted as follows:

- (1) Make an audio recording of one entire 45-minute lesson. I chose to record entire lessons, rather than only 10-15 minute segments, because in practice it is inconvenient to turn the recorders on and off while teaching a lesson. Also, I preferred to listen to lessons in their entirety.
- (2) While listening to the recording the first time, I carefully chose a 10-15 minute segment involving both me and my learners and analyzed it according to classroom context or mode (see Appendix II for a summary of the modes, together with their interactional features and typical pedagogic goals).
- (3) Listen to the recording a second time, and after using the SETT instrument to keep a tally of the different features of my teacher talk and write down examples of the features I identified, I transcribed the selected segment.
- (4) As soon as possible after doing the SETT procedure, I conducted a reflective feedback interview with an experienced colleague of mine. To the interview, I brought the recording, the partial transcript, the SETT instrument as well as my teaching journal.

In total, I completed these steps five times, using audio data the first three times, during the month of July, and video data the last two, during the month of September. Table 3.1 shows a timetable summarizing the iterative cycles of data collection and analysis.

Table 3.1: Timetable of the two iterative cycles of AR in this study

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| AR cycle 1 (ARC1) | July -collected 9 audio recordings -conducted 3 reflective feedback interviews using audio data |
| Summer break | August -repeatedly analyzed and reflected on the data -reviewed the literature -devised a detailed action plan |
| AR cycle 2 (ARC2) | September -tried out and monitored various strategies -collected 6 audio and 5 video recordings -conducted 2 reflective feedback interviews using video data October-November |

-iteratively analyzed and reflected on the data
-wrote the final report

Regarding the process of transcription, following Richards (2003: 173-213), due care has been taken to represent reality as accurately and faithfully as possible, by referring back regularly to both the recordings and my transcripts of them to deepen my analysis and to confirm what was actually said, and using a detailed transcription system (see appendix IV). The structured approach I adopted to developing my analysis of the spoken data is based on the conversational analysis (CA) tradition. It involved a painstaking step-by-step description, examining sequences, and identifying patterns and particular features that recur in the interaction.

3.3 Participants and teaching context

Regarding the reflective feedback interviews, these were conducted with colleagues of mine using a stimulated recall procedure (adapted from Walsh 2006a; 2013). Colleagues were chosen based on their being qualified, experienced and available at the time. Table 2 shows basic information about my colleagues who were instructed to play the main role of listener or sounding board while listening to my reflections and self-evaluation and reading the partial transcript and listening to selected segments of the audio or video recording during our interview.

Table 3.2: Basic details about the reflective feedback interview participants

| Colleague | Years of experience teaching English | Years of experience teaching English to children | Highest level of educational qualification |
|-----------|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| 1 | 8 | 7.5 | Bachelor' s |
| 2 | 6 | 3.5 | Bachelor' s |
| 3 | 15 | 10 | Master' s |
| 4 | 6 | 0 | Master' s |
| 5 | 11 | 9.5 | Bachelor' s |

They were encouraged to ask any questions or voice any comments or reactions at any point in time, with respect to where my use of language may be constructing or obstructing opportunities for learning in particular. I stopped the recording at points of interest and verbalized my thoughts, reflections and self-evaluations, revealing what had been going on, my perceptions at that point, and my decision processes, while looking at the transcript together. These interviews were audio recorded and, soon afterwards, partially transcribed, with a focus on transcribing parts that discussed how

my use of language and interactional strategies could be changed or improved to create more opportunities for students to be involved and interact in class.

It should be noted that a letter aiming to obtain fully informed consent to make recordings was written up (in Japanese) explaining the purpose and procedures of the study. It was sent to my dispatch company who forwarded it to our client (ABC² Board of Education) and the principals of the two elementary schools where I work, and I subsequently received permission to make a total of 15 audio and 5 video recordings of my fifth and sixth grade classes.

Table 1 presents the details of the grades and numbers of students at the two public elementary schools where I work as an ALT. The two schools are located in a small city in northern Hiroshima, Japan.

Table 3.3: Schools, grades and numbers of students

| | Grades | Number of students |
|-----------------|--------|--------------------|
| School A | 5 | 25 |
| | 5 | 25 |
| | 6 | 25 |
| | 6 | 25 |
| School B | 5/6 | 12 |
| | Total | 112 |

In school A, there are two classes of fifth graders and two classes of sixth graders, each with approximately 25 students. In school B, there are only twelve students in a mixed fifth-sixth grade class. The students are all aged 11–12 and are all Japanese L1 speakers.

At the request of our client, we use the MEXT-produced textbook called *Hi Friends! 1 and 2* with 5th and 6th grade classes respectively. I use it as the main source but not the only source of teaching material, and I do have considerable freedom to introduce

² This is a pseudonym.

supplementary teaching materials. My dispatch company supplies its ALTs with enhanced versions of *Hi Friends!* lesson plans, which contain many tried-and-tested activities designed to enable ALTs to use *Hi Friends!* and its accompanying audio-visual materials independently, without any involvement from HRTs. Under the terms of our contract, we are *not* allowed to team-teach. In all of my classes, I teach solo, but an HRT is always present to help manage the class if necessary. Each class has one 45-minute lesson per week; the focus is on speaking and listening activities.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS

The data in this study comprise approximately 675 minutes of audio-recorded and about 225 minutes of videotaped classroom interaction, from which 3 segments totaling about thirty minutes, and 2 segments totaling about 20 minutes, were carefully selected for transcription, collaborative interpretation and analysis, respectively. These segments were selected because they contain a large amount of teacher-class interaction that was generally characterized by little if any responsiveness from most students. It is important to note that Segments 1 and 2 are exemplar of the warm-up review activities in the data in this study. These kind of activities are also typical examples of the warm-up activities in the *Hi Friends!* lesson plans (see appendix V for an example).

In this chapter, the findings from the first and second cycles of AR (ARC1 and ARC2 respectively) will be presented in sections 4.1 and 4.2 respectively.

4.1 Interactional features of language used

The SETT grid (see appendix III) was used to tally up and transcribe examples of interactional features used; the tallies for segments one, two and three, from ARC1, are presented in Table 1.

Table 4.1: Tallies of interactional features from three “snapshot” segments

| Interactional Features | Segment 1 12:40mins | Segment 2 10mins | Segment 3 8.5mins | Totals |
|------------------------|------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------|
| scaffolding | 30 | 22 | 31 | 83 |
| content feedback | 32 | 12 | 24 | 68 |
| teacher echo | 20 | 9 | 23 | 52 |
| display questions | 15 | 10 | 7 | 32 |
| seeking confirmation | 11 | 4 | 8 | 23 |
| referential questions | 2 | 11 | 6 | 19 |
| extended teacher turn | 11 | 4 | 4 | 19 |
| extended wait-time | 10 | 4 | 0 | 14 |
| extended learner turn | 0 | 0 | 12 | 12 |
| direct repair | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| form-focused feedback | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| teacher interruptions | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| turn completion | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

As shown in the table, scaffolding, content feedback and teacher echo are the most occurring interactional features in terms of total tallies (83, 68 and 52, respectively) in these three segments. In what follows, data extracts from audio recordings of lessons and reflective feedback interviews will be presented to illustrate these and other features and explain their significance.

Extract 4.1 below was taken from Segment 1, which was transcribed (see appendix IV for the transcription system) from an audio recording of the warm-up stage of a fifth-grade lesson, the aim of which was to review the previous lesson's target language (*How are you? I'm (fine).*) and enable learners to produce the correct form.

The extract opens with me in Managerial mode using the transitional marker 'now', which serves to direct attention to the activity at hand. I then prompt the class to ask me the display question 'how are you' using the Japanese phrase せーの (pronounced: *SAY-NO*), which is commonly used to elicit a choral response from Japanese YLs. This is a mode-switch from Managerial to Skills and Systems mode, but it is also a code-switch (a change from one language to another one). This particular type of code-switching is used to show solidarity and decrease social distance (Klimpfinger 2009: 361); it does not convey any information but is simply a very effective and efficient prompt, in my experience. The class then all together asks me 'how are you?' (line 3) and I respond by saying 'I'm...' and doing a gesture (line 4). There is then a micropause followed by a number of learners offering up the answer 'fine' (line 5). I then acknowledge the answer by repeating *it*, offering praise and a slight elaboration of the students' utterance, followed by the transition marker 'next' to indicate that we are moving on to the next question (line 6).

During our reflective feedback interview, while looking at line 6 of the transcript and listening to the audio recording of it together, Colleague 1 usefully pointed out the fact that, after I simply echoed the students' answer, there seemed to have been a good opportunity to scaffold the whole structure and reinforce the students' skills. His comment is presented in Extract 4.2. On reflection, I think that Colleague 1 makes an important point, as the students would likely have benefited from repeating the target language, together with its accompanying gesture, just once here.

Note

All transcribed talk will use the symbols shown in Appendix IV.

Extract 4.1: A gesture quiz

| | | |
|-------|--|-----|
| 1 | T: Now, let's do a gesture quiz. OK, so, | |
| 2 | Please ask me: ho:w are you? せーの [<i>ready, set, go!</i>] | I |
| 3 | LL: Ho:w a:re you? | R |
| 4 | T: I'm- ((punching one fist in the air and smiling)) (.) | I |
| 5 | LL: Fine. | R |
| 6 | T: (F1) Fine. Yes, very good. I'm fine. Very good, next. | F |
| <hr/> | | |
| 7 | L1: How are you? | R |
| 8 | T: せーの [<i>ready, set, go!</i>] | I |
| 9 | LL: Ho:w a:re you? | R |
| 10 | T: I'm- ((raising both hands in the air and making a happy facial expression)) | |
| 11 | (2) Yes, Kenji-san. ³ | I |
| 12 | L2: Happy. | R |
| 13 | T: (F2) Happy, yes, very good, I'm happy, very good. | F |
| <hr/> | | |
| 14 | T: Next, せーの [<i>ready, set, go!</i>] | I |
| 15 | LL: Ho:w a:re you? | R |
| 16 | T: I'm- ((yawning and cupping one hand over my mouth) (3) | I |
| 17 | L: はい [<i>yes</i>] | R |
| 18 | T: Yes, uuuh, Mari-san. | I |
| 19 | L3: (2) Sleepy. | R |
| 20 | T: Sleepy? Me too? ((raising one hand)) | C/I |
| 21 | LL: Me too! ((raising their hands)) | R |
| 22 | T: (F3) Yes, (1) very good. Yes, I'm sleepy. Very good. | F |
| <hr/> | | |

Key: I= Initiation

R= Response

F= Feedback

C/I= Confirmation/Initiation

³ All names are pseudonyms. -san is a Japanese honorific suffix.

Extract 4.2: A good opportunity to scaffold the entire structure

[T]his might be a good point in which to reinforce the whole thing, so maybe have them repeat, so if its fine, 'I'm fine', then have them repeat, prompt them to repeat, just once...to [try] to have them internalize the entire structure. (Colleague 1)

What is striking from Extract 4.1 is that it shows that all of my follow-up moves perform essentially the same primarily evaluative role. Table 4.2 below lists the 3 F-moves present in the extract in the left-hand column, recording my exact words for each move.

Table 4.2: Analysis of follow-up moves based on Extract 4.1

| F-move | Function | Teacher strategy |
|--|------------|--|
| (1) Fine. Yes, very good. I'm fine. Very good. | Evaluative | Repetition of student's (S's) contribution. Praise + slight elaboration of S's utterance. |
| (2) Happy. Yes, very good, I'm happy. Very good, | Evaluative | Repetition of S's contribution. Praise + slight elaboration of S's utterance. |
| (3) Yes. (1) Very good, yes. I'm sleepy. Very good. | Evaluative | Praise Repetition + slight elaboration of S's contribution. |

In the middle column I have attempted to classify each F-move as having either an evaluative or discursual function, according to my interpretation of its purpose in the emerging Teacher-Class interaction. The right hand column describes the various strategies I have used for each move, such as repetition, praise, etc. All of the moves were easy to categorize as their focus is arguably mainly on the form of the students' Response moves; each of them aims to give the students feedback about whether their response was acceptable or not.

This is unsurprising considering that the activity in Extract 4.1 is a quiz; a look through the rest of Segment 1 reveals that all other 18 F-moves in this segment have a primarily evaluative function, which is also unsurprising, considering that this segment consists mostly of quiz-type I-R-F cycles. It indicates, though, that there is a

need for balance in terms of more of the discursal type of follow-up. We will look at more of my F-moves in the next extract, but first, let us delve further into Extract 4.1 to see what else we can learn from it.

It is revealing to note that I use the phrase ‘very good’ six times in Extract 4.1 (and seven times in Extract 4.3 below); which on reflection is possibly excessive use of this particular acknowledgment token. As Walsh (2013) emphasizes, “feedback is one of the most important interactional practices a teacher can master since it has the greatest potential to influence learning” (ibid. 58); excessive use of acknowledgement tokens (typically discourse markers such as *right*, *OK*, *good* etc.), which is what he has all too often seen in almost all the data he has studied over several years, may actually close down an interaction prematurely. The data also shows that I tend to use the same acknowledgement token twice during the same follow-up move (e.g. lines 6, 13, and 22); in other words, I tend to echo myself, admittedly in a way that seems excessive in these instances. This finding is in line with Walsh’s (2002: 19) view that excessive use of the teacher-teacher kind of echo, where a teacher repeats his or her own utterance, can prevent other learners from interacting.

Other examples of teacher echo can be seen in lines 6, 13, and 20 in Extract 4.1. In contrast to the teacher-teacher type of echo described above, these examples show that I often echo students’ responses; in these instances, my echo was intended to remodel the responses with more appropriate pronunciation and to ensure that all members of the class could hear what the responses were. They can therefore be viewed as a type of scaffolding (Jarvis and Robinson 1997, Seedhouse 1997); these and other similar instances of teacher echo have therefore also been included in the count of ‘Scaffolding’ tallies, thus making scaffolding the most occurring interactional feature of all. Other examples of scaffolding occur in lines 4, 10 and 16, in which I supply the sentence stem ‘I’m-’ together with a gesture to give the students a hint as to the quiz answer.

Unsurprisingly, I tend to keep a quick pace to activities like this, and tend not to use a considerable amount of ‘wait-time’. In fact, in Extract 4.1, according to my calculation, the average ‘wait-time’ is about 2.5 seconds, which may still be regarded as ‘extended’

wait-time considering that research has shown that teachers typically wait only around 1 second after asking a question before nominating a student to answer it (e.g. Rowe 1969). Despite using such wait-time, I have often noted in my teaching journal that few students – the usual more active and confident ones - tend to voluntarily raise their hands to respond to gesture quiz questions like these, prompting me to reflect that most students clearly need more practice and more support from the teacher or from their peers before they will be able to quickly and confidently respond to these quiz-type questions. Part of the reason why there is such a lack of response from many learners seems likely that there is a lack of turn-taking system in this activity, which tends to result in an uneven allocation of turns, to the disadvantage of the more reticent students who tend to sit back passively and not participate, quite possibly feeling neglected. It became apparent to me after listening to the first audio recording and reviewing my teaching journal that I unconsciously asked the same students questions, most likely because they appeared more confident and I therefore felt confident of getting a correct answer from them. I often ask the students who put up their hands to answer questions because I want to save time and speed things along. Considering MEXT's advice on avoiding nominating the more reticent students, and the fact that there is limited class time, it would be impractical and disrespectful to nominate each and every student to answer a quiz question in turn.

Let us now consider Extract 4.3 below, taken from segment 2, from a fifth-grade class that has just finished listening to and repeating the numbers from 1 to 20 and is now being given a warm-up quiz in which I ask the students "what number?" while pointing to number flashcards on the blackboard, to try to elicit the names of the numbers from students. The reason why this particular extract was selected is because not only does it contain a lot of teacher-student interaction, but it also contains a striking variation of an I-R-F chain in which I echo the students' response with a rising intonation and subsequently say '*me too*' also with a rising intonation (e.g. line 3). This pattern is repeated throughout the extract (and appears in some other extracts of my data, for example, see Extract 1 above, line 20), and therefore deserves critical explication and appraisal here.

Extract 4.3: A numbers review quiz

| | | | |
|----|---------|---|-----|
| 1 | T: | Now, please raise your hand, what number? (1) Yes, Jun-san. | I |
| 2 | L: | (3) six. | R |
| 3 | T: | Six? Me too? ((raising my hand)) | C/I |
| 4 | LL: | Me too! ((raising their hands)) | R |
| 5 | T (F1): | OK, very good! | F |
| 6 | T | What number? (1) Yes, Hayao-san. | I |
| 7 | L: | Fourteen. | R |
| 8 | T: | Sorry? | C |
| 9 | L: | Fourteen. | R |
| 10 | T: | Fourteen? Me too? | C/I |
| 11 | LL: | Me too! | R |
| 12 | T (F2): | Yes, fourteen. Very good. | F |
| 13 | T: | What number? (1) Miyu-san. | I |
| 14 | L: | Seventeen. | R |
| 15 | T: | Seventeen? Me too? | C/I |
| 16 | LL: | Me too! | R |
| 17 | T (F3): | Very good. | F |
| 18 | T: | What number? (4) Miku-san. | I |
| 19 | L: | Twelve. | R |
| 20 | T: | Twelve? Me too? | C/I |
| 21 | LL: | Me too! | R |
| 22 | T (F4): | Very good, very good, all right, very good. | F |
| 23 | T: | OK, last one. What Number? (3) Yes, Haruki-san. | I |
| 24 | L: | Twenty. | R |
| 25 | T: | Twenty? Me too? | C/I |
| 26 | LL: | Me too! | R |
| 27 | T (F5): | Yes, very good. Good job. Now... | F |

During my reflective feedback interview I commented that my use of teacher echo (lines 3, 10, 15, 20, 25) was beneficial in ensuring that everyone hears the nominated pupil's utterance, thus keeping the whole class moving along together. This finding is in line with Walsh's (2013) view that the teacher-student kind of echo, where a teacher repeats a learner's utterance for the benefit of the class "is helpful and ensures the class progresses together and that everyone is 'in the loop'" (ibid. 58). This kind of

echo can also serve the important functions of confirming a correct response, and remodeling the response with more appropriate pronunciation, as mentioned in the discussion of Extract 4.1 above.

By saying 'me too' (lines 3, 10, 15, 20, 25), I attempted to seek confirmation from other students who had raised their hands with the same answer but did not have a chance to offer it up to the whole class because I could only nominate one student to give an answer. I felt that this would give everyone a chance to participate. However, in the reflective feedback interview data presented in Extract 4.4, Colleague 2 perceptively points out that this may have been a good opportunity for me to scaffold the learners' production of the lexical item.

Extract 4.4: Another good opportunity to provide scaffolding

Just one question about the "me too". I think it's good that you can ... acknowledge that they have the same answer, but instead of actually repeating or saying the answer, they're saying "me too", so through the course of this it looks like they are saying me too and it maybe a missed opportunity for them to be able to say the vocabulary word as well. (Colleague 2)

My colleague makes a valid observation, prompting me to reflect that it may well have been beneficial for students to repeat the lexical item here; some of the students seem only to be saying or perhaps just parroting 'me too' rather than repeating and processing the target language in a meaningful way.

Similar to Extract 4.1, the data in Extract 4.3 reveal that I tend to nominate students quite quickly, the average wait-time here being about two seconds. Similarly, the data show that I tend to arbitrarily allocate turns to a small minority of students who actively raise their hands. This finding is again corroborated by notes in my teaching journal and indicates that there is a need for an equitable and supportive turn-taking system. Also similarly, and very interestingly, the data in Extract 4.3 reveal that all of my follow-up moves perform the same primarily evaluative role. This is illustrated in Table 4.3 below, and again indicates that there is a need for follow-ups that have a primarily discursual function, in order to ensure a balance between the competing needs for formal feedback and content-based follow-up. As Cullen (2002: 122) argues,

providing such a balance is a skill that language teachers need to deploy constantly in almost every lesson they teach.

Table 4.3: Analysis of follow-up moves based on Extract 4.3

| F-move | Function | Teacher strategy |
|---|-----------------|---------------------------------------|
| (1) OK, very good! | Evaluative | Praise. |
| (2) Yes, fourteen, very good. | Evaluative | Praise. |
| | | Repetition of student's contribution. |
| (3) Very good. | Evaluative | Praise. |
| (4) Very good, very good, all right, very good. | Evaluative | Praise. |
| (5) Yes, very good. Good job. Now... | Evaluative | Praise. |

The data and analyses presented in this section thus far attempt to illustrate an iterative process in which I made a lesson recording, transcribed and analyzed a selected segment of it, and then collaboratively reflected on it and interpreted it with a colleague during a feedback interview, with a view to identifying specific areas where I could change and improve my use of language and interactional strategies. Because the process was repeated, a range of lesson-types could be analyzed over a relatively short period of time, which is certainly beneficial from a teacher development perspective (Walsh 2013: 64), thus allowing a fine-grained treatment of a relatively small amount of data and enabling me to hone the skill of reflective practice through repetition. Repeating this specific process several times, while returning to listen to the recordings and analyze the transcripts repeatedly, provided scope for clarification, raising awareness, questions and comment generation on the classroom interaction as it unfolded, and ensured that any misunderstandings could be eliminated and a common perspective on the discourse attained.

The main findings from the first cycle of AR as shown in the data and analyses above can be summarized as follows:

- ✚ The three most commonly occurring features of language used in the data were scaffolding, teacher echo and content feedback.
- ✚ My follow-up moves tend to have a primarily evaluative function during review quiz activities.

- ✚ I tend to allocate turns to the stronger students in an uneven way, thus many of the students seem to not be given a fair chance and may therefore feel neglected.
- ✚ I tend to echo students' responses to confirm, remodel, and ensure that everyone hears what was said.
- ✚ I tend to excessively echo myself using the acknowledgement token 'very good'.
- ✚ I tend to nominate students quite quickly, and not use much extended wait-time.

4.2 Strategies and their effectiveness

In light of the main findings from ARC1 presented in the previous section, the following strategies emerged as particularly worth trying out and monitoring during ARC2:

1. Introducing a turn-taking point-scoring system that encourages participation and peer support
2. Using more and varied scaffolding, particularly the discursal variety
3. Reducing teacher echo
4. Extending wait-time

After much reflection and reviewing the literature, I became cognizant of the fact that one of these strategies, namely (1.), if implemented well, would likely facilitate the effectiveness of the other three strategies. I therefore decided to focus mostly on developing a turn-taking point-scoring system that aims to encourage peer support during ARC2. Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 will present data from ARC2, focusing on assessing the extent to which strategies (1.) and (2.), respectively, were effective in creating space for learning. Due to space limitations, strategies (3.) and (4.) will not be discussed.

4.2.1 A turn-taking point-scoring system that encourages peer support

This strategy involved introducing a turn-taking point-scoring system within a game called Typhoon that is illustrated in Extract 4.5 below, which is taken from the warm-up stage of a fifth-grade lesson designed to get students to practice using the target language 'Do you like ~? Yes, I do./ No, I don't'. I have put the students into three teams and assigned each student a number. I then randomly select one student (#3) from each team by drawing a number card, and then ask the question 'Do you like ice

cream?’ and get the #3 students to stand up and do rock-scissors-paper to determine who will get to answer the question. I then ask the winner the question while the two losers sit down.

Extract 4.5: A Q&A game called ‘Typhoon’

- 1 T: OK, let’s start the game, please listen. Student # 3, #3, yes, #3
- 2 Do you like- Do you like (2) ice cream? #3
- 3 LL: ((raising hands)) (5)
- 4 T: Yes, #3 stand up, (3) please do rock scissors paper ((gesturing)), ready go!
- 5 LL: Rock, scissors, paper ((doing rock-scissors-paper)) one two three! ((L1 wins))
- 6 T: Do you like ice cream? ((to L1))
- 7 L1 Yes, I do.
- 8 T: You like ice cream. Me too! I like ice cream.
- 9 Please choose ((gesturing to the grid of cards on the board)).
- 10 L1: B3⁴
- 11 T: B3. How’s the weather? 世一の
- 12 LL: How’s the weather?
- 13 T: T: It’s- (2) ((gesturing hands above head))
- 14 LL: Sunny
- 15 T: Sunny. 20 points, good job! ((writing points on board))

One of the key things to note about this extract is that, because students are randomly selected, everyone has an equal chance to participate. Nobody can sit back passively and let other students do all the work. This result is unsurprising because in Japan, as in many other countries, rock-scissors-paper is a popular and effective way of deciding the outcome of things. This method of random selection appeared very effective and fair, so I decided to use it on a routine basis during each class throughout ARC2, and found that it appeared similarly effective each time with all of the classes in the data.

What Extract 4.5 does not convey, however, is the unprecedented levels of excitement and enjoyment that this game appeared to arouse among the students. Extract 4.6 shows what I had written in my teaching journal immediately after the lesson.

⁴ This refers to the card letter/number that the student has chosen from the grid on the board.

Extract 4.6: An enthusiastic response

The amount of participation and enthusiasm today was breathtaking. All students had a chance to participate, and used the target language. There was lots of peer support and likely some facilitating anxiety. ... The turn-taking system seems to work well and fairly, but not all students get a chance to answer the question (depending on whether they win rock-scissors-paper). (my teaching journal)

Students' enjoyment was evidenced in the many positive comments in their end-of-lesson reflection sheets throughout AR2, some of which are shown in Extract 4.7.

Extract 4.7: Positive comments from students⁵

*It was easy to understand because we did it while playing a game.
I understood the difference between 'yes, I do' and 'no, I don't'.
The Typhoon game was fun. Amazingly enthusiastic.*

This enthusiastic response was likely due more to the point-scoring system than to the turn-taking system though. What students appeared to particularly enjoy about the game is that after the winner completes a question and answer (Q&A) exchange with the teacher, he or she gets to choose a card from the grid of cards on the board, most of which have a vocabulary item and point value on the back, but some of which have a picture of a typhoon. If the card they choose has a lexical item, they get to do another Q&A exchange with the teacher and their team gets the points on the card. If they select the typhoon card, they get to wipe some or all of the points from one of the opposing team's scores, and add those points to their score. Many students appear to excitedly enjoy getting a typhoon card and wiping points off another team's score.

Another particularly significant thing about the turn-taking and point scoring system described above is that, as noted in Extract 4.6, it appeared to create some 'facilitating anxiety', particularly among the more reticent students, as they were not on their own; they were with their teammates who had an incentive (i.e. getting points and winning the game) to provide support. While competitiveness may generate 'debilitating anxiety' (Bailey 1983: 69), competition in which students have the support of their peers can generate 'facilitating anxiety' which "motivates the learner to 'fight' the new learning task" (Scovel 1978: 139). During our reflective feedback interview,

⁵ All comments from students have been translated from Japanese by this teacher-researcher

colleague 4 also pointed out that such a system gives the stronger students an opportunity to use their ability to support the weaker ones and push their level up in a safer way (see Extract 4.8).

Extract 4.8: Pushing their level up in a safer way

You're also not muting the students who have more ability. They're still able to show their ability in a supportive way. It gets the students who are more reticent to, maybe push their level up a little bit in a safer way. (Colleague 4)

The stronger students did not appear to be muted at all. They had indeed an opportunity and an incentive to use their ability to scaffold their classmates' production of language. This seemed to be a very effective dynamic because it appeared to increase involvement from many students in a cooperative way, and in fact, I noted in my teaching journal on many occasions that students were providing scaffolding for each other. It appeared very effective and efficient when the scaffolding came from capable peers rather than from the teacher; it is quite possible that some students, particularly the more reticent ones, are more receptive to getting support from their peers than from their teacher. Some students at their age and level may feel shy or reluctant to interact with and receive support from a teacher - especially a foreign one - so I would argue that creating opportunities for the stronger students to utilize their skills to support the weaker students is very appropriate and seemingly effective. Extract 4.9 offers one example from the data showing a stronger student providing support to a weaker student (line 7-8).

Although the turn-taking system shown in Extract 4.5 appears to work well, one problem with it, as noted in Extract 4.6, is that only one of the randomly selected students – the winner of rock-scissors-paper - got to have a dialogue with the teacher. During our interview, colleague 4 and I discussed this problem, and brainstormed some ways to increase involvement and dialogic interaction for all students. One idea that aims to solve the problem is, colleague 4 suggested, instead of having the rock-scissors-paper loser(s) sit down, they can be involved in some way, by, for example, asking the winner the question in unison. They can then get a baseline of five points for participation, after which they sit down. The winner then asks the teacher the question and gets a chance to choose a card from the grid and get points for his or her

team. Extract 4.9 below illustrates how this scenario developed in practice, with my smaller class that was split into two teams. In line 3, L1 is instructed to ask the target question ‘What’s this?’ to her opposing classmate, which she promptly does (line 4), and is then given praise and a baseline of 5 points (line 5). This small adjustment appeared to be very effective in involving L1 in this exchange, and appeared to work equally well in involving all other students in subsequent exchanges, thereby creating space for learning.

Extract 4.9 - Baseline and bonus points for participation

- 1 T: What’s this? #2, #2, yes, please stand up.
- 2 LL: Rock, scissors, paper, one two three ((doing rock, scissors, paper))
- 3 T: ((L1 loses)) Kaho, question, please ask, what’s-
- 4 L1 What’s this?
- 5 T: T: Good question, 5 points. (3) ((writing points on board)) Yes, Haruki, what’s this?
- 6 L3 It’s a...
- 7 L2 It’s a dog.
- 8 T: It’s a dog! This team, good help, good help, so 5 points, bonus.

Regarding this increased involvement, during our interview, colleague 5 voiced his approval (see Extract 4.10).

Extract 4.10: Having the kids do work

I like where you’re going with this, ... you want the people who don’t get to do the typhoon, you want them to do something. I’m a big proponent of having the kids do work, even if it’s getting them to ask a question they already know how to answer.

Extract 4.9 also illustrates how bonus points can be given to students who support their classmates. In line 6, when it was L2’s turn to answer the question from L1, L3 jumped in and provided him with the sentence starter ‘It’s a ____’, which L2 promptly completed. L3’s team was then given praise and bonus points for their helpfulness. There are many more similar examples of students supporting each other in the data.

Reflection notes from students also show that they enjoy cooperating with their classmates and playing the game, whether they win or lose (for two examples, see Extract 4.11).

Extract 4.11: Cooperating and having fun: win or lose

We cooperated with our team in the typhoon game, and I was glad that we won.

We lost at the typhoon game, but boy it was fun.

It is interesting to note here that, during one of the first trials of the turn-taking point-scoring system described above, one of my HRTs suggested that we deduct points from teams that were being noisy; it appeared very effective when we implemented this suggestion into an official rule by displaying it on a poster, the result being that teammates very quickly started to encourage each other to be quiet and listen when it was not their turn to speak during the game. The more orderly classroom atmosphere appeared to enable more students to enjoy the activity because, without the noisiness, they could hear clearly what was being said; one student explicitly expressed her gratitude on her reflection sheet (see Extract 4.12).

Extract 4.12: A note of thanks for the new rules

Thank you very much for the new rules.

During our reflective feedback interview, Colleague 5 commented that deducting points is a good idea, but that it is advisable to do it in a step-by-step game-like way, thus not being too harsh on the kids (see Extract 4.13).

Extract 4.13: Deducting points in a step-by-step way

I would suggest first giving one or two yellow cards for the whole team, which is a warning before giving a red card and the point deductions actually start happening. ... they're small kids ... this also helps not singling out one kid, cuz as you know its gonna make him feel like all the kids don't like him cuz he's costing them points. Also, don't deduct the points straightaway, but rather wait till the end of class; its less disheartening for the students. (Colleague 5)

Let us now consider the effectiveness of strategy two.

4.2.2 Using more discoursal scaffolding

This strategy involved trying out follow-up moves that are qualitatively different from the mainly evaluative follow-ups shown in Extracts 4.1 and 4.3. In contrast to evaluative follow-ups, whose emphasis is on form and whose support for learning is in the formal correction that the F-move offers, the emphasis in discoursal follow-up moves is on content and the support for learning consists primarily in the teacher providing a rich source of message-oriented target language input as she or he reformulates and elaborates on the students' contributions (Cullen 2002: 119-120). The purpose of discoursal F-moves is to pick up students' contributions and to 'incorporate them into the flow of (classroom) discourse' (Mercer 1995: 26), in order to sustain and develop a dialogue between the teacher and the class.

An example of a discoursal follow-up can be seen in the data in Extract 4.5 above; this example is reproduced in Table 4.4 below, recording my exact words for the F-move in the left hand column and the strategies I used in the right hand column.

Table 4.4: Analysis of follow-up move based on Extract 4.5

| F-move | Function | Teacher strategy |
|---|------------|---|
| (1) You like ice cream. Me too! I like ice cream. | Discoursal | Repetition + slight reformulation of S's utterance. Comment. |



As table 4.4 shows, I repeated the student's response in a slightly reformulated way, and then added a comment. In other words, this F-move combines three of the specific strategies of effective discoursal follow-up that Cullen (2002: 124-125) identified in his data: (1) repetition, (2) reformulation and (3) comment. This F-move provided the class with a model of correct usage, without interrupting the flow of the Typhoon game we were playing. It acted as a way of ensuring that the *content* of the individual student's contribution was available – and also audible – to the rest of the class. In a sense, it was an attempt to convert the students' attempt at output into comprehensible input for the whole class. The spontaneous comment 'Me too! I like ice cream.' was likely effective in that it was quite short and likely easy-to-understand for the children.

It is worth noting here that, based on his extensive experience of teaching English to children in Japan, Paul (2003: 122) also points out that repeating and commenting on a child's utterance, just like the F-move in Table 4.4, is an effective way of expressing interest and is likely to make the student feel that she has succeeded in getting her message across. I would therefore argue that this F-move appeared to be effective in expressing interest, picking up the student's contribution and incorporating it into the flow of classroom discourse.

I would also argue that a key factor that contributed to its effectiveness is the fact that it occurred within what I now call the 'Typhoon routine'. In fact, as mentioned, I had been routinely playing the typhoon game with each class for several weeks before this particular occurrence of scaffolding, so they were quite familiar with the context and rules of the game by then. This is very much in line with Bruner's (1990) argument that scaffolding will likely be more effective if it occurs within a routine, thus building on students' familiarity and allowing them to predict the meaning and intention, and arguably, I would add, creating space for learning. To add variation into the routine to try to ensure that students did not get bored of it, I tried out a number of ideas with much success that emerged through my final feedback interviews, most notably:

- (1) Integrate the game into other activities; the game continues and the point system remains in place on the board in the background throughout the lesson, providing an ongoing source of motivation. Come back to the game at suitable times later in the lesson.
- (2) Change the language targets, using lexical items from previous lessons to build in a regular review element while presenting the new target language.

To sum up, the key findings from ARC2 are as follows:

-  Drawing number cards appeared very effective and fair in randomly selecting students
-  The turn-taking point-scoring system appeared to
 - ✧ encourage the stronger students to support the weaker ones, thus increasing involvement from many students in a cooperative way.

- ✧ create some facilitating anxiety that motivated many students to get involved in an enjoyable and non-threatening way.
- ✧ encourage students to follow behavior rules, thus creating a more orderly classroom atmosphere.
- ✧ Using discorsal follow-ups appeared effective in providing a rich source of comprehensible message-oriented target-language input.
- ✧ Developing the typhoon game into a routine appeared to contribute to the effectiveness of the discorsal scaffolding.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Discussion

This dissertation has been motivated by four RQs. This chapter will begin by addressing each one in turn and discussing some issues emerging from them. It will conclude by considering some pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

RQ (1) *What interactional features of language is the teacher currently using?*

Table 4.1 showed that I used scaffolding, content feedback and teacher echo the most in the three segments analyzed during ARC1. The next most-occurring interactional features were display questions, seeking confirmation, referential questions, and so on.

RQ (2) *To what extent is the teacher's language use congruent with his pedagogic goals?*

In both Extracts 4.1 and 4.3, we have seen the use of scaffolding, teacher echo and content feedback, which are all appropriate language features to use in Skills and Systems mode (Walsh 2006), though more scaffolding was needed to reinforce the whole structure and less content feedback was needed to reduce teacher-teacher echo.

We also saw that the dominant pattern was a chain of I-R-F cycles. Although the I-R-F pattern has come in for some criticism because it rarely occurs in “natural” discourse outside the classroom (Nunan 1987: 141; Thornbury 1996), a number of scholars (e.g. Seedhouse 1996; Jarvis and Robinson 1997; Cullen 1998) have developed a more balanced view, arguing that it has considerable pedagogic potential. Seedhouse, for example, highlights the high frequency of I-R-Fs in transcripts of parent-child talk, and points out that ‘given the prominence of the I-R-F cycle in parent-child interaction, one might therefore have expected communicative theorists to be actively promoting the use of the I-R-F cycle rather than attempting to banish it’ (ibid: 20). Seedhouse makes the key point that, in the classroom and in parent-child interaction, the core goal is learning or education, and the IRF cycle is an interactional feature well suited to this core goal.

We have also seen the use of primarily evaluative F-moves. These were, I would argue, appropriate in Extracts 4.1 and 4.3, because the emphasis of evaluative follow-ups is on form and the pedagogic goal of these activities was for students to say the target language accurately. It is therefore reasonable to say that my language use is overall convergent with my pedagogic goal in Extracts 4.1 and 4.3.

A potential issue that emerges from this is that, according to Cullen (2002), if a teacher only provides evaluative follow-ups, it will impede the development of a communicative classroom dialogue between the teacher and the class. It is therefore necessary to provide a balance between evaluative and discoursal kinds of scaffolding in other activities.

RQ (3) How can the teacher change his use of language and interactional strategies in order to create “space for learning”?

To create space for learning, it was determined that more and varied scaffolding would be necessary - a balance between evaluative and discoursal kinds in particular - and that less teacher-teacher echo and more extended wait-time was needed. These findings are consistent with Walsh's (2002 and 2006) and Walsh and Li's findings that using scaffolding and extended wait-time while reducing teacher echo can create space for learning.

It was also found that an equitable and efficient turn-taking point-scoring system that encourages pupils to support each other would likely have a beneficial effect on students' involvement in activities. The finding that I tend to allocate turns unevenly is in line with data from both teachers' reflections and their own classroom recordings presented in Tsui's 1996 study, based on the action research projects of 38 teachers who investigated learner reticence and anxiety in their Hong Kong secondary school teaching contexts. The teachers in Tsui's study perceived that one of the main reasons for many learners' unresponsiveness was that teachers' tended to unevenly allocate turns to the brighter students from whom they were sure of getting an answer. This is an important issue because one of the reasons why MEXT decided to introduce English at the elementary school level is equality of access (Butler 2007: 140) : MEXT is aware of the fact is that many parents pay for their children to have private English lessons, and many parents do not because they cannot afford to. Making

English compulsory in elementary schools is MEXT's attempt to level the playing field. I would therefore argue that we, as language teachers, have an obligation to ensure that there is a level playing field in our classes; we need to think of ways to get all students involved in all of the activities in our classes in an enjoyable manner.

RQ (4) *How effective are these changes?*

The effectiveness of the turn-taking point-scoring system appeared evident in the data which showed that all students had a fair chance to participate, and that many students on many occasions provided support in the form of scaffolding for their peers and encouraging them to follow behavior rules; such peer support appeared effective and efficient. The effectiveness, not to mention enjoyment, was also evidenced by the many positive comments in students' reflection sheets, positive comments from HRTs, and many notes in my own teaching journal.

It appeared very effective to routinely integrate the turn-taking point scoring system throughout the lessons, thus harnessing the energy and skills of the stronger students to support the weaker students and creating more favorable conditions in which scaffolding could take place effectively. It appeared very effective for stronger students to provide scaffolding for weaker ones. It also appeared that such a system could create 'facilitating anxiety' that enabled more students to get involved actively.

These results are in line with Paul's (2003: 119) assertion that,

[i]f the children are in teams, [using a point scoring system that runs throughout a lesson] can be effective in encouraging teammates to cooperate with each other and take responsibility for following behavior rules. Such a system may involve getting points during games, losing points for breaking rules, and making the class atmosphere as exciting as possible.

One potential issue emerging from the Typhoon routine is that some teachers might worry that students could become too competitive. In order to prevent pupils from becoming over competitive, Paul (2003: 120-21) offers a number of useful suggestions: teachers can play down the value of the points, keep the focus on learning, and not use points with every activity. Also, we can take measures such as making the outcome depend on luck and sometimes cheating creatively to make sure that all teams feel that they have a good chance of getting points and winning. At the end of the day, Paul advises us to pause and ask ourselves: *are the children learning*

to develop cooperative social skills? This depends, he suggests, on whether they all feel that they are insiders, having fun together, and learning English together.

Effectiveness of the discursal follow-ups was evident in that they appeared to provide the class with a model of correct usage without interrupting the flow of the activity. Rather, they picked up on the student's contributions and incorporated it into the flow. It would likely have been even more effective had I added in a little humor, for example, by saying 'I like broccoli ice cream' and showing a picture such as the one in Figure 4.1. As Cullen (2002) has pointed out, a teacher who creates an environment that is rich in language and humor can develop a meaningful dialog and support learning effectively.



Figure 4.1 Broccoli ice cream (from www.supersimplelearning.com)

5.2 Conclusion

This dissertation has identified features of this teacher-researcher's language use and interactional strategies, namely scaffolding, teacher-echo, extended wait-time and turn-taking, that can be adjusted to increase opportunities for learners, particularly the more reticent ones, to participate and learn. It has examined a few snapshots of elementary school lessons, which are perhaps typical of many where English is taught as a foreign language in Japan, and illustrated how iteratively reflecting on these snapshots in feedback interviews with colleagues can provide valuable insights into areas where modifications are needed.

To return to our original question, it is clear, then, that I can better support all students, particularly the more reticent ones, and ensure that I treat all students fairly by employing and developing a turn-taking and point-scoring system that encourages peer support and appears to enable other strategies, striking a balance between evaluative and discoursal scaffolding in particular, to be effective in creating space for learning.

The evidence presented in this dissertation strongly suggests that teachers can develop fine-grained understandings of their local contexts and make conscious changes to classroom actions by analyzing data from their own teaching contexts and reflecting on it in dialogue with colleagues. By using an appropriate tool, such as an *ad hoc* instrument like the SETT framework, to collect small amounts of data from a sample of lessons and build up a profile of our classroom interactional competence, we can make conscious changes and, even better, improvements to practice that can be evaluated over time.

This study has contributed to our understanding and knowledge of supportive teacher talk and interactional strategies in ALT-fronted interaction in Japanese elementary schools, and has, it is hoped, raised awareness of the issues of learner reticence and equality of access, as well as some practical techniques that can be used to address them.

5.3 Limitations

The data in this study are suggestive but limited, making generalizations impossible. The main concern has been to enhance understandings of local context though, rather than generalize to a broader one; understandings of local context have, in my view, to a significant extent, been enhanced.

Although Extracts 4.1 and 4.3 are typical examples of the warm-up review activities used across the data set and within the Hi Friends! Lessons plans, it is important to acknowledge the fact that there were a variety of other kinds of warm-up activities in the dataset, which were not selected for close analysis. I therefore cannot claim that the findings are constant across the entire dataset. That said, it is fair to say that the close analysis of several exemplar snapshots through the SETT procedure enabled me to develop a fine-grained understanding of my use of language and interactional strategies and to make conscious changes and improvements to my classroom actions.

One criticism of this study might be of the fact that it combines both introspection and retrospection. The reflecting stage of action research includes both of these processes. Introspection is “the process of observing and reflecting on one’s thoughts, feelings, motives, reasoning processes, and mental states with a view to determining the ways in which these processes and states determine our behavior” (Nunan 1992: 115). By comparison, retrospection is “the process of collecting similar data after the event under investigation has taken place” (Bailey and Nunan 1996: 121). The status of introspective data has been criticized as follows: does the verbalization process accurately reflect the cognitive operations giving rise to particular action? In other words, to what extent can we believe what the teacher-researcher has to say? Another criticism relates to the time lapse between the introspection and the event itself. Nisbett and Wilson (1977) have argued that the technique should be treated with caution because there is a gap between the event and the reporting, which will lead to unreliable data.

Mindful of these criticisms, many teacher-researchers (e.g. Bailey and Nunan 1996), however, believe that with reasonable care threats to internal and external validity can be averted. They support the use of introspective and retrospective data collection techniques, and the use of such data as part of the interpretive analyses, because “it is

a fact of life that the data could simply not have been collected in any other way” (ibid: 121). I fully agree with them and, during the process of collecting introspective and retrospective data for this dissertation, took due care to improve the quality of the data by trying to keep the interval between the recorded lessons and the reflective feedback interviews as short as possible. Also, I brought a large amount of rich contextual information and stimulus about the lessons (e.g. audio recordings, teaching journal, lesson reports, SETT grids with analyses) to the reflective feedback interviews. Based on Mackey and Gass (2005) and Dörnyei (2007), these measures can improve the quality of the retrospective data.

5.4 Suggestions for future research

From this research experience, I have learned the value of using a suitable research instrument to examine my own classroom data and reflect on it in dialogue with colleagues. The SETT framework, I feel, has been instrumental in enabling me to complete this iterative and reflective process in a systematic yet straightforward way that has attained useful insights. I would therefore suggest employing the SETT framework. SETT was only ever designed to handle teacher-fronted interaction though; as a result, the voices of the learners are therefore notably missing (Walsh 2006: 139). As Nunan (1996:55) has noted, ‘to understand what is going on in language classrooms the voices of the teachers (and ultimately of the learners as well) must be heard’. Collaborative research therefore needs to be designed to hear the voices of the teachers and the learners.

Further classroom studies of this nature would be useful to corroborate the findings of this particular study with a view to determining what makes for effective follow-up and for effective turn-taking and point-scoring systems that encourage cooperative and supportive interaction among young learners. Greater understanding and knowledge in this area will have important implications for teaching and teacher training.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I Reflection questions to guide journal entries (from Richards and Lockhart 1996: 16-17)

Questions about what happened during the lesson.

Questions about your teaching.

- What did you set out to teach?
- Were you able to accomplish your goals?
- What teaching materials did you use? How effective were they?
- What techniques did you use?
- What grouping arrangements did you use?
- Was your lesson teacher dominated?
- What kind of teacher student interaction occurred?
- Did anything amusing or unusual occur?
- Did you have any problems with the lesson?
- Did you do anything differently than usual?
- What kinds of decision-making did you employ?
- Did you depart from your lesson plan? If so, why?
- Did the change make things better or worse?
- What was the main accomplishment of the lesson?
- Which parts of the lesson were most successful?
- Which parts of the lesson were least successful?
- Would you teach the lesson differently if you talk to it again?
- Was your philosophy of teaching reflected in the lesson?
- Did you discover anything new about your teaching?
- What changes do you think you should make in your teaching?
- What do I do as a teacher?
- What principles and beliefs inform my teaching?
- Why do I teach the way I do?
- What roles do learners play in my classes? Should I teach differently?

Questions about the students.

- Did you teach all your students today?
- Did students contribute actively to listen?
- How did you respond to different students needs?
- Were students challenged by the lesson?
- What do you think students really learned from the lesson?
- What did they like most about the lesson?
- What didn't they respond well to?

Questions to ask yourself as a language teacher.

- What is the source of my ideas about language teaching?
- Where am I in my professional development?
- How am I developing as a language teacher?
- What are my strengths as a language teacher?
- What are my limitations at present?
- Are there any contradictions in my teaching?
- How can I improve my language teaching?
- How am I helping my students?
- What satisfaction does language teaching give me?

Appendix II

Second Language Classroom Modes (from Walsh 2006)

The four micro-contexts or modes, together with their interactional features and typical pedagogic goals, are summarized in the table below.

| <i>Mode</i> | <i>Pedagogic goals</i> | <i>interactional features</i> |
|------------------------------|--|--|
| 1. Managerial | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● to transmit information ● to organize the physical learning environment ● to refer learners to materials ● to introduce or conclude an activity ● to change from one mode of learning to another | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● a single extended teacher turn which uses explanations and or instructions ● the use of transitional markers ● the use of confirmation checks ● an absence of learner contributions |
| 2. Materials | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● to provide language practice around a piece of material ● to elicit responses in relation to the material ● to check and display answers ● to clarify when necessary ● to evaluate contributions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● predominance of IRF pattern ● extensive use of display questions ● form-focused feedback ● corrective repair ● the use of scaffolding |
| 3. Skills and systems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● to enable learners to produce correct forms ● to enable learners to manipulate the target language ● to provide corrective feedback ● to provide learners with practice in sub-skills ● to display correct answers | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● the use of direct repair ● the use of scaffolding ● extended teacher turns ● display questions ● teacher echo ● clarification requests ● form-focused feedback |
| 4. Classroom context | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● to enable learners to express themselves clearly ● to establish a context ● to promote oral fluency | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● extended learner turns ● short teacher turns ● minimal repair ● content feedback ● referential questions ● scaffolding ● clarification requests |

Appendix III SETT (Self-evaluation of teacher talk) framework (from Walsh 2006b: 166-8)

This is the procedure that teachers in Walsh's (2006) study followed when recording and analyzing their language use in the classroom:

1. Make a 10-15 minute audio recording from one of your lessons. Try and choose a part of the lesson involving both you and your learners. You don't have to start at the beginning of the lesson; choose any segment you like.
2. As soon as possible after the lesson, listen to the tape. The purpose of the first listening is to analyze the extract according to classroom context or **mode**. As you listen the first time, decide which modes are in operation. Choose from the following (see also appendix 2 for more about modes and their interactional features and typical pedagogic goals):
 - Skills and Systems mode (main focus is on particular language items, vocabulary or a specific skill)
 - Managerial mode (main focus is on setting up an activity)
 - Classroom Context mode (main focus is on eliciting feelings, attitudes and emotions of learners)
 - Materials mode (main focus is on the use of text, tape or other materials).
3. Listen to the tape a second time, using the SETT instrument to keep a tally of the different features of your teacher talk. Write down examples of the features you identify. If you're not sure about a particular feature, use the SETT key (see below) to help you.
4. Evaluate your teacher talk in the light of your overall aim and the modes used. To what extent do you think that your use of language and pedagogic purpose coincided? That is, how appropriate was your use of language in this segment, bearing in mind your stated aims and the modes operating.
5. The final stage is a feedback interview with [Walsh]. Again, try to do this as soon as possible after the evaluation. Please bring both the recording and SETT instrument with you.
6. In total, these steps need to be completed FOUR times. After the final self-evaluation, we'll organize a video recording and interview.

SETT instrument

| <i>Feature of teacher talk</i> | <i>Tally</i> | <i>Examples from your recording</i> |
|--------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|
| (a) Scaffolding | | |
| (b) Direct repair | | |
| (c) Content feedback | | |
| (d) Extended wait-time | | |
| (e) Referential questions | | |
| (f) Seeking clarification | | |
| (g) Extended learner turn | | |
| (h) Teacher echo | | |
| (i) Teacher interruptions | | |
| (j) Extended teacher turn | | |
| (k) Turn completion | | |
| (l) Display questions | | |
| (m) Form-focused feedback | | |

SETT key

| <i>Feature of teacher talk</i> | <i>Description</i> |
|--------------------------------|--|
| A scaffolding | reformulation (rephrasing a learners' contribution) extension (extending a learners' contribution) modelling (providing an example for learner(s). |
| B direct repair | correcting an error quickly and directly |
| C content feedback | giving feedback to the message rather than the words used. |
| D extended wait-time | allowing sufficient time (several seconds) for students to respond or formulate a response |
| E referential questions | Genuine questions to which the teacher does not know the answer. |
| F seeking clarification | 1 Teacher asks a student to clarify something the student has said. 2 Student asks teacher to clarify something the teacher has said. |
| G extended learner turn | Learner turn of more than one utterance. |
| H teacher echo | 1 Teacher repeats teacher' s previous utterance. 2 Teacher repeats a learner' s contribution. |
| I teacher interruptions | Interrupting a learner' contribution. |
| J extended teacher turn | Teacher turn of more than one utterance. |
| K turn completion | Completing a learner' s contribution for the learner. |
| L display questions | Asking questions to which teacher knows the answer. |
| M form-focused feedback | Giving feedback on the words used, not the message. |

Appendix IV Transcription System

The transcription system is adapted from Richards (2003: 173-174). It should be noted that the lessons were recorded with no specialist equipment. Consequently, background noise, simultaneous speech and other types of interference have, at times, rendered the recordings unintelligible. It should also be noted that a stopwatch, rather than specialist timing equipment, was used to calculate the pauses and wait-times.

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| T: | teacher |
| L: | learner (not identified) |
| L1: L2: etc. | identified learner |
| LL: | several learners at once or the whole class |
| (.) | micro pause (one second or less) |
| (4) | silence; length given in seconds |
| ????? | indecipherable talk on tape |
| <i>heLLO</i> | indicates that a syllable or word is given extra stress |
| 母さん [<i>mom</i>] | non-English words are shown in traditional Japanese characters and are immediately followed by an English translation |
| <u>Fine</u> | Emphasis |
| (()) | Other details |
| : | Sound stretching |


Appendix V - A Hi Friends! Lesson Plan

Hi, friends! 1

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| Lesson 5 What do you like? Let's Interview Our Friends 【4th hour】 | | |
|---|---|---|
| Lesson Objectives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask and answer questions about others' likes and dislikes in a positive manner. • Become familiar with vocabulary to describe colors and shapes, and expressions to talk about likes and dislikes. • Notice the differences between English and Japanese pronunciation. | |
| Lesson Criteria | 【Showing interest, willingness, and a positive attitude toward communication】 | ➤ STs are participating in the interview activity voluntarily, and are asking about their friends' likes and dislikes in a positive manner. |
| | 【Becoming familiar with the language】 | ➤ STs are asking about and naming colors and shapes. ➤ STs are asking and answering questions about their friends' likes and dislikes. |
| | 【Finding out about language and culture】 | ➤ STs notice the differences between Japanese and English pronunciation. |

| | |
|-------------|---|
| Target | Ask and answer questions about likes and dislikes in a positive manner. |
| Vocabulary | Red, blue, yellow, pink, green, brown, orange, purple, black, white, heart, star, circle, triangle, T-shirt, apple, strawberry, cherry, peach, grape, kiwi fruit, lemon, banana, pineapple, orange, melon, ice cream, milk, juice, baseball, soccer, swimming, basketball, bird, rabbit, dog, cat, spider. |
| Expression | What animal/color/fruit/sport do you like? I like rabbits/red/bananas/soccer. |
| Preparation | Flash cards (red, blue, yellow, pink, green, brown, orange, purple, black, white, heart, star, circle, triangle, T-shirt, apple, strawberry, cherry, peach, grape, kiwi fruit, lemon, banana, pineapple, orange, melon, ice cream, milk, juice, baseball, soccer, swimming, basketball, bird, rabbit, dog, cat, spider.) CD-ROM. |

| Time allocation | Activity | Evaluation Criteria |
|--------------------------------------|---|---------------------|
| Warm-up (15 min) | <p>ALT greets STs cheerfully and STs return a greeting in the same way. Hello! / Good morning! / Hi!</p> <p><What ... do you like?> </p> <p>●Preparation: Flash cards.</p> <p>ALT shows flash cards for fruits/foods/animals/sports/colors and shapes one by one and asks "What's this?" When STs answer correctly, ALT says "Yes. It is..." and has STs repeat the sentences. Reserving some flash cards from each category, place the rest of the cards on the blackboard, divided into the above categories. Then, give the reserved flash cards to STs and have them place them on the blackboard in the appropriate category.</p> <p>Pointing at the color flash cards on the blackboard, using facial expressions and gestures say "They are colors. I like purple." Then, ask "What color do you like?" Pointing at the appropriate flash card on the blackboard say "I like (e.g.) white. I like (e.g.) black." and have STs repeat. Do the same with the other categories. Point at the flash cards saying "They are animals. I like birds. What animal do you like?" / "They are fruits. I like strawberries. What fruit do you like?" / "They are sports. I like soccer. What sport do you like?" Have STs say "I like..." followed by the word on the flash card ALT is pointing at.</p> | |
| Development 1 (Basic) (10 min) | <p>【Let's Chant, "What color do you like?"】 p.20</p> <p>●Preparation: Flash cards, CD-ROM.</p> <p>Show flash cards to STs and have them chant the words on them together.</p> <p>Start with colors, and then move onto the other categories i.e. animals, fruits</p> | |

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|---|--|---|
| Development 1 (Continued) | <p>and sports.</p> <p>What color/animal/fruit/sport do you like?</p> <p>I like ... I like ...</p> <p>I like ... and ...</p> <p>What color/animal/fruit/sport do you like?</p> <p>I like ... I like ...</p> <p>I like ... and ...</p> <p>Wow, nice ...!</p> <p>When STs get accustomed to the activity, divide them into 2 groups of askers and answerers and have them chant the chant. Then, reverse roles and have them chant again.</p> <p><Turn-Over-Card Game> </p> <p>●Preparation: Flash cards.</p> <p>① Divide STs into 4 groups, A, B, C, and D, and have them sit down in their respective groups. Have each group elect a representative ST. ALT places color, animal, food, and sport flash cards face-down on the blackboard.</p> <p>② The representative of Group A comes up to the blackboard and turns over a card. ALT asks Group A "What color/animal/food/sport do you like?" Group A answers in chorus "I like..." using the word on the flash card.</p> <p>③ Do the same with groups B, C and D. When STs get used to the activity, speed it up.</p> | |
| Development 2 (Extended) (15 min) | <p>[Activity, Let's interview our friends to learn what they like] p.21</p> <p>① Tell STs that they are going to interview their friends in English. As well as asking about favorite colors and animals, STs will ask about an additional category of their own choosing. Have STs think of what category they would like to ask about (e.g. foods, TV programs, etc.) and instruct them to draw a picture to represent it in the blank box on pp. 21.</p> <p>② ALT chooses a ST and demonstrates the interview process with them. Keep the following points in mind: Speak "clearly," making "eye contact" and "smiling." Don't forget to say "Hello," "Thank you," and "Good-bye" in order to make the conversation pleasant.</p> <p>ALT: (Write ST's name in the table, first.) Hello. What color do you like?</p> <p>ST: I like blue.</p> <p>ALT: Blue. (Write it in the table.) What animal do you like?</p> <p>ST: I like dogs.</p> <p>ALT: Dogs. (Write it in the table.) What sport do you like?</p> <p>ST: I like baseball.</p> <p>ALT: Baseball. (Write it in the table.) Thank you. Good-bye.</p> <p>ST: Good-bye.</p> <p>③ STs walk around the classroom and interview other STs and write the results in the table. ALT also joins the activity and helps create a positive atmosphere.</p> | <p>STs are participating in the interview activity voluntarily, and are asking about their friends' likes and dislikes in a positive manner.</p> <p>[Showing interest, willingness, and a positive attitude toward communication]</p> <p>(Behavior Observation and Textbook Page Check)</p> |
| Closing (5 min) | <p>Ask the whole class how many friends they interviewed and praise students who interviewed the most, saying "Good job!" ALT points at him/herself and asks "What color do I like?" Get a ST who interviewed ALT to answer, and then ALT says "Yes! I like (e.g.) black." Then ask "What animals do I like?" and</p> | |

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|------------------------|--|--|
| Closing (Continued) | <p>get another ST who interviewed ALT to answer.</p> <p>Finish the lesson by saying "You did a good job! Thank you. Good-bye." to the whole class.</p> | |
|------------------------|--|--|