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Steps towards improved participation? An  
analysis of classroom talk and the “ladder  
of interaction” in the Japanese context

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## Abstract

This dissertation builds upon an action research project that set out to investigate the Immediate Method, an approach to classroom management which, according to its proponents, can solve the problem of passive students in Japan. The original study focused on one strand of the Immediate Method, the explicit instruction of meta-communication phrases, which are expressions of classroom language presented early and practised regularly throughout the course. One of the tentative conclusions from the previous study was that both teacher and students tacitly recognised *the ladder of interaction*, a model preferentially ranking learner responses to questions from the teacher. In this model, the lowest rank was assigned to *silent responses*, followed by *speaking to a classmate in L2*, *addressing the teacher in L2*, *addressing the teacher with incorrect English*, and *using a correct meta-communication phrase* respectively. It was also suggested that given time, students subjected to the Immediate Method could be expected to improve their strategic use of meta-communication phrases, and thereby improve their own participation in class.

The current study examines that contention by first reviewing current research on student reticence, especially among Asian learners. The review of student reticence will also include suggestions from the literature of ways to mitigate the apparent culture of silence in Japan, which will lead to a model for combating this along affective, discursal and linguistic lines. The dissertation sets out to analyse recordings from the junior high school classes of the original study. It also analyses a recording from a university class in Japan to see whether the notion of *the ladder of interaction* is transferable across contexts. The analyses of classroom recordings is preceded by an evaluation of the various methods for investigating classroom interaction, with the conclusion that an *ad-hoc* interaction analysis, grounded in the principles of conversation analysis, best suits the needs of this study. After clarifying the methodological details of the analysis, the study illustrates several examples of participants orienting towards the *ladder of interaction*, and discusses the implications of the extracts in terms of classroom rules of communication and learner initiative. The results of this study support some of the original's findings, as well as some claims that the Immediate Method can improve student participation.

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# Chapter 1 - Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction

One of the most common complaints among teachers of English in Japanese high school and university classrooms is the students' apparent lack of willingness to volunteer answers to questions. Questions posed by the teacher and left open for the whole class to answer are often followed by silent responses, while individuals singled out to answer a question "often precede clear-cut answers with pauses or silence." (Anderson, 1993: 102).

To counter this *culture of silence*, a group of Osaka-based teachers designed a new approach to classroom management, which they called the "Immediate Method" (IM) (Azra et al., 2005). One of the key components of the IM was the regular, explicit instruction in classroom language, based around certain "meta-communication phrases" such as can be seen in table 1.1. Each meta-communication phrase (MCP) in an IM class is to be presented to the students much like any other item of language, modelled repeatedly by the teacher and practised regularly in subsequent lessons.

**table 1.1:** Idealised examples of meta-communication phrases

<b>T:</b> What's <i>tsukareta</i> in English?	<b>T:</b> How do you say <i>tsukareta</i> in English?	<b>S:</b> What's <i>tsukareta</i> in English?
<b>S:</b> Pardon?	<b>S:</b> I don't understand the question.	<b>T:</b> It's "tired"
<b>T:</b> What's <i>tsukareta</i> in English?	<b>T:</b> What's <i>tsukareta</i> in English?	<b>S:</b> How do you spell it?
<b>S:</b> I don't know.	<b>S:</b> It's "tired".	<b>T:</b> T, I, R, E, D.
Example MCPs:	What's --- in English? Pardon? I don't know I don't understand How do you spell it?	

In previous studies, Marchand (2006, 2007) tested the validity of the claims from IM proponents in classes at a junior high school in Osaka. Using a research diary, class notes and

the students' own self-evaluation, he found some evidence to suggest that students in an IM class oriented away from the silent response, and could be expected to make strategic use of MCPs during moments of uncertainty. He also proposed the notion of a *ladder of interaction*, a model for categorising typical student responses to teacher questions (figure 1.1). At the bottom of this model is the *silent response*, which is classified (or *graded*) as a Class E MCP. At the top is Answer, which can be seen as a direct response to a question. In between are the intermediate steps of conferring with a classmate in Japanese (Class D MCP), addressing the teacher in Japanese (Class C MCP), using incorrect English to indicate the need for help (Class B MCP), and the correct use of a meta-communication phrase (Class A MCP).

**figure 1.1:** the ladder of interaction

Answer	direct response to teacher's question	T: Where did you go this summer? S: I went to club at school
Class A MCP	correct meta-communication phrase	T: how do you spell glasses? S: I don't know
Class B MCP	imperfect meta-communication phrase	T: do you have a question? S: what's in Japanese?
Class C MCP	response to teacher in Japanese	T: you are in danger S: <i>koai yo</i> (=that's scary)
Class D MCP	response to classmate in Japanese	T: what's go to cram school in Japanese? S: <i>ee?</i> cram school <i>tte nani?</i> (=huh? what's cram school?)
Class E MCP	silence	T: who is this? Shiho S: (4)

Marchand postulated that the students also exhibited an implicit awareness of this *ladder of interaction*, both in self-evaluation and actual conversational practice. While collaboration with a classmate became the strategy of choice for many students, Marchand suggested that the students actually oriented their interaction up the *ladder of interaction*, and speculated that

with continued exposure to MCPs they could be expected to climb up the ladder to form accurate phrases in English to compensate for their lack of linguistic knowledge.

## 1.2 Research questions

This dissertation seeks to explore the *ladder of interaction* model further to see whether it holds up as a useful construct for studying classroom interaction, and whether there are any grounds for the previous speculation of student orientation *up* the ladder. In order to do this, I will analyse some class recordings made from the aforementioned Osaka junior high school (henceforth the Osaka data), and compare them with one recording undertaken at a low-level English class at a university in Tokyo (the Tokyo data).

Therefore this dissertation will attempt to investigate the following research questions:

- 1) Does a detailed analysis of classroom interaction support the suggestion that students observe an orientation *up* the ladder of interaction?
- 2) Is the ladder of interaction a useful model for analysing classroom interaction?
- 3) What implications does this analysis have for ways of mitigating the culture of silence and student reticence?

To answer the first question, we will need to establish a methodology that will help to explore the *ladder of interaction* model. This will be done in chapter 3. To help with the establishment of this methodology, a background of current practices in the analysis of classroom interaction will be covered in chapter 2, (sections 2.8-2.11); meanwhile the first part of chapter 2 (2.2-2.7) will offer a synopsis of current research in student reticence. The bulk of the analysis itself will be presented in the Results chapter, with the Osaka data treated first (4.1-4.10) followed by the Tokyo data (4.11-4.20). This will lead to the Discussion which will address the first and third research questions in terms of the *establishment of rules of communication* (5.2-5.9) and *learner initiative* (5.10-5.13). The dissertation ends with the Conclusion, which will summarize the findings, offer a brief assessment of the analysis made, and also attempt to address research question 3.

## Chapter 2 - Background Reading

### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter will be in two parts. The first part (2.2-2.7) will examine the background reading on the apparent *culture of silence* permeating language classrooms in Japan, its causes, and some ways suggested by research to improve the situation. Meanwhile the second part (2.8-2.11) will focus on various approaches to analysing recorded data with an assessment of which approach best fits the needs of this dissertation.

### 2.2 Student reticence among Asian students

A brief perusal of the literature on student reticence reveals this field of inquiry to be a complex one that has exercised many researchers from various research perspectives, resulting in a raft of causes for student reticence being identified, defined and tested for. For example, the issue has been examined in terms of *language anxiety* (Horwitz et al., 1986; Ely, 1986; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993), *motivation* (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Brown et al., 2001; Dörnyei, 2001), *willingness to communicate* (MacIntyre and Charos, 1996; Baker and MacIntyre, 2000), *cultural differences* (Lebra, 1987; Nozaki, 1993; Kato, 2001), *shyness* (Doyon, 2000) and *politeness* (Nakane, 2006). It is therefore beyond the scope of this dissertation to examine each field of inquiry in detail, but instead this section will examine three broad causes that seem to emerge from the background reading.

Appendix 2 shows how student reticence in the form of silent responses actually manifests itself in real classroom settings, illustrating the three broad causes attested for in the literature: a lack of linguistic knowledge or skill, a divergent understanding of the norms of classroom discourse, and the motivation and willingness to communicate of individual students. For the sake of brevity the following discussion reduces them to *linguistic, discorsal, and affective* causes respectively.

Table 2.1 shows a summary of empirical research in reticent behaviour among Asian students. While the research varies considerably in terms of location, classroom context and even



**table 2.1:** Empirical studies of student reticence among Asian students

Author(s)	Location of study	Learner nationality	Class context	Instrument	Findings
Braddock et al. (1995)	Sydney	Asian	non ESL/EFL university courses	Survey of university faculty	Majority surveyed found Asian students quiet and inactive, reporting much better communication with Australian, American and European students.
Dwyer and Heller Murphy (1996)	Edinburgh	Japanese	ESL/EFL university courses	Interview with 6 Japanese learners	Students reticent due to fear of public failure and making mistakes, lack of confidence, low English proficiency, incompetence in the rules and norms of English conversation, disorientation.
Cortazzi and Jin (1996)	China	Chinese	non ESL/EFL university courses	Interviews of 15 Western teachers of English	Chinese students not active in class, unwilling to work in groups, dispreferred group-work or pair-work, and were shy and passive.
Ferris and Tagg (1996)	North America	Asian	non ESL/EFL university courses	Interview with Western professors of ESL	Asian students have cultural difficulties which inhibited their oral participation in class and their willingness and ability to ask questions.
Turner and Hiraga (1996)	Britain	Japanese	non ESL/EFL university tutorials	Interviews with students and their teachers	Japanese students in Britain passive and unwilling to engage in dialectic and analytic discourse, perhaps caused by the Japanese academic culture's value of demonstration over transformation of knowledge
Tsui (1996)	Hong Kong	Hong Kong Chinese	ESL secondary school classes	Teacher reflection of 38 teachers	Majority identified getting student oral response as a major problem, describing students as passive, quiet, shy and unwilling to speak English
Flowerdew et al. (2000)	Hong Kong	Hong Kong Chinese	non ESL/EFL university lectures	Interview with 15 university lecturers	Students rated passive and reticent due to low English proficiency, fear of embarrassment in front of peers, inability to understand concepts and incomprehensible input, and passive learning styles acquired during secondary schooling.
Yashima (2002)	Osaka	Japanese	ESL/EFL university courses	Learner questionnaires	L2 proficiency, attitude toward the international community, confidence in L2 communication and L2 learning motivation seen to affect WTC. Lower level of anxiety and a higher level of L2 communication competence leads to higher WTC.
Hashimoto (2002)	Hawaii	Japanese	ESL/EFL university courses	Learner questionnaires	Perceived competence and L2 anxiety found to be causes of WTC which led to more L2 use.
Liu (2005)	China	Chinese	ESL/EFL university listening and speaking courses	Questionnaire, observation and reflective journals	Learner willingness to interact in oral EFL, but due to lack of practice, low proficiency, anxiety, cultural beliefs, personality and fear of losing face a majority remained reluctant to respond to the teacher, and seemed helpless about their reticence.
Nakane (2006)	Sydney	Japanese	non ESL/EFL university seminars	Participant interviews, observation and discourse analysis	Japanese students commonly used silence to save face, whereas verbal strategies are more common among Australian students.

instrument of study, there is an overall consensus that Japanese students, as with those from other Asian countries, have a marked tendency to be quiet, passive and reticent to respond to the teacher. Meanwhile table 2.2 indicates how the findings from a few selected studies can be separated according to the three broad causes outlined above. The following sections will look at each of these causes in turn.

**table 2.2:** Causes of student reticence

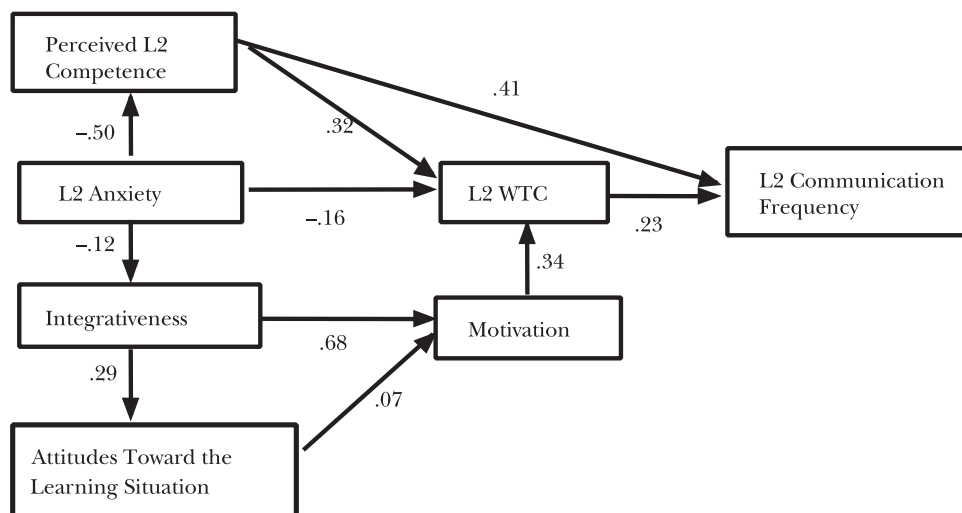
Author(s)	Affective	Discoursal	Linguistic
Cortazzi and Jin (1996)	shy and passive	unwilling to work in groups, dispreferred group-work or pair-work,	
Dwyer and Heller Murphy (1996)	fear of public failure and making mistakes, lack of confidence	incompetence in the rules and norms of English conversation, disorientation.	low English proficiency
Ferris and Tagg (1996)	cultural difficulties which inhibited their oral participation in class and their willingness and ability to ask questions	cultural difficulties which inhibited their oral participation in class and their willingness and ability to ask questions	
Turner and Hiraga (1996)		Japanese academic culture's value of demonstration over transformation of knowledge	
Flowerdew et al. (2000)	fear of embarrassment in front of peers	passive learning styles acquired during secondary schooling.	low English proficiency, inability to understand concepts, incomprehensible input
Hashimoto (2002)	negative effects of language anxiety, positive effects of WTC		positive effects of perceived L2 competence on L2 communication frequency
Yashima (2002)	attitude toward the international community, lower level of anxiety and a higher level of L2 communication		L2 proficiency, higher level of L2 communication competence leads to higher WTC.
Liu (2005)	anxiety, cultural beliefs, personality and fear of losing face	cultural beliefs	lack of practice, low proficiency
Nakane (2006)	silence to avoid risk of losing face	silence seen as unmarked way of indicating misunderstanding	

### 2.3 Affective factors and the willingness to communicate

Some of the research on the *affective* factors influencing the frequency of L2 use in classrooms has come out of a quantitative approach (from table 2.1: Yashima, 2002; Hashimoto, 2002; Liu, 2005) and draws on the work of Gardner's socio-educational model as well as MacIntyre's willingness to communicate (WTC) model (Gardner, 1985; MacIntyre, 1994). Two of the researchers in the table above (Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima, 2002) used a

more recent variant, MacIntyre and Charos' WTC model which applies to monolingual university classes (figure 2.1). This model maps pathways - positive and negative correlations - between various constructs in order to explain the complex connections between (among other things) motivation, language anxiety and L2 communication frequency. So, for example, while L2 WTC and perceived L2 competence are shown to positively influence L2 communication frequency, language anxiety has a negative correlation over them both, and so would indirectly affect the amount of L2 spoken in class. Therefore both Yashima and Hashimoto conclude that an increase in perceived communicative competence and a reduction in learner anxiety leads to increased WTC which in turn accounts for a higher frequency of L2 use in the classroom.

**figure 2.1:** MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) Model of L2 Willingness to Communicate



In keeping with their findings, researchers investigating student reticence along WTC lines of inquiry often conclude their studies by suggesting *affective* measures teachers may take to improve reticent behaviour (table 2.3). Interestingly, these measures concur with Williams (1994), Doyon (2000) and Cutrone (2009), who all suggest that language teachers working in Japan should move away from a formal classroom atmosphere towards a more casual, intimate one where students may feel more at ease to speak up and respond to the teacher. This move from the “ritual domain” to the “interactional domain” (after Lebra, 1976) will be explored in more detail in the following section.

**table 2.3**

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Measures to mitigate <i>affective</i> causes of student reticence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• establish a friendly, supportive non-threatening classroom learning environment (Zou 2004);</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• create a less threatening atmosphere to reduce anxiety (Hashimoto 2002)</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• encourage students to increase perceived competence (Hashimoto 2002)</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• prepare more interesting topics (Liu 2005)</li></ul>

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## **2.4 Discoural factors – the norms of classroom discourse**

Although WTC research may offer some means to measure the communicative tendencies of a group of students, it does not immediately follow that a desire to study and interact in English will automatically lead to a more communicative class. Liu found that most students had the desire to learn spoken English well, and indeed held a willingness to interact in English, however:

“more than two-thirds of the students remained reluctant to respond to the teacher and kept quiet until singled out to answer questions. Moreover, many of them seemed to be helpless about being reticent when the teacher asked a question and expected a response.” (2005: 10)

What is telling is that in addition to personality traits that were found to affect individual student’s classroom participation, Liu identified factors likely to hold sway over the whole class: namely the students’ own culture and past educational experiences. These may have formed behavioural habits of “sitting in the class and listening quietly to teachers” so that the students “remained quiet until requested by teachers to speak in class” (ibid: 11).

Cheng (2000) dismisses the idea that it is the students’ Asian *culture* to blame for student reticence, and would rather explain it using “situation specific factors such as teaching

methodologies and language proficiency level” (ibid: 436). Where these two researchers would agree then is that for many Asian students, the norms of classroom discourse, as realized by teaching methodologies, may leave them ill-equipped to deal with the demands and expectations of an L2 oral classroom.

The idea that reticence to participate could be exacerbated by the education system itself has also been testified in the Japanese context, as Williams notes:

“Traditionally the technique employed in most classrooms is of a lecture style, where the teacher remains standing behind a desk at the front of the class and the students receive information as the teacher lectures. Little input is ever solicited from the students, and it is instilled that a classroom is a place where one listens and learns but does not speak.”  
(1994: 10)

Lebra (1976) identified this classroom context as a “ritual domain” characterized by conventional rules, formalities and highly guarded behaviour (Doyon, 2000), and one in which most educational interactions in Japan still occur today (Cutrone, 2009). In this domain, quietness, obedience, and passivity are seen to be good traits for a learner (Nozaki, 1993) and silence in response to questions or invitations to participate may become a “conventionalised politeness strategy” (Nakane, 2006: 1832): an indirect way of communicating “I don’t know the answer” or “I didn’t understand the question”, which counts as a common, unmarked way of saving face for the learners (ibid.: 1826). Both Nozaki and Nakane’s findings are in accordance with the Japanese *interpretative frame* of classroom interaction: in Western cultures learning is often seen to be achieved through the negotiation of ideas, the transformation of knowledge (Turner and Hiraga, 1996) which makes classroom participation important and silence a mark of unsuccessful learning (Nakane, op cit.). However according to the educational practices and ideology of Japanese schooling, correctness of the end product is valued over the process of learning (ibid.: 1819), in other words the demonstration of knowledge is prioritized (Turner and Hiraga, op. cit). In effect this means that for Japanese students there may be more pragmatic advantages to remaining quiet over vocal participation, which leads Nakane to suggest that Japanese students find the

act of speaking up in class a higher level of threat to their own face compared to the politeness strategy of keeping silent.

In discourse analysis terms, these findings suggest that there are a couple of patterns of interaction traditionally operating in Asian classrooms: one where the teacher takes long, uninterrupted turns, “lecture” style which leaves the students with little expectation or opportunity to contribute to the classroom discourse; or one where turn-taking is tightly controlled by the teacher in the classic I-R-F (initiation – response – feedback) interactional pattern famously identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) which allows the teacher to “guide students to a correct answer or move on to the next student.” (Nakane, 2006: 1826).

There have long been calls in ESL/EFL teaching for a move away from such strictly controlled, teacher-fronted discourse patterns (for example see Nunan, 1987 ), which would seem to resonate with those who advocate shifting the classroom context towards the *interactional domain*. However given that the rules of classroom discourse are “culturally determined expectations for how to speak, when, to whom and for what purpose” (Hymes, 1974), and that “classroom interaction is socially constructed *by* and *for* the participants” (Walsh, 2006: 60), it seems probable that language teachers in Japan will have to fight against the legacy of previous (and even on-going) experiences and expectations of the *ritual domain* that accompany students in the classroom.

Even so, Johnson states that “the patterns of classroom communication depend largely on how teachers use language to control the structure and content of classroom events” (1995: 145), which may offer hope to teachers looking to improve student participation by establishing their own *rules* of communicative behaviour in the classroom. On a discourse level then, researchers have suggested various ways to mitigate the causes of the silent response, as shown in table 2.4.

It is interesting to note here that these measures somewhat reflect the trappings of the research field from which they originate. Cullen (2002) clearly aligns himself with the Birmingham school of discourse analysis, and hence the focus on the teacher’s strategic use of the “F” move in Sinclair and Coulthard’s IRF cycle. Meanwhile both Garton (2002) and Lee and Ng (2010) adopt a more conversation analysis approach to classroom interaction, which explains the attention paid to how teacher turns shape interactional space and present opportunities for

learners to contribute. This distinction will be elaborated on in sections 2.9-2.10 when we turn to the best way to analyse recordings from the classroom.

**table 2.4**

Measures to mitigate <i>discoursal</i> causes of student reticence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• avoid only evaluative (form-focused) follow-up in the IRF pattern (Cullen 2002)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• incorporate discoursal follow-ups by use of reformulation, elaboration, commentary and repetition (Cullen 2002)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• give learners interactional time and space (Garton 2002)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use facilitator talk to give more responsibility to the learner and encourage freer patterns of interaction (Clifton 2006 )</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• use referential questions, longer wait time, content focused feedback and ceding the right of turn allocation to the learners (Lee and Ng 2010).</li> </ul>

## 2.5 Linguistic factors - gaps in language knowledge and ability

Nakane, citing Kuzon (1997), distinguishes between intentional and unintentional silence, with the former referring to silence intentionally used as a discourse strategy (as outlined above), and the latter being silence caused unintentionally “due to extreme anxiety, embarrassment or panic” (2006: 1814). As we saw in table 2.2, several researchers have shown that unintentional silence in L2 classrooms may be down to individual student’s deficiencies in linguistic ability: whether it be their low English proficiency (Dwyer and Heller Murphy, 1996; Flowerdrew et al., 2000; Liu, 2005), an inability to understand concepts and utterances from the teacher (Flowerdrew et al., 2000), their low confidence in communicative competence (Yashima, 2002; Hashimoto, 2002) or from a lack of practice (Liu, 2005).

According to Walsh, learners often find themselves in a “disadvantaged” position during teacher-student interaction: in order to respond to the teacher, students must first understand the question, interpret it, formulate a reply before finally uttering a response (2006:122). This means that gaps in linguistic ability may affect this chain of processes at any point, resulting in what Varonis and Gass (1985) coined as “pushdown” moments - protracted answers or

silences in response to teacher questioning. In fact for Walsh (op. cit), silence is of great value as it gives learners essential processing time, and encouraging teachers to increase wait time has become standard practice in teacher training, (Thornbury, 1996; Garton 2002). Other measures to combat the *linguistic* factors can be seen in table 2.5.

table 2.5

Measures to mitigate <i>linguistic</i> causes of student reticence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• modifying teacher talk through simplified vocabulary, grammar , slower delivery and increased use of gestures and facial expressions (Chaudron 1988)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• modifying interaction through confirmation checks, comprehension checks, repetition, clarification requests, and reformulation (Lynch 1996)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “scaffolded instruction” – feeding language to help learners express themselves (Röhler and Cantlon 1997)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• longer wait time (Thornbury 1996).</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• language learning strategy training (Oxford 1990) strategy training on compensation strategies (Dörnyei 1995)</li> </ul>

The first three measures in table 2.5 consist of ways of offering linguistic support through “scaffolded instruction” (Bruner, 1990). For this to work “learners must be given opportunities to ask and answer questions”, and scaffolding also “involves learners taking risks” (Walsh, 2006: 37) - which demonstrates again how integrated the linguistic, affective and discursal causes of reticence are. Walsh also advocates the last measure from table 2.5, suggesting that strategy training should extend beyond language forms to include ways of helping learners maximise their interactive potential (ibid., 31).

As defined by Cohen strategy-based instruction (SBI) is:

“a learner-centred approach to teaching that extends classroom strategy training to include both explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content.”  
(1998: 81)



Dörnyei (1995) offers an example of SBI in a study of Hungarian high-school students where he found that the direct teaching of compensatory communication strategies was worthwhile as it provided the students with a sense of security in times of difficulty as well as improved performance in oral testing. While SBI is not without its detractors (for example Bailystock, 1990; Kellerman, 1991) Cohen feels that the explicit instruction of strategies, such as those that can compensate for gaps in linguistic knowledge and skills, does lead to the students transferring them to new contexts more rapidly.

## 2.6 SBI and the Immediate Method

**table 2.6**

Suggested framework for SBI (adapted by Cohen (1998) from Pearson and Dole (1987))	MCP procedure under the IM (author's own additions to the procedure in <i>italic</i> )
1) Initial modelling of the strategy by the teacher with direct explanation.	1) Textbook explains MCP in English and Japanese; audio CD explains MCP usage in Japanese; teacher demonstrates MCP in front of class.
2) Guided practice with the strategy.	2) Vocabulary building stage encouraging MCP usage. <i>Tasks designed to exploit the MCP.</i>
3) Consolidation where teachers help students identify the strategy and decide when it might be used.	3) Teacher elicits MCPs in subsequent presentation and testing stages of the class.
4) Independent practice of the strategy	4) <i>Information-gap tasks done by the students in pairs encouraging incidental use of MCPs</i>
5) Application of the strategy to new tasks.	5) Students apply MCPs without prompting in future classes.

In the Japanese context, Marchand (2007) has argued that classes taught under the Immediate Method roughly resemble SBI. Table 2.6 shows the similarity between one potential framework for SBI advocated by Cohen (1998: 83) and the IM procedure as adopted by Marchand. The proponents of the IM say that the explicit instruction of “meta-communication phrases” helps to break through the culture of silence in Japanese classrooms by providing students with a suitable classroom language to deal with pushdown moments:

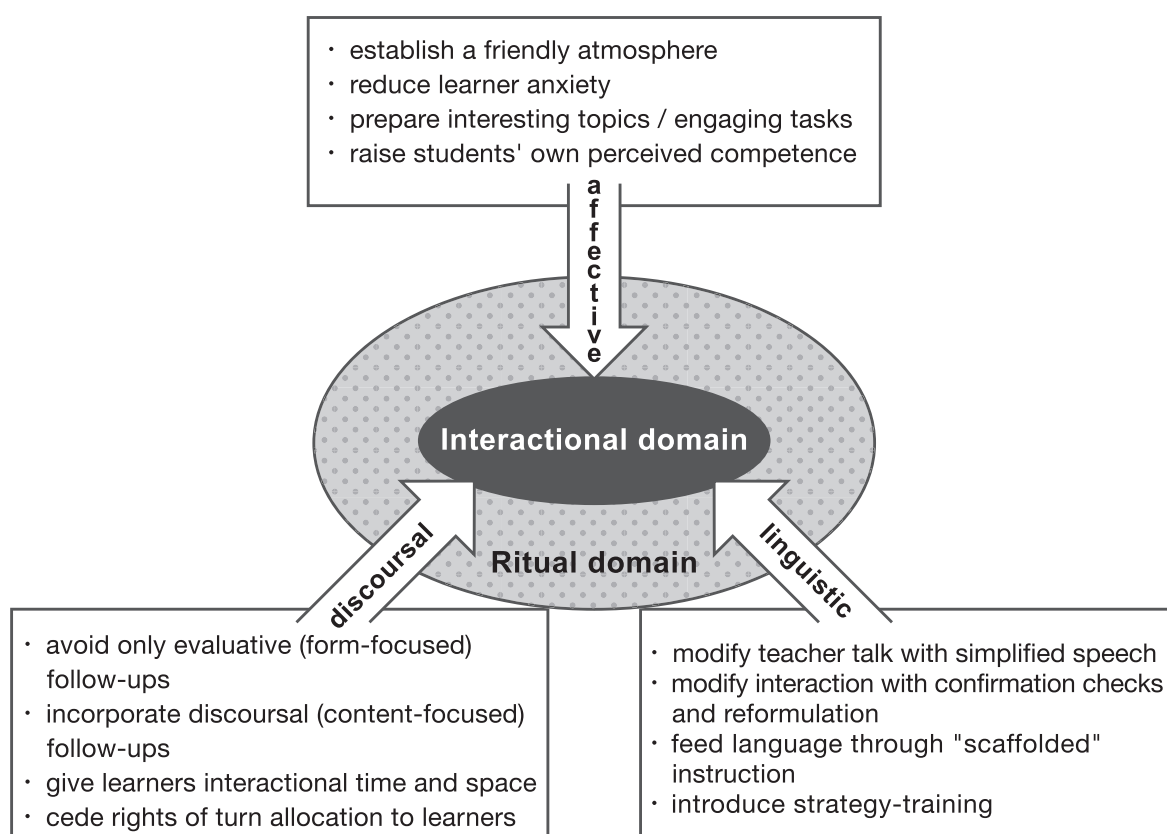
“meta-communication phrases allow students to continue their conversation...even when they encounter one of the big blocking situations: 1) they have not understood something the teacher has said, or

2) they have forgotten a word they want to use to say something.” (Brown et al., 2004: 3).

In keeping with the discussion so far, Brown et al. feel that the traditional norms of classroom discourse have engendered “deep and largely unconscious” habits of low participation among students. They assert that although many textbooks start with “classroom English”, even basic expressions such as “I don’t know” are not practiced regularly enough, so “students have a hard time using them...[therefore] weekly oral practice is based on these expressions.” (p. 1).

## 2.7 Summary of student reticence

**Figure 2.2:** Model for moving from the “ritual” domain to the “interactional” domain



In summary then the background reading suggests that student reticence in L2 classrooms is a common phenomenon associated with Japanese and other Asian students. The roots of the problem are complex and multivariate, but in broad strokes can be generalized to three underlying causes: affective, discursal and linguistic. Suggestions from researchers on how to improve student participation can also be categorized under the same headings. Figure 2.2 suggests that in combination they can perhaps help achieve the aim formulated by several Japan-based researchers (Williams, 1994; Doyon, 2000; Cutrone, 2009): moving the classroom environment out of the traditional *ritual* domain of guarded behaviour towards the *interactional* domain, thereby encouraging less reticence and more open communication on behalf of the students.

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## 2.8 Analysis of classroom recordings

Levinson states that there are two major approaches to the study of naturally occurring interaction: discourse analysis (DA) and conversation analysis (CA) (1983: 286). Meanwhile Walsh (2006) adds *interaction analysis* as a third, characterizing it as an approach employing some kind of coding system. This section will examine how each approach goes about analysing recorded data, highlighting any drawbacks they have drawn criticism for, and then discusses whether each in turn would appear suitable for the purposes of this dissertation.

## 2.9 DA approach

According to Seedhouse, an overwhelming majority of research in classroom interactions uses a DA approach (2004: 286). DA itself owes a debt to Halliday's structural-functional analysis of grammar (Halliday, 1961), not only in the terms used, but also in the hierarchical arrangement of a rank scale, which lists the units of analysis as "*act-move-exchange-transaction-lesson*" (Chaudron, 1988 referencing Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). In this organisation, *act* is set as the smallest discourse unit, with the subsequent larger units being composed of the smaller ones (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992). Therefore each utterance in a recording can be assigned a certain *act* and *move*, which allows rules to be produced on how the units of discourse fit together. An example of this was briefly touched upon before when discussing Sinclair and Coulthard's Initiation-Response-Feedback cycle, where *initiation*, *response* and *feedback* are all seen as individual *moves* that make up one unit of *exchange*.

The fact that the I-R-F cycle is such a perennial of language and education journals is a testament to its utility as a form of analysis. Moreover the huge contribution it has made to the understanding of classroom discourse is even readily acknowledged by its detractors (for example - Wu, 1998; Walsh, 2006). However the critics are equally keen to point out the various drawbacks of adopting the DA approach. Table 2.7 outlines the criticisms that some have found with DA. It may be the case that some of the criticisms do not apply to analyses of classroom data coming out of Japan. For example, Walsh’s concern (1987) might not apply as

**table 2.7**

Criticisms of the DA approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• problems of multi-functionality: impossible to say precisely what function is being performed at any point (Stubbs, 1983)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• classroom interaction is complex, therefore one utterance can perform a multitude of functions (Levinson 1983)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Speech Act theory cannot account for gestures and behavioural traits; unlike syntax, very difficult to specify a set of rules to fit units of discourse together (Levinson 1983)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Theory derived from “traditional” primary school classrooms where the formal, ritualized interactions no longer match learner-centred classrooms prevalent today (Walsh 1987).</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• DA approach necessarily involves simplification and reduction, failing to account for the range of contexts, pedagogical purposes and socially constructed nature of classroom interaction (Walsh 2006)</li> </ul>

we saw in the previous section that formal, ritualised interactions between teachers and learners *are* still prevalent today. However, accepting that to be the case would imply making assumptions before even looking at the data, and it is the simplification and reduction of data in order to fit such *a priori* assumptions – akin to forcing the data into the predetermined shapes of a jigsaw puzzle - that perhaps makes a DA approach less suitable for the purposes of this dissertation. The research questions would seem to require a more open exploration of the data, which may suggest favouring a CA approach: “the most significant role of CA is to *interpret* from the data rather than *impose* predetermined structural or functional categories” (Walsh, 2006: 52).

## 2.10 CA approach

Rather than looking at the structural-functional linguistic features of interaction, the CA approach concerns itself with the sequential realisation of interaction between participants, and so an analyst in this tradition looks at the ways turn-taking, topic control, repair (among other things) are locally managed. When dealing with naturally occurring data, Richards outlines some “basic rules” of CA (2003:26-27): focus attention on the message details, ruling out nothing (such as pauses) as insignificant; avoid undue speculation extrinsic to the data, moving from observation to hypothesis without any preconceived theories; and focus on turns and sequences as the basic units of analysis. The focus on turns makes use of the ‘next-turn proof procedure’ which Hutchby and Wooffitt define as:

“..speaker[s] display in their sequentially ‘next’ turns an understanding of what the ‘prior’ turn was about. That understanding may turn out to be what the prior speaker intended, or not; whichever it is, that itself is something which gets displayed in the next turn in the sequence.” (1998: 15)

To continue the puzzle metaphor, the CA approach requires careful analysis of each utterance *piece by piece*, and it is through looking at the unfolding sequence of turns that analysts may observe the *shape* of the interaction before them.

**table 2.8**

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Criticisms of the CA approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• CA is too data specific and unable to develop an overall descriptive framework (Coulthard and Brazil 1992)</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• CA notions of turn-taking etc. developed from native speaker interactions, therefore non-native participants using classroom communication strategies do not follow the same “rules” (Wagner 1996)</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Extracts from recordings may appear to be selected randomly and contrived in order to illustrate a particular point (Walsh 2006).</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Difficulty in generalising findings and applying to other contexts (Walsh 2006)</li></ul>

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Critics of the approach would argue that it is this case-by-case treatment of data that precludes CA from developing a descriptive framework that is transferable to other contexts (Coulthard and Brazil, 1992 – and see table 2.8). Wagner has also expressed concerns regarding how nonnative speakers may not adhere to the turn-taking “rules” normally found in CA due to their limited linguistic resources (1996: 232). The counter to this is the *dynamic* view of context espoused by CA practitioners. In contrast to the static view of DA, CA sees context as “both a project and product of the participants’ actions” (Heritage, 1997: 163). It therefore sees each participant’s contribution as dependent on previous ones, while shaping the context of later actions. This shaping of context is mirrored by CA’s “next-turn proof procedure”, and it is this that allows a CA analyst to take an *emic* view of events in the discourse, drawing conclusions about the interaction from the perspective of the participants.

Therefore rather than presupposing “linguistic competence on the part of the conversationalists” (Wagner, op.cit.), CA allows us to see how the individual concerns of the interlocutors (whether native or not) manifest themselves in the interaction. Furthermore the dynamic view of context is especially relevant to institutional settings, where the “talk-in-interaction” among participants may reveal the goal-oriented activity in which they are engaged (Heritage, 1997: 163). Seedhouse offers an example of this in the case of the L2 classroom, where the institutional aim to improve the linguistic proficiency of the learners is manifested in the details of the interaction by the teacher’s use of embedded correction (1998: 97). In fact for Seedhouse “it is essential to have an explicit statement of the teacher’s pedagogical purposes” when analysing classroom data (1995: 9), and it is likely that one feature emerging from the shape of the interaction will bear relation to the teacher’s pedagogical aims.

For the purposes of the dissertation, a CA approach seems quite attractive. In the words of Seedhouse, “the focus of DA is to fit microinteraction into a system, the focus of CA is on portraying participants interactional concerns” (2004: 60). In the case of the institutional setting of an L2 classroom, participants interactional concerns may include their orientations towards addressing the teacher up or down the *ladder of interaction*. However the other criticisms of CA listed in table 2.8 might give cause to hesitate unconditionally accepting CA as the best approach. The notion of the *ladder of interaction* may be construed as a preconceived theory contrary to one of Richards’ rules outlined above, while the desire to

compare two sets of recorded data may suggest the use of a more transferable form of analysis.

## 2.11 Interaction Analysis

Walsh (2006) distinguishes between “system-based” and “ad-hoc” interaction analyses following Wallace’s distinction of the different observation instruments available to a teacher conducting action research (Wallace, 1998:110-113). While both types seek to categorise recorded data according to coding systems, the former utilises a “ready-made” instrument of fixed, predetermined categories that has already been trialled in different classroom contexts (Walsh, 2006: 40) – lending itself to a quantitative approach to analysing data. This contrasts with the “tailor-made” instruments of an *ad-hoc* approach, which may be flexible in design and based on a specific area of interest (ibid: 44).

**table 2.9**

Criticisms of “system-based” Interaction Analysis
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Coding systems miss the communicative value of remarks, fail to reflect the multiple simultaneous functions of classroom language and with their tabulated frequencies, organisation of classroom events are lost (Mehan 1979)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recordings interpreted from the observer’s perspective rather than participants, and coding systems themselves are subjective and impressionistic (Long 1983)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Observers may fail to agree on how to record what they see, raising questions about validity and reliability (Chaudron 1988).</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Coding categories predetermined and fail to account for events that do not match the descriptive categories (van Lier 1988)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Coding systems fail to account for variable contexts and ignore the connection between pedagogical purposes and patterns of interaction (Seedhouse 1996)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No allowance is made for overlap, with the assumption that classroom discourse proceeds sequentially in discrete units (Walsh 2006)</li> </ul>

Examples of system-based coding systems include FLINT (Moskowitz, 1971) - an instrument with 22 categories designed specifically for the foreign language classroom, and COLT (Spada and Fröhlich, 1995) with its 73 categories designed to also account for teaching methodologies. Despite the sophistication of these systems, they have drawn considerable

criticism among other researchers (table 2.9). Some of the criticisms mirror the concerns about DA outlined above, which is not surprising considering “many coding systems are implicitly based on a DA paradigm” (Seedhouse, 2004: 57). In addition to the theoretical concerns, a system-based approach may be ruled out on practical grounds: the Osaka and Tokyo data sets varied considerably in terms of size and method of recording, rendering any conclusions drawn from a quantitative analysis of the respective data of questionable validity.

An alternative approach which might be a better fit for the “reflective practice” of action research (Wallace, 1998: 16) is the adoption of a tailor-made, *ad-hoc* observation instrument. One example of this is Walsh’s SETT system, which he used to identify distinct classroom contexts, or *modes*, from patterns of interaction (Walsh, 2006: 62-92 and see Appendix 3 for details). In order to establish this descriptive framework:

“the data were analysed using a conversation analysis methodology that centred on turn-taking mechanisms in relation to perceived goals of the moment and stated lesson aims of the teacher...different patterns [of interaction] manifested themselves in the turn-taking, sequence of turns and topic management. Once a pattern had been identified, the data were analysed for further examples of the same pattern.” (Walsh, 2006: 64)

At the risk of stretching the puzzle metaphor too far, it seems that *ad-hoc* interaction analysis such as Walsh’s SETT, permits the *pieces* of interaction to take *shape* as they unfold sequentially (as with CA), allowing the analyst to identify patterns in the interaction transcribed. Further examples of the same patterns are then marked in subsequent data, overlaying the turn-by-turn shaped data with descriptive items of interest to the researcher. Walsh, citing Psathas (1995), claims that this process fits with the “norm” of conversation analysis (2006: 64). As such it maintains the CA attention to participant interactional concerns, while accommodating a descriptive framework that may be transferred to multiple contexts. Therefore *ad-hoc* interaction analysis seems to match this dissertation’s direction of inquiry, and how this methodology applies to the notion of the *ladder of interaction* will be explored in the next chapter.



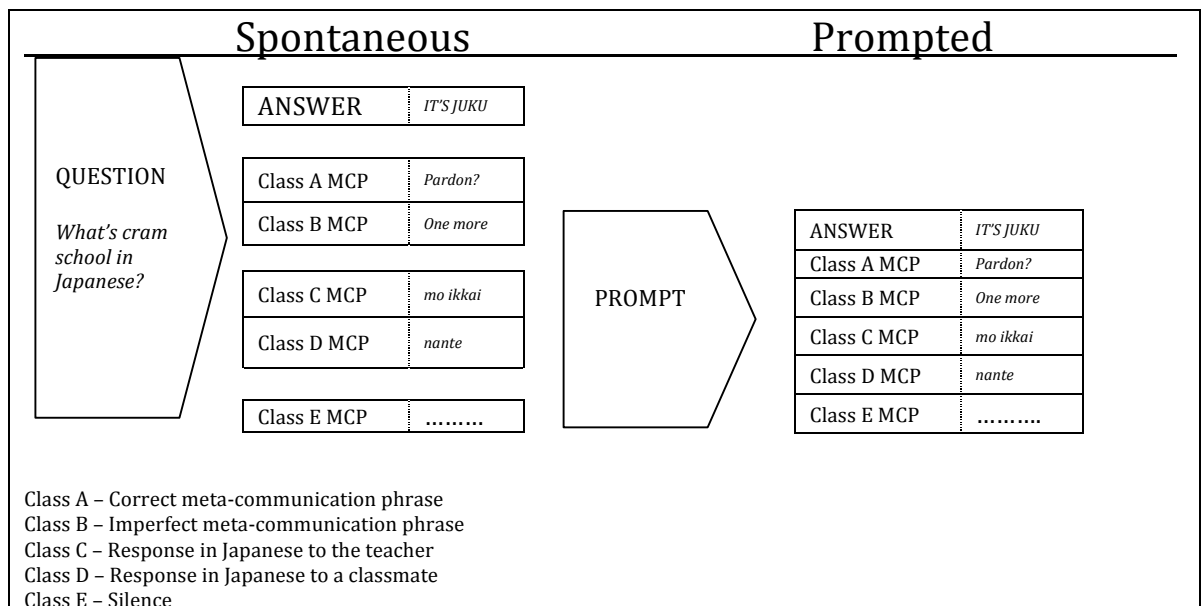
## Chapter 3 - Methodology

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter will outline the methodology used to analyse the Osaka and Tokyo class recordings in order to examine the notion of the *ladder of interaction*. It will set out the principles behind identifying MCPs more clearly (section 3.2) before going on to define MCP trajectory (3.3), and then look at issues of teacher role and class mode (3.5-3.6).

### 3.2 Meta-communication phrases

**figure 3.1:** model for MCP categorisation, from Marchand (2006)



The model for MCP classification (figure 3.1) was first proposed in Marchand (2005) and was derived from an action research project investigating the efficacy of the Immediate Method. As discussed in the previous chapter, we will be using a fundamentally conversation analysis approach to analyse the classroom data, and overlaying the sequential interactional “architecture” of the data (Seedhouse 2004) with MCP coding that broadly fits the model in figure 3.1.

The term meta-communication phrase was coined by the proponents of the Immediate Method, and was fully adopted by Marchand in previous work without a clear definition (2006, 2007). The roots of the concept may be traced back to Bateson (1972) who witnessed how “metacommunicative” signals between play-fighting primates instructed participants on how to interpret each other’s actions. Bateson saw that this metacommunication “framed” the interaction like a picture frame which “tells the viewer that he (sic) is not to use the same sort of thinking in interpreting the picture that he might use in interpreting the wallpaper outside the frame” (ibid. 188, cited in Hopper 1992). The concept of *interactive frames* was later developed into a theoretical model by Goffman (1974) and has since been used by researchers as a basis for understanding teacher and student roles in the classroom (for example Creider, 2009).

**figure 3.2:** Levels of Discourse (Nunn 1999)

Level 1	Discourse in the classroom context reflecting the classroom roles of teachers and students.
Level 2	Discourse in a “displaced” context. a. interaction in a non-classroom setting simulating non-classroom roles. b. Topic from textbook world or students’ world
Level 3	The language itself as topic within the classroom.

The concept of “metacommunication” also has echoes in Nunn’s model, which describes three levels of classroom discourse analysis (see figure 3.2). Metacommunication would fit into level three of Nunn’s model, where it can be seen as a “code-focus” level (Nunn, 1999: 28).

With the above in mind, table 3.1 outlines the guiding principles of meta-communication phrases as used in this dissertation.

**table 3.1**

Guiding principles for MCP identification
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Meta-communication phrase (or MCP) is taken to mean an utterance pertaining to an item of L2 language which is the object of study.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Each MCP represents an interactional strategy adopted by learners when the language as object of study is also a source of confusion, which may hinder what would be the natural flow of communication under ordinary circumstances.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• The primary focus of the MCP model is learner-teacher interaction. In this study MCPs are mainly the utterances from learners in reaction to something the teacher has said, although there may be occasions when a teacher models MCPs in questions to learners, or feeds appropriate MCPs to help learners manage their own classroom dialogue.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• As per the original model (figure 3.1), the <i>ladder of interaction</i> classifies MCPs into five classes, and is topped by an “Answer” from the learners.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Class E represents the silent response, in CA terms a “gap” in the interaction, and here is taken to mean a period of silence of more than 2 seconds which is not followed by an utterance from the assumed turn-taker. Although a Class E MCP is not a “phrase” per se, in keeping with the CA tradition even periods of silence communicate something (Saville-Troike, 1985) and therefore represent a choice of interactional strategy.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Class D represents the response to an item of L2 language (teacher’s utterance or class material) of conferring with another classmate in their L1. This response may be initiated by a student in need of help, or by one coming to the rescue of a classmate in trouble.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Class C represents a response to the teacher directly by a learner in his or her L1. It may be used to ask a question, answer a question or confirm the learner’s understanding of what the teacher has said.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Class B represents an attempt by the learner to negotiate their understanding of an item of language with the teacher using <i>imperfect</i> English. The utterance may be ungrammatical, incomplete or include the wrong choice of lexis.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Class A is the same as Class B, except the utterance may be classified as being correct in standard English.</li></ul>

### 3.3 MCP trajectory

Practitioners of conversation analysis sometimes turn their attention away from small units of discourse (turns) to longer episodes in order to examine how topics develop between speakers (Hopper 1992). Conversation, as with classroom discourse, may have “multiple speakers in pursuit of multiple purposes” who “define a path, or *trajectory*”

through episodes of interaction (ibid: 121, emphasis added). In previous work on MCPs, Marchand (2007) suggested that both learners and teachers recognized the *ladder of interaction* as a preferential ranking of responses, and may be expected to direct their interaction *up* the “rungs” of the ladder. In order to answer the first research question then, the coding system will try to depict such trajectories of MCP usage to see whether pathways *up the ladder* may be found and accounted for.

Suggested trajectories of MCP usage will follow each extract of classroom data in the results section, and table 3.2 outlines the significant features of these.

**table 3.2**

Important features of MCP trajectories
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>An MCP may not represent a single <i>turn</i> as understood in the CA tradition, or a single <i>move</i> as defined in DA (see the point below). In some cases an MCP may develop over a number of turns, and by a number of participants (especially in the case of a Class D MCP). For the sake of descriptive convenience and clarity, several utterances may be broadly brushed as a single MCP in the trajectory, while at the same time a single turn could include the outline of multiple MCPs.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>MCPs of the same class may serve quite different functions: at times answering a question, requesting for an utterance to be repeated, or asking for help with a particular word. Therefore “I don’t know”, “Pardon?”, and “How do you say this word?” would all be classified as Class A MCPs despite their quite divergent functions in the discourse.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The students’ utterances are highlighted <b>in bold</b>, and the teacher’s contributions <i>in italics</i>. The arrows (⇒) represent the sequential organization of the discourse, but cause and effect should only be assumed when an analysis of the turns in the interaction allows for it.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The trajectories highlight a condensed coding of the discourse, thereby reducing and omitting many rich details of the interaction. Most of the student utterances are reduced into their corresponding MCP classes or classified as “answers” in line with the top rung of the ladder of interaction in figure 1.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Meanwhile a lot of the teacher utterances in the trajectories are described by basic functional categories: <i>teacher prompts</i>, <i>teacher nudges</i>, <i>teacher feeds MCP</i>, <i>teacher responds</i>, <i>Question</i>. Occasionally the teacher’s question may in fact resemble an MCP (in the case of the Osaka data, quite deliberately), in which case it is categorized as <i>Question (Class A)</i>.</li> </ul>

### 3.4 Spontaneous and Prompted MCPs

In the original model, a distinction was made between MCPs that occurred spontaneously in the discourse, and ones that followed prompting by the teacher. In this dissertation such a clear distinction will not be made, although the notion of learner initiative (Garton 2002) will be explored in some detail. Instead occasions where the teacher *nudges* students towards using an MCP as opposed to *prompting* them directly will be highlighted.

### 3.5 Class mode and teacher role

As we saw in the background reading Walsh used his own SETT coding system to identify at least four distinct *modes* of classroom discourse: managerial mode, skills and systems mode, material mode and classroom mode (see appendix 3 for details). This distinction is useful and interesting, and may be referred to in passing when analysing the recorded data in the section. However greater reference will be made to the different *roles* the teacher plays at any time during a class *mode*. This is of relevance because the role the teacher adopts at any one time has a significant influence on the shape of the interaction, opportunities for MCP usage and significance of any silent responses. For example a shy student is likely to be more reticent to participate when asked to respond to the teacher in front of the whole class, as opposed to when interacting with the teacher alone or in a small group.

While far from being an exhaustive list (for example in 1994 Brown identified 12 possible teacher roles), the roles assigned to the two teachers in this study are *conductor*, *lifeguard* and in the case of the Osaka data, *examiner*.

The *conductor* role is assumed when the teacher addresses the whole class and controls the classroom discourse as a real conductor might a piece of orchestral music. It may be associated with the efficient control of the classroom interaction for procedural purposes, rapidly checking the completion of tasks, or presenting items of language to the class; or in Walsh's terminology, managerial modes, materials modes and skills and systems modes respectively.

The *lifeguard* role is when the teacher takes a back seat and let's students get on with a particular task. The teacher monitors the sea of faces, and responds to signs of trouble, which may include the direct solicitation for help by a student, or the tell-tale indications of distress in the learners' handling of the activity. In Walsh's terms, the teacher-as-lifeguard steps in when the interaction has switched from a materials mode to skills and systems mode, and significantly the interaction is more likely to be between the teacher and just one or two students at a time.

The final role that was identified in the Osaka data only was that of *examiner*. This follows from one of the key precepts of the IM where "students are frequently interviewed in small groups or individually, and receive a score based on their oral performance." (Brown et al., 2004: iv). Like the *lifeguard* role, the interaction when the teacher assumes the *examiner* role is usually between the teacher and 1 to 3 students at a time. However unlike the lifeguard role, the oral tests are harder to define in terms of class mode: often the interviews referred to worksheets that the students had completed (materials mode), or included open-ended referential questions about their experiences (classroom mode) while usually maintaining an explicit focus on MCPs at their core (skills and systems mode).

**table 3.3: Osaka classes**

lesson stage	pedagogical focus	classroom mode	teacher role
Presentation	focusing attention to textbook introducing new vocabulary transition to next stage	managerial mode materials mode managerial mode	conductor conductor conductor
Task	students work on task in pairs ask the teacher for help transition to next stage	materials mode skills and systems mode managerial mode	lifeguard lifeguard conductor
Oral test	review of task in front of teacher display and referential questions test evaluation	materials / skills and systems mode classroom context mode managerial mode	examiner examiner examiner

Tables 3.3 and 3.4 show the proposed relationships between lesson stage, classroom mode and teacher role for the Osaka and Tokyo classes respectively, and these concepts will be dealt with in more detail in the discussion chapter.

**table 3.4: Tokyo class**

lesson stage	pedagogical focus	classroom mode	teacher role
Dictation	setting up dictation reading short phrases students check in pairs transition to next stage	managerial mode skills and systems mode materials mode managerial mode	conductor conductor lifeguard conductor
Dictation feedback	eliciting sentences from students highlighting features of the language transition to next stage	materials mode materials mode managerial mode	conductor conductor conductor
Reading in pairs	students read half of the story each check any new words ask the teacher for help transition to next stage	materials mode materials mode skills and systems mode managerial mode	lifeguard lifeguard lifeguard conductor
Speed reading on projector	students read sentences flashed on screen check answers in pairs teacher elicits answers from students	skills and systems mode skills and systems mode materials mode	conductor conductor conductor

## Chapter 4 - Results

### 4.1 Osaka Data - Introduction

The Osaka data set of recordings was undertaken during an action research project investigating the effectiveness of the Immediate Method (Marchand 2006, 2007). The recordings were taken between week 6 and week 14 of the year-long course, spanning the middle of the school's summer term and into its autumn term. Five different classes were subject to recording over this period, and in total over 20 recordings were made from which the following extracts have been drawn. Each class had around 20 students, who were all third-years at a private junior high school between the ages of 14 and 15 year old. The purpose of the course – English Oral Communication - was to improve the students' confidence in basic listening and speaking, skills which had been somewhat neglected in the two years of English study undertaken by the students up to this point. This end was not helped by either the limited scheduling of classes (on average there were just twenty-five 45-minute classes in the school year) nor by the lack of grading responsibility for the teacher, leaving the students without any *institutional* sources of motivation to participate well in the class.

The extracts will be presented in chronological order, followed by the proposed MCP trajectory and comments. Full copies of each extract for both data sets can be found in appendix 4.

### 4.2 Extract 1

- 01 T: I see. that's good (..) and umm:: (...) >do you know< what's (.) err::: (...) *megane* in English  
02 S1: (1.0) it's (..) glasses in English  
03 T: glasses. how do you spell glasses  
04 S1: (..) I don't know  
05 T: okay

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1-5	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Answer ⇒ Question (Class A) ⇒ Class A ⇒ T moves on</i>

- 07 T: how do you spell glasses  
08 S2 I don't know  
09 T: (..) okay. do you want to ask me?  
10 S3: (.) how:: do you (.) spell (..) glasses  
11 T: err (.) it's G, L, A. (..) S, S, (.) E, S



Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
7-11	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Class A ⇒ T prompts ⇒ Class A ⇒ T responds</i>

15 L, A, S, S, E, S. (..) okay. UMm:: how do you say:: (.) *tenjou* in English  
16 T: It's (...) I don't know (**laughing**)  
17 S2: okay. how do you say *tenjou* [in English]  
18 T: [I don't know]  
19 S1: (..) I don't know  
20 S3: okay(.) can you ask me  
21 T: how (..) what? (.) what s:z *tenjo* in English  
22 S3: in English (..) umm:: It's CELLing  
23 T: (2.0)  
24 pardon?  
25 S3: ceiling  
26 T: cei::ling  
27 S3: yes  
28 T: (**laughing**)  
29 Ss: okay?  
30 T: (1.0)  
31 [how do you spell]  
32 S1: [how do you spell] it  
33 S3: ahh: (..) it's C, E, I, L

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
15-33	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Class A ⇒ Question (Class A) ⇒ Class A/Class A ⇒ T prompts ⇒ Class A ⇒ T responds ⇒ Class A ⇒ T responds ⇒ T nudges ⇒ Class A ⇒ T responds</i>

39 T: okay. err:: (.) how do you say *kabe* in English  
40 S1: (.) I don't know  
41 T: it's wall  
42 S2: wall  
43 S3: ah::: (..) Humpty Dumpty!  
44 T: Humpty Dumpty, that's right!  
45 S2: (**laughing**)  
46 T: um:: okay, how do you spell wall?  
47 Ss: wall, okay W, A, L, L

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
39-47	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Class A / Answer ⇒ Question (Class A) ⇒ Answer</i>

48 T: that's right. good. okay that's good. can you umm ask me a question  
49 S1: (2.0) what's *yuka* in English  
50 T: er it's floor  
51 S2: how do you [spell]  
52 S1: [how] do you spell it  
53 T: ah: F, L, O, O, R

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
48-53	<i>T prompts ⇒ Class A ⇒ T responds ⇒ Class A ⇒ T responds</i>

The first extract has been taken from an oral interview with three students being tested on the key phrase “How do you spell --?” This means that, following the IM methodology, the teacher is acting as an *examiner*. Despite the somewhat formal connotations this role might assume, the full extract in appendix 4 (p.77) shows that there is very little hesitation and few silent responses on the part of the students, almost no code-switching into Japanese and good evidence for an intimate interactional domain (plenty of laughs, and note the spontaneity of line 43 when the student recalls “Humpty Dumpty”). Indeed it is a good demonstration of what the IM sets out to achieve, as evident by the many MCPs being actively used here (Marchand 2006).

The first “trajectory” starts with a question from the teacher that actually models one of the main MCPs explicitly instructed in this IM class (“What’s – in English?”), and is followed by a correct answer, and then a second MCP type question (“How do you spell it?”). In line 4, S1 answers using the Class A MCP “I don’t know”, which is accepted as a valid answer by the teacher (“okay”) and he moves on to ask the same question to the next student after some laughter. This question in line 7 then begins the second trajectory, and again S2’s answer of “I don’t know” is accepted before the teacher prompts the student to practice the MCP by asking him the same question, which she does correctly.

The third trajectory starts in line 15 with the teacher’s question “How do you say *tenjo* in English?” - another MCP of sorts although less familiar to the students as it was not one they had been explicitly instructed on. This is again followed by a “ripple” of “I don’t know” MCPs, with S1 even jumping in in line 18 to say this before the question had ended. All these declarations of ignorance are accepted by the “okay” of line 20, and the teacher prompts the students to ask him an MCP to find the answer. This S3 does in line 21, and her hesitant start could be down to some confusion over the MCP that had been continuously practised in class (“What’s – in English?”), and the novel variety introduced by the teacher just a few turns previously (“How do you say – in English?”). In any case, the student manages to self-correct and asks a Class A MCP, to which the teacher responds appropriately in line 22. What follows next is a drawn out exchange where the teacher is *nudging* the students towards asking the target MCP (“How do you spell -?”) without actually directly prompting it. At first S3 uses the Class A “pardon” to get the teacher to repeat the word “ceiling” in line 24. The teacher repeats it, and the student takes the next turn to confirm the word by echoing the teacher in line 26. The teacher confirms “yes”, the students laugh and the teacher asks them if

they are “okay” with the word. After a second’s pause, both S1 and S3 simultaneously ask the target MCP correctly in lines 31 and 32, and the teacher finally provides the correct spelling. After this overt nudging towards learner initiative, it appears that the *communicative rules* of the oral test have been set: rules of asking for unknown words in English, and following up by asking for the correct spelling of the new English word; rules that were in fact intended to be extended to the whole course under the *Immediate Method* (Azra, 2005).

The fourth trajectory appears rather unproblematic: the teacher again follows the meaning-based MCP question in line 39 with the spelling-based MCP of line 46 with correct answers given by S3 in line 41 and S2 in line 47. The last trajectory, however, demonstrates the students have indeed picked up on the communication “rules”. The teacher prompts S1 to ask him a question, which she does using an appropriate MCP in line 49. After hearing the teacher answer that “*yuka* in English” is “floor”, S1 and S2 follow-up by asking the target MCP correctly in lines 51 and 52.

### 4.3 Extract 2

- 7 T: you’re feeling fine. good. how about you. (1.0) how do you feel  
8 S2: (xxxxxx) oh:: feel (xxxxxx)  
9 Ss: (xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx)  
10 S2: (...) I’m feeling (xxxxxx) I’m feeling (xxxxxx)  
11 T: I feel,  
12 S2: (1.0) I (1.0) I feel *kekkou tte nani?* (..) I feel what’s “quite”?  
13 S3: (xxxxxxxx) *boku wa jibun teki wa nani nani* (xxxxxx) I myself am blah blah  
14 *boku-* I’m feeling *naninani* (..) I feel *naninani* I (I’m feeling) blah blah  
15 S2: (..) I’m feeling:::u  
16 S1: (xxxxxxxx)  
17 S2: *ah kore* (xxxxxx) (1.0) I’m feeling:::u (1.0) sleepy ah this one  
18 T: sleepy. okay. you seem to be sleepy.

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
7-17	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <b>Answer</b>

After a hesitant start, S1 is able to answer the teacher’s question in line 7. It is clear though from the next exchange that S2 is not so lucky (line 9). What follows is a team effort in finding an answer, with a significant amount of code-switching in action. In line 13 S2 is asking for clarification of the Japanese word *kekkou*, and in lines 14-15, S3 helps him out further by suggesting the form of an appropriate response (“I’m feeling *naninani*., I feel *naninani*”). It is only when S1 in line 17 refers his classmate to the task sheet they had been working on (which listed a lot of feeling adjectives), that S2 marks his enlightenment (“*ah*

*kore*” in line 18) and proceeds to answer the question. Most of the interaction between lines 8 and 16 can therefore be classified as Class D MCPs, with the teacher only intervening once with the suggestion of a suitable sentence starter to answer the question (“I feel...” in line 11. This is probably due to the fact that the teacher was again in his *examiner* role, but it also exemplifies the interactional space given to the students that allows them to conference together to help each other out.

#### 4.4 Extract 3

- 1 T: oka:y (..) what's (.) go to cram school (.) in Japanese.  
 2 S3: °(...) ee? (xxxx) (..) cram school *tte nani*° what? (xxxx) what's "cram school"  
 3 S4: °(..) (xxxxxx) cram school *wa* (..) (xxxx) *shiranai*° "cram school" is (xxxx) I don't know  
 4 S5: ° (xxxx) I don't know°  
 5 Ss: **(laughing)**  
 6 S3: (xxx) (..) I (..) d[on't ](..)  
 7 T: [you don't =  
 8 S3: =know  
 9 T: (.) you don't know. (..) okay. (..) ask me (.) ask me  
 10 S3: (2.0) what's cram school (..) in Japanese  
 11 T: er: (.) CRAM school is *juku*

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1-11	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Class D ⇒ Class A ⇒ T prompts ⇒ Class A ⇒ T responds</i>

In this extract, the teacher is acting as the *conductor* in front of the whole class, guiding the students' interaction as they progress through the textbook material. In line 1 he asks S3 for the Japanese equivalent of the phrase “go to cram school” using the familiar MCP, which S3 responds to with a typical Class D MCP (“cram school *tte nani*” or “what’s cram school” in a softened voice to a classmate). In line 3 S4 declares her ignorance (“*shiranai*”) followed by S5 in the next line helpfully supplying the correct English MCP for such a declaration (“I don’t know”), which S3 employs in her next turn (lines 6 and 8). The teacher validates that response in the next line (“you don’t know” and “okay”), and then prompts the student to ask him, which S3 does using the appropriate MCP.

#### 4.5 Extract 4

- 01 T: okay, (..) what is: (.) er::: (..) *piano no* (.) *renshu o* (.) *suru* (..) in English.  
 02 S8: °eh° (...) it's (..) practice piano  
 03 T: that's RIGHT. (..) < practICE (..) PIAno > (.) practice (.) piano  
 04 S9: *un?* huh?

05 T: okay, (..) what is: (..) er:: (..) *piano no* (..) *renshu o* (..) *suru* (..) in English.  
 06 Ss: °eh° (...) it's (..) practice piano  
 07 T: that's RIGHt. (..) < practICE (..) PIAno > (..) practice (..) piano  
 08 S9: *un?* huh?  
 09 T: (..) practice (..) piano  
 10 S9: (2.0)  
 11 S10 okay?  
 12 T: (...)°practice *tte donna* spell° °what's the spelling for "practice"°  
 okay! (..) good. thank you (..) ask me. good (..) >good good< yup?  
 (..) how (..) [do you (..) spell]  
[how do you spell]  
 (..) err:: (..) P, R, (..)

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1-12	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Answer ⇒ T nudges ⇒ Class C ⇒ T prompts ⇒ Class B ⇒ T responds</i>

The teacher is again in front of the class conducting the interaction, in this case presenting vocabulary for free time activities. His Class A MCP question in line 1 is answered correctly by S8, after which the teacher slows down his speech and amplifies the correct answer for the benefit of the rest of the class. He then repeats the phrase in line 5, and after a two second pause asks the class if they are “okay” with the answer, perhaps being aware that S9 had exposed some of his confusion by his utterance of line 4. The teacher pauses and chooses not to move on with the interaction, thereby *nudging* the class towards following the communication “rules” we saw illustrated in extract 1. S9 addresses the teacher directly with his Class C MCP in a softened voice that could be a reflection of his unease at using Japanese, or for revealing his confusion over the spelling of “practice”, or for self-selecting in this teacher-controlled discourse mode. He is, however, rewarded by an enthusiastic response from the teacher (“okay!”, “good”, “thank you”, “good” , ”good good” “yup?”) which also includes the prompt for another MCP (“ask me”). This S9 correctly interprets to mean asking the teacher in English, which he starts to do in line 9. After a slight pause, his turn is overlapped by S10 but they both end up leaving the object slot in the MCP blank, and so rendering their questions as Class B MCPs. The teacher’s hesitation that follows in line 12 can be attributed to deciding whether to directly repair their questions, or respond to the English naturally, which in the end is what he chooses to do.

#### 4.6 Extract 5

1 S4: (xxxxxx) eat out (xxxxx)  
 2 T: do you have a question?  
 3 S4: °do (..) I have a question° (..)[what's (..) in Japanese]  
 4 S3: [ (xxxxxx) Sta::backsu?]  
 5 S5: [ (xxxxxxx) ]

6 T: wh- wha- (..) ask me please.  
7 S4: *nante iu n daro* what does this mean  
8 S3: *eh* what  
9 S4: *nante iu n daroo (..) eato (.) outo* what does this mean “eato (.) outo”  
10 Ss: **(laughing)**  
11 S5: *dakara =* so  
12 T: =what’s=  
13 S4: =what’s (..) what iszu (...) eat out (..) in (.) in Japanese.  
14 T: good. what’s eat out in Japanese. once more?  
15 S4: what’s mean  
16 T: ° no°(.) what’s eat out (.) in Japanese  
17 S4: what’s (.) eat out (..)  
18 T: in Japanese  
19 S4: in Japanese  
20 T: *gaishoku* eating out  
21 S4: *it’s gaishoku?*  
22 T: *it’s gaishoku, gaishoku suru. yeah.* it’s eating out, to eat out. yeah

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
2-20	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T feeds MCP</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>

Extract 5 sees the first example of the teacher assuming the *lifeguard* role with the students engaged in a task in pairs. It also illustrates again that turning to one’s classmates seems to be the preferred response given the chance. In line 2 the teacher responds to S4 who seems to be having trouble with a vocabulary item (“eat out”). In the next line, S4 utters a Class B MCP (“what’s - in Japanese”), failing to include the unknown phrase into the question pattern. However her turn is interrupted by two of her classmates (lines 4 and 5). In line 6 the teacher tries to prompt the questioner again, but now S4 instead turns to her friends with the same question in Japanese (“*nante iu n daroo*” in line 7 and “*nante iu n daroo... eato outo*” of line 9). The teacher then nudges the student into action again with his interjection on line 12, which results in the utterance of the target MCP (line 13). In the next line, the teacher deems the utterance to be “good” and repeats it, modelling the correct pronunciation. He also asks the student to use the MCP “once more”, which can serve no interactional purpose other than to reinforce correct MCP usage. However the request for repetition confuses S4, who begins to change the form of the question and the teacher corrects her overtly in line 16, which begins a staggered feeding of the correct MCP form in lines 17 to 19.

#### 4.7 Extract 6

17 T: And erm:: (..) who did you go (.) to the club with?

18 S2: (1) pardon?  
 19 T: who did you go: (..) to club (..) with  
 20 S2: (4.0)  
 21 I (2.0) I I went to: (.) I went to (.) club  
 22 (4.0)  
 23 T: with (..) °dare to° °who with°  
 24 S2: (3.0)  
 25 I:: only  
 26 T: ah (.) only you? by yourself? (..) you went (.) by yourself.  
 27 S2: (.) I went by (..) myself

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
17-25	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class E</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>novel circumlocution</b>

This extract illustrates how a lack of linguistic ability may create a “pushdowns” in the dialogue (cf. section 2.5). For S2 the trouble starts in line 17 when he fails to hear (or understand) the question posed. After a second’s pause, he uses the simple MCP “pardon” to elicit a repeat of the question, to which the teacher obliges with an oversimplified version of the same question. This is followed by an extended pause in line 20, and then several false starts answering the question in line 21. After another long pause, the teacher seeks to help S2 by repeating what he perceives to be the source of the trouble (the word “with”), and then translating the key question words into Japanese. This clearly was not the source of the trouble as S2 takes another significant pause in his turn (line 24) before finally answering the question with “I only”. The teacher then scaffolds his response by reformulating it into correct English (line 27), which the student acknowledges by repeating it in his next turn.

In terms of MCP usage, the student offers the simple Class A MCP “pardon” relatively spontaneously, while the long silences occurred when the student was “blocked” by not knowing an expression and failing to employ the MCP “What’s *hitori de* (= by oneself) in English?”. This supports the findings from Marchand (2007) that simple, fixed expression MCPs (like the first one in this extract) are more readily available to unblock sources of hesitation as they seem to address more immediate gaps or trouble spots. Meanwhile more involved MCPs requiring multi-step cognitive processes are not so accessible: in the example above, first the student needs to recognize the gap in his knowledge, decide how to resolve that gap, formulate the appropriate question, and then fit the answer into the rest of his response.

## 4.8 Extract 7

- 01 T: oka:y (.) FINALLY, let's have a look at the grree:n box.  
 02 (1.0)  
 03 S1: °mo ikkai iutte (xxxx)° (.) [once] (.) once again, please?  
 04 S2: [once]  
 05 T: which one. the last one?

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
3-5	<b>Class C ⇒ Class A ⇒ T responds</b>

In this extract, the teacher is back in his *conductor* role, and using procedural language to direct the class to a “green box” that can be found in the textbook. A student self-selects to interrupt the teacher’s *managerial mode* and initiates what Walsh calls a *mode side-sequence* in order to ask the teacher to repeat what he has just said (2006: 86). In line 3 S1 begins her MCP usage in Japanese in a softened voice, before self-correcting and using the appropriate phrase in English. The teacher responds by asking for clarification of what requires repeating, and then the rest of the extract (see appendix 4, p. 80) sees the teacher and students S1 and S2 exchange rapid turns as the relevant phrase is thrashed out between them. The mode side sequence ends n line 16, with the teacher returning to procedural language as before.

## 4.9 Extract 8

- 01 T: what is (.) *haha ni okutte morau* (.) in: (.) English.  
 02 Ss: [ ( x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x ) ]  
 03 S6: [ (xxx) *haha ni okutte morau* (xxxxxx) ]  
 04 T: in English. (..) *haha ni okutte morau*..  
 05 (..) >girls, girls< are you listening? (.) *haha ni okutte morau*.  
 06 S10: (xxx) °*eigo de, haha ni [okutte morau*° (xxxx)]  
 07 S11: [ (xxxxxx) ]  
 08 S7: I [don't know ]  
 09 S6: [ drive with ]my Mother.  
 10 T: close. (..) not (.) n-not perfect, but okay. (..) it's (.) get a lift, (..)   
 11 S10: get a lift  
 12 T: with my Mum.  
 13 S10: (..) with::u  
 14 T: get a lift, (...)  
 15 S11: lifto?  
 16 T: (.) with my Mum.  
 17 S12: lifto (..) left?  
 18 T: lift.  
 19 S12: lift?  
 20 T: get a lift (.) with my Mum.  
 21 S10: how do you spell lift?  
 22 T: L, I, F, T.  
 23 S10: °L, I, F, T°  
 24 S12: ° get a lift (..) with (.) my Mum°



Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1-22	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Class D ⇒ T prompts ⇒ Class D / Class A / Answer ⇒ T responds ⇒ T nudges ⇒ Class A ⇒ T answers</i>

In line 1, the teacher as *conductor* is asking for the English equivalent of a Japanese phrase using the standard MCP “What is – in English?”. The immediate response from the class is a lot of Japanese utterances, some of which are Class D MCPs evidenced by S6 in line 3. However others seem to be engaged in off-task social interaction, which prompts the teacher to interrupt in line 5 (“girls, girls are you listening?”) and then draws them into the question by repeating the Japanese phrase in line 5. S10 and S11 begin discussing the answer together in Japanese (lines 6 and 7) just before S7 answers with an “I don’t know” and S6 has a guess at the correct answer in line 9. The teacher says that this answer is “close” but “not perfect”, and then proceeds to supply the correct translation in two parts (lines 10 and 12). Having been drawn into this interaction after line 5, S10 echoes the first part of the teacher’s answer (line 11), and appears to struggle to complete the second part as she prolongs the pronunciation of “with” with a typically Japanese sounding inflection (line 13). The teacher repeats the two parts again (lines 14 and 16), and reacts to S11 and S12’s evident confusion over the word “lift” (lines 15, 17 and 19), by simply repeating the word in line 18, and then the whole phrase again in line 20. This then appears to *nudge* the students towards using the MCP “how do you spell -?”, which S10 does correctly in line 21.

#### 4.10 Extract 9

01	T:	how long does it take from your city:: (..) to Nara by train	
02	S1:	(..) Nara (...) Nara (..) train? (..) <i>densha de?</i>	<u>by train</u>
03	T:	that’s right	
04	S1:	<i>eee?</i> (..) <i>nanpun yarou</i> (..) <i>wakarimasen</i> (..)	<u>what?(..) how many minutes (..) I don’t know</u>
05		<i>&gt;nante&lt; kaita’n da kedo ne</i>	<u>&gt;saying that&lt; I wrote something though</u>
06	T:	<i>ma &gt;okay&lt;</i> (..) well (..) I don’t know (..) is okay=	<u>well</u>
07	S1:	= I don’t know	
08	T:	°okay° (..) how long does it take from:: (..) Kyoto to:: (..)	
09	S1:	°e?° =	<u>what?</u>
10	T:	= Osaka (..)	
11	S1:	°e?°	<u>what?</u>
12	T:	(..) by car	
13	S1:	by car <i>de</i> (..) Kyoto to Osaka (..) <i>Kyoto kara Osaka made</i> (..)	<u>from Kyoto to Osaka</u>
14		<i>ee?</i> (..) <i>nanpun darou</i> (..) <i>eee? wak-</i> I don’t know <b>(laughing)</b>	<u>what? how many minutes? umm? I don-</u>

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1-7	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <i>T feeds MCP</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b>
8-14	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <b>Class A</b>

In this extract, a student is being tested by the teacher-*examiner* having completed a task worksheet which included “*How long does it take from (A) to (B) by (C)?*” questions and a map. The student does a lot of code-switching when answering the teacher’s questions (lines 2, 4, 5, 13, 15 and the short interrogatives in lines 9 and 11), and seems totally at ease using Japanese to admit her own ignorance. The teacher suggests that using a simple “I don’t know” would suffice in line 6, which is immediately “latched” upon by the student in her next turn, and in answering the next question the student interrupts and self-corrects her Class C MCP to produce another Class A “I don’t know.”

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#### 4.11 Tokyo Data – Introduction

The Tokyo data set consists of a single one-hour recording taken from a university class of Japanese first-year undergraduates. The 20 students were from mixed-majors and grouped together in the lowest level stream of the university’s Foundation English language programme. This class had a number of advantages over the Osaka school’s circumstances: not only were the students more mature, they also had an *instrumental* motivation to pass the course, with clear grading guidelines. Perhaps most significantly, the class had significant curricular support to achieve its goals: the same class of students met twice a week for two 90-minute lessons (one for each skill) back to back. In other words, 6 hours of English classes a week, over the course of two 15-week semesters. The teacher in this class was responsible for the reading and writing parts of the Foundation English programme, and so met the class once a week for two lessons in a 3-hour block. The recording came from a “reading” lesson, a part of the programme that had the overall pedagogical goals of vocabulary building, and improving basic reading skills. However the teachers in the program were encouraged to practice all “four skills “ during their lessons.

The recording was undertaken in week 10 of the second semester. The teacher and students were made aware that their class would be recorded for research purposes, but they were not told the nature of the research. I also sat in and observed the class at the time of the recording, and later interviewed the teacher about the class once the recording had been transcribed.

#### 4.12 Extract 10

- 1 T: okay once more? (.) there were stor::ms, (..) lar::ge wa::ves, (.) aND shar::ks  
 2 S1: sharks *tte nani?*= what's "sharks"  
 3 S2: = *wakanna sharku?*= don't know sharku  
 4 S1: =sharku, sharks  
 5 S2: sharku  
 6 T: okay, check with your partners  
 7 (...) I'm LISTtenuing out for some Englisssh  
 8 Ss: (xxxxxxx)  
 9 S1: sharks, [sharks]  
 10 S2: [sharks?]  
 12 S1: sharks (xxxx) spell *wa wakanai* I don't know shark's spelling  
 13 T: if you don't know the spelling please ASk me. (.) if you don't know the spelling.  
 14 Ss (xxxxx)  
 15 T yes.  
 16 S3 waves spelling, what mean  
 17 T waves spelling?  
 18 S3 yes  
 19 T W, A (.), V, (..) B? no V! (.) E, S.  
 20 S3 ah  
 21 T okay?  
 22 S3 okay  
 23 Ss (xxxxxxxxx)  
 24 T does anyone want to check any spelling? okay?

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
2-19	<b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts whole class</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts whole class</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T Responds</i>

In extract 10, the teacher is in the middle of dictating short phrases from a story in the textbook with long, exaggerated pronunciation of the key words. The teacher has already established the procedure whereby after each dictated phrase, the students are to check in pairs what they have written down. This task is supposed to be done in English, which the teacher reminds the class in line 7. However most of the interaction between one pair of students at least is in Japanese, with three class D MCPs used in lines 2 (“sharks *tte nani?*”), 3 (“*wakanna sharku?*”) and 12 (“spell *wa wakanai?*”). Perhaps hearing this is what prompts the teacher to request the students to check any unknown spelling with him in line 13. After reminding the whole class to check with him, S3 draws the

teacher’s attention and begins asking a Class B MCP in line 16. The teacher confirms he understands correctly what the student is asking in line 17, before answering the question by supplying “waves spelling”. Unlike the Osaka data, there is no hesitation here whether to directly repair the Class B MCP or not.

#### 4.13 Extract 11

- 1 T does everybody understand ro:wed? (..) yeah  
 2 (1) Yumi? (..) do you – do you have a question about rowed?  
 3 S5 (.) don’t know=  
 4 T = you don’t know. okay- can you ask me a question?  
 5 S5 what (..) does it mean  
 6 T ro:wed. good – what does ro:wed mean. row is a verb, (.) to row (**gestures rowing for 3 seconds**) okay? (.) in a boat (.) row. (..) rowing (.) (**gestures rowing**) okay? it’s a very tough sport. (.) very tough sport, rowing.  
 8

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
2-6	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T answers</i>

In this extract the teacher is reviewing the vocabulary following the dictation, and selects S5 to see if she has “a question about rowed” in line 2. The student does not answer the teacher’s prompt with a question, but rather a Class B MCP indicating that she does not know the meaning of the word. The teacher recasts her response to include a subject for the verb, and then prompts her directly to ask him an MCP type of question in line 4, which she does with a Class A MCP in line 5. The teacher then takes a long turn to explain the word’s meaning.

#### 4.14 Extract 12

- 1 T: she was proud of herself, (...) when (.) so the last bit (..) let me see (.) Hiroki  
 2 S11: (9)  
 3 T: any ideas?  
 4 S11: (2) I don’t [know]  
 5 T: [I don’t kno- that’s okay. >good< you don’t know. >alright< Tadahiro?  
 6 S12: (2) she: (..) finally (...)  
 7 T: good. when she finally, (**writes on board**)

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1-5	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class E</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T moves on</i>

In the next extract, the teacher is still *conducting* the interaction, and in line 1 selects a particular student to complete the last bit of the dictation so that he can write it up on the board. What follows is a nine second period of silence, after which the teacher gently prompts the student again in line 3. After another two-second pause, the student begins to reply “I don’t know”, and this Class A MCP is interrupted by the teacher who confirms the validity of his response in line 5 (“that’s okay”, “good” and the repetition “you don’t know”) before nominating another student to finish the dictation, who duly does so after another two second pause. It is clear from this passage of dialogue that the teacher is patient in waiting for the students to respond, and therefore giving them plenty of *interactional time*, but the interrupted turn of line 4 and the teacher’s controlling of who has next turn rights still suggests less *interactional space*. This is not to be unexpected given the role the teacher assumes during this mode of classroom discourse.

#### 4.15 Extract 13

- 1 T: let’s just take a look at this picture, can I ask a question (..) hmmm  
2 (.) Shiho? are you okay? are you on 16 yet? okay (1) who is this? Shiho  
3 S13: (4)  
4 T: who is this? who is this lady?  
5 S13: (3)  
6 T: anybody?  
7 S: Deborah  
8 T: Deborah, yeah this is Deborah.

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
2-6	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class E</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class E</b> ⇒ <i>T moves on</i>

This extract marks a transition stage from one activity (the dictation), to the next (reading from the text book), and finds the teacher again conducting the class in order to make the connection between the two stages clear (by pointing out the lady in the picture from the textbook is the same person from the dictation). The teacher selects one student to answer his question in line 2, and this is followed by a four second silent response. The teacher tries to

prompt the student into answering by repeating the question in line 4, but gives up after another three seconds of silence whereby he offers the floor open for “anybody” to self-select. One student does so in line 7, and the teacher echo of line 8 seems to serve as an amplification to make sure everybody understands who the lady in the picture is.

#### 4.16 Extract 14

- 1 T if you have a problem, (..) what do you say: y (..) what question, if you can't if you see a word  
 2 **(holds head and gasps)** what do you say when you have a question  
 3 (1)  
 4 what (...) what's the question  
 5 (...)  
 6 David, excuse me **(puts hand in the air)**  
 7 S how do you say  
 8 T oh, rock and roll! [excellent.]  
 9 Ss **[(laughing)]**  
 10 T good. <how (.) do (.) you (.) say>, >right<. how do you say this word. what about if you don't  
 11 understand? if it's a new word, you can say it but you don't understand. what do you say  
 12 (2) excuse me David **(puts hand in the air)**  
 13 S (2) °what do you mean°  
 14 T >very good< what- what do you mean or what (.) <DOES (.) THIS> (..) what does this mean.  
 15 okay? so please, when you're reading (.) if you have a problem with saying or if you have a  
 16 problem with MEANing (.) please ask me. (.) okay?  
 17 (...) rock and roll let's go!

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
2-10	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Answer (Class A)</b> ⇒ <i>T models MCP</i>
11-14	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Answer (Class B)</b> ⇒ <i>T models MCP</i>

In this extract, the teacher is still conducting the class interaction, but indicates that while the students get on with the next activity (reading the story from the textbook aloud in pairs) he will shift into the *lifeguard* role, and outlines his expectations for how the students are to indicate they need help. In other words, the teacher is giving explicit instruction on appropriate MCP usage. This time though, the teacher opens up the floor to anyone to self-select, and after asking the question in line 2, he waits for a second, repeats the question (line 4), pauses again and then prompts by modelling the first part of the classroom language he expects (“David, excuse me”). One student then answers with the correct MCP in line 7, after which the teacher exclaims his satisfaction (“rock and roll!”) and then models the MCP himself, extending it to include “this word” in line 10. The sequence is repeated for the MCP “What does this mean?” although the pauses in lines 12 and 13 are longer, and the student who self-selects is perhaps a little less sure (answering in a quieter voice). This time the

answer “what do you mean” is really a Class B MCP, but the teacher still evaluates the response positively (“very good”), echoes the student’s answer before recasting to a Class A MCP (“what does this mean”).

#### 4.17 Extract 15

1 T yes Megumi  
 2 S15 umm (2) what (1) hm? what (..) does (..) this (...)  
 3 T say [or mean]  
 4 S15 [say] (1) say  
 5 T say-how do you say? how do you sa- ah scar::ed.  
 6 S15 sc[are]  
 7 S14 [sc- Sca=  
 8 T =scar::ed

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
2-5	<b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T feeds MCP</i> ⇒ <i>T answers</i>

The teacher is now acting as a lifeguard, and responds to S15’s request for help in line 1. The student then hesitantly asks a Class B MCP, confusing the question forms for “what does this mean?” and her intended “how do you say this word?” The teacher then checks which MCP she is trying to use (“say or mean”) in line 3, and then remodels the MCP in line 5, interrupting his own repetition of the correct question form by answering the question with an exaggerated pronunciation of the word “scared”. Unlike the classes in the Osaka school, the teacher is less insistent on hearing the students use the MCP correctly themselves before answering the question.

#### 4.18 Extract 16

1 T are you okay? any questions?  
 2 S7 please (.) *nandattakke* what was it  
 3 S8 *ippai arisugi* (1) many there are too many  
 4 T many  
 5 S8 many  
 6 T [ask me- ask me one]  
 7 S7 [what this this] (..) this (..) skado  
 8 T scar:::ed

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1-8	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class C (?)</b> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>

13	T	perfect! do you understand scared?	
14	S7	[no::]	
15	S8	[no I] don't understand	
16	T	do you understand frightened?	
17	S7	fright	
18	S8	fighto?	
19	T	fight no, scared look at my face ( <b>gestures frightened face</b> )	
20	S8	<i>odoroku</i> (...) surprise!	<u>surprise</u>
21	T	no, not surprise. scared ( <b>gestures frightened face</b> )	
22	S8	(..) <i>koai</i>	<u>scary</u>
23	T	(1) scared. (..) if you go to horror mo[vie, you're scared], okay?	
24	S8		[ah yes, yes]
25	S7		[yes. yes]
26	S8	okay!	

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
13-22	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <b>Answer</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b>

In this extract the teacher comes over to a pair of students who seem to need help, and perhaps because it is the teacher who initiated this exchange explains why in line 2 S7 checks herself in Japanese by asking “*nandattakke*” (= what was it?) having begun her utterance in English. Whether this was a Class C MCP directed at the teacher, a Class D MCP for her classmate or a rhetorical question for herself is unclear, but in any case S8 self-selects and responds to the teacher’s question in Japanese at first before switching to a simplified translation in English (“many”). In line 4 the teacher echoes the reply, which seems to validate it and S8 confirms by repeating “many” again in line 5. The teacher then prompts the students to “ask me one” of their questions at the same time as S7 begins a Class B MCP to check on the word “scared” in line 7. Lines 8-12 see a brief exchange with the teacher demonstrating the correct pronunciation of “scared”, and then he goes on to check whether the pair of students understand its meaning. At first he provides a synonym (line 16), a physical gesture (lines 19 and 21) and an illustrative example of the word’s meaning (line 23) until the students confirm that they understand it (lines 24-26). However before they reach that point, S8 uses Japanese twice in response to the teacher’s gestures. The first time in line 20, she translates “*odoroku*” herself, while the second time she leaves the Class C MCP untranslated in line 22.



#### 4.19 Extract 17

1	T	yes	
2		<b>(walks over to table)</b>	
3	S1	this mean (..) is (..) <i>mukatte?</i>	<u>(facing?)</u>
4	T	pardon?	
5	S1	into (..) eh (..) usually (..) <i>naka ni</i> (..) <i>naka</i>	<u>(inside (..) in)</u>
6	T	uh-huh. (..) pushed their boats. so, imagine. imagine this boat	
7	S1	yes=	
8	T	=on the beach (...) on the beach, okay?= =beach	
9	S1		
10	T	so Deborah and her husband (...) sorry!	
11		(...) Deborah and her husband push, (..) push the boat <b>(gestures pushing boat)</b>	
12	S1	yes	
13	T	INTO the water	
14	S1	[ahhh <i>hai</i> ]	<u>(ahhh yes)</u>
15	S2	[xxxxx]	
16	T	okay? int- yeah this picture here. into the water	
17		(...) here's the water, <b>(gestures pushing boat)</b> INTO the water	
18	S1	into <i>tte hairu no</i>	<u>(“into” means enter)</u>
19	T	okay? into	
20	S1	ok[ay]	
21	S2	[okay]	
22	S2	<i>hairu dakke</i>	<u>(ahh enter, is it?)</u>

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
3-22	<b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b>

In this extract, a student draws the teacher’s attention and asks for help with understanding the meaning of “into” when used in combination with “pushed” by asking a Class B MCP in line 3 and clarifying the source of her confusion in line 5. The teacher then explains the meaning of the whole sentence by use of gestures, with S1 showing her involvement by backchanneling, first in English in line 12, then in Japanese in line 14. The teacher finishes his explanation in line 17, after which S1 confirms her understanding by using a Class D MCP and in doing so sets up the first part of an adjacency pair in line 18. The teacher then checks to make sure that the two students are “okay” with his explanation, and after they both reply that they are in lines 20 and 21, S2 then completes the adjacent pair initiated in line 18, again by switching to Japanese in line 22. So here we have a trajectory that sees a pair of students *descending* the ladder of interaction, resorting to L1 in order to confirm their understanding of the teacher’s explanation.

#### 4.20 Extract 18

- 1 T: does anybody have a question? (3)  
 2 S1: yes  
 3 **(walks over to table)**  
 4 S1: *imi wa nani* what's "meaning"  
 5 S2: (xxxx)  
 6 S1: what do, what do (..) [situation]  
 7 T: [ IN: dan]ger  
 8 S1: ah no. mean mean=  
 9 T: = what does it me:an? what [does] it mean?  
 10 S1: [°yes°]  
 11 T: so in **(laughs)**, well( ..) for example (.) for example (..) if (..) hmm, let me see (..) if you are in, do  
 12 you remember earthquake? from the book. earthquake?  
 13 S1: yeah  
 14 T: >yeah<? if you are on a very high building, maybe 20 (..) 20 floors on the top (..) outside (..) on a  
 15 balcony (..) okay? (..) the building is very old, and then an earthquake **(gestures shaking**  
 16 **building)**(...) you (..) are (..) **(gestures top of building with circle and points into circle)**  
 17 in danger  
 18 S1: ahhh  
 19 S2: *koai yo* that's scary  
 20 T: in danger (..) IN **(gestures circle and points in circle again)** (..) danger  
 21 Ss: ahh  
 22 T: okay? is very bad (..) in danger, okay? in danger

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
3-22	Class D ⇒ Class B ⇒ T responds ⇒ Class C

The previous extract saw students collaborating in Japanese to confirm their understanding *following* the teacher's explanation, while the next extract has two students code-switching in *preparation* for MCP usage. The teacher is still in lifeguard mode and asks to see if "anybody" needs help in line 1. S1 indicates that she has a question, and as the teacher approaches she asks her partner for help with how to ask for the meaning of a word (line 4). She then hesitantly starts her question in line 6, and before she has finished, the teacher begins overlapping her turn with an exaggerated stress on the word "in", perhaps assuming pronunciation to be the source of trouble. This does not seem to be the case, and S1 identifies the meaning to be the problem with an ungrammatical class B MCP "mean, mean". The latched turn in line 10 indicates the teacher quickly understands what the student wants to know and he models the correct MCP form to the students twice, before embarking on a couple of long turns to explain the collocation of "in" with "danger" (lines 11-12 and 14-16). S1 responds with the acknowledgement token "ah" (Heritage, 1984), while S2 reacts with a Class C MCP "*koai yo*" (=that's scary). This code-switching seems to be a natural response to the content of the teacher's turn, and indicates a good understanding of the teacher's explanation.

## Chapter 5 - Discussion

### 5.1 Introduction

In this section we will explore some of the implications of the analysis done in the results chapter, specifically in terms of the establishment of rules of communication (5.2-5.9) and learner initiative (5.10-5.14).

### 5.2 Establishing the classroom rules of communication

The idea that classroom behaviour is rule-governed has been central to research of teaching as a linguistic process for a number of years (Green 1983). Seedhouse proposes that whenever teachers introduce pedagogical purposes, they necessarily introduce communication rules for the learners to follow, and that by matching the learners' patterns of interaction to these pedagogical purposes, we are also checking how closely learners have followed these rules (1998: 14). He develops this idea from Shimanoff (1980) who suggested a methodology for stating communication rules from the observation of linguistic behaviour.

Therefore the following sections (5.3-5.9) will discuss the establishment of communication rules, first by looking at how the two teachers explicitly instruct classroom language, or model correct MCP usage; then by examining in turn how each class of MCP is handled by the participants in the proposed trajectories of interaction.

Note that in the following discussion, some of the classifications in each trajectory may have been replaced by a reduced excerpt from the extract for the sake of clarity. (for example **Class B** replaced by “waves spelling, what mean”).

### 5.3 Explicit instruction of MCP usage vs modelling MCPs

Osaka Data

Ext.	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1	1-5	<i>“What’s megane in English?” Answer</i> ⇒ <i>“How do you spell glasses?”</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T moves on</i>
1	7-11	<i>“How do you spell glasses?”</i> <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
1	15-33	<i>“How do you say tenjo in English?”</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>“How do you say tenjo in English?”</i> ⇒ <b>Class</b>

		<b>A/Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
1	39-47	"How do you say kabe in English?" ⇒ <b>Class A / Answer</b> ⇒ "How do you spell wall?" ⇒ <b>Answer</b>
3	1-11	"What's go to cram school in Japanese?" ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
4	1-12	"What is piano no renshu o suru in English?" ⇒ <b>Answer</b> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
8	1-22	"What is haha ni okutte morau in English?" ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class D / Class A / Answer</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T answers</i>

### Tokyo Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
14	2-10	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Answer ("how do you say")</b> ⇒ "how do you say, how do you say this word"
14	11-14	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Answer ("what do you mean")</b> ⇒ "what does this mean, what does this mean"

The Osaka data set contained no clear examples of MCP usage being explicitly instructed, which contrasts with extract 14 from the Tokyo class where the teacher reminds the students of the classroom language that he expects to hear. However the lessons that took place before the recordings began in the Osaka classes *did* contain explicit instruction on classroom language, and the teacher's research diary shows that introducing new MCPs was the main pedagogical goal of the first four weeks of lessons. Since the IM encourages the regular practice of MCPs, these then became prominent features of the teacher language when interacting with students in both the *conductor* and *examiner* roles, as the trajectories in extracts 1, 3, 4 and 8 revealed. If classroom interaction can be said to have an *architectural structure* (cf. Seedhouse, 2004), then the repeated use of MCPs by the teacher may represent the *supporting walls* of the classes under IM instruction.

The teacher in the Tokyo class also placed an early emphasis on classroom language at the beginning of the course. In the interview (see appendix 5), the teacher stated that he put examples of classroom language such as "What does this word mean?" and "How do you say this word?" on the white board, and pointed to them when he wanted the students to use them. However there was not the overt recycling of MCP usage that became a feature of the IM classes and the sentences were not practised consistently, rather: "as a teacher when you are

doing a particular activity...it automatically clicks in my mind, oh – this is the time they can ask me for help with pronunciation and meaning.” (Teacher interview, p. 86).

So to continue the architectural metaphor, in the Tokyo class it seems that MCP usage became just one feature *adorning the walls* of the classroom discourse, which the teacher would turn to when it “clicked” in his mind. This occasional pedagogical focus on appropriate classroom language should come as no surprise given the overall aims of this reading and writing course.

#### 5.4 Handling of Class E MCPs

##### Osaka Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
6	17-25	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>(4 seconds...“I went to club”...4 seconds)</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>(novel circumlocution)</b>

##### Tokyo Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
12	1-5	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>(9 seconds)</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T moves on</i>
13	2-6	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>(4 seconds)</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>(3 seconds)</b> ⇒ <i>T moves on</i>

In both extract 6 of the Osaka data, and extract 12 from the Tokyo class, the teachers react to periods of silence by prompting the student to answer the question. In the case of extract 6, this is done by offering assistance in the perceived source of trouble, while in extract 12 the teacher asks the student if he has “any ideas”. Both interventions result in satisfactory outcomes, in the case of extract 6 a novel circumlocution, and in extract 12 a Class A response of “I don’t know”. In both cases it seems likely that the cause of the Class E response is *linguistic* (cf. section 2.5), whereas in extract 13 the second period of silence that follows the teacher prompts shows traces of *discoursal* factors at play. Here the second Class E MCP echoes Nakane’s observation that in many Japanese classrooms a silent response may be an unmarked way of communicating “I don’t know” (2006: 1826). Indeed the teacher in extract 13 treats it as such, moving on without highlighting the student’s lack of participation. His sensitivity to saving face shows an understanding (and tacit acceptance) of this common orientation to silence in Japan, especially when in the *conductor* role: “if ... I want someone

to answer from the class, then I pause quite a while and if nothing happens then I move on... [in reference to extract 13] I'm not going to push it if she doesn't answer, especially in front of the class". (Teacher interview, p. 88).

## 5.5 Handling of Class D MCPs

### Osaka Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
2	7-17	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <b>Answer</b>
3	1-11	<i>Question (Class A)</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
5	2-20	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T feeds MCP</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
8	1-22	<i>Question (Class A)</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ "girls girls, are you listening haha ni okuute morau" ⇒ <b>Class D / Class A / Answer</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T answers</i>

According to Ellwood, code-switching in the L2 classroom can "reflect acceptance of or resistance to normative classroom roles" (2008: 553). Therefore learner use of L1 may represent "acts of classroom alignment" - pro-active attempts on behalf of the students to get on board with the task at hand; or "acts of resistance" – signs of a disengagement from the task and teacher's pedagogical goals. (ibid: 542-546).

For extracts 2, 3, 5 and 8 from the Osaka data most instances of L1 usage represent the former, acts of alignment with the students seeking (or volunteering) peer collaboration to answer the teacher's questions. The teacher remarked upon this in his research diary: "all this L2 after I ask a question...actually seems like a positive step as they seem to be helping each other stay on task." (Teacher research diary, 12/06/04).

It is this understanding that accounts for the teacher giving plenty of interactional space for the students to employ Class D MCPs, whether when acting as the *examiner* (extract 2) *conductor* (extracts 3 and 8), or *lifeguard* (extract 5). Extract 5 will be discussed further in section 5.7, but in the three other extracts, the results of the conferencing in L1 all lead to satisfactory outcomes: an appropriate answer in extract 2; a Class A MCP in extract 3; and an interesting switch of classroom alignment evidenced in extract 8. In this extract, several students were apparently disengaged from the teacher's questioning, requiring him to draw

them into the interaction (“girls girls, are you listening *haha ni okuute morau*”). Their *resistant*, off-topic L1 usage then switches to collaborative Class D MCPs that soon leads to continued engagement with the question at hand and another Class A MCP later on in the trajectory.

#### Tokyo Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
10	2-19	<b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts whole class</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts whole class</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T Responds</i>
17	3-22	<b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>“into” means enter</b> ⇒ <i>okay? into</i> ⇒ <b>ah enter is it?</b>
18	3-22	<b>what is meaning?</b> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b>

Similar to extract 8, extract 10 sees the teacher in Tokyo reacting to instances of code-switching which were at odds with the task goals. Here the teacher has set up a pair work activity, and was about to assume his role as a *lifeguard*, but is moved to prompt the whole class to use English a couple of times, indicating that his “task-as-workplan”, for the students to check their answers together in English, did not match the “task-in-process”, predominate use of L1 in the pair work (Seedhouse, 2004: 93). The teacher later expressed disappointment when reviewing the transcript:

“Yes I did [encourage them to say “I don’t know”], but I’m looking at the transcripts and I notice that a lot of them are saying *wakanai*, *wakanai*... I specifically encouraged them to use those words [“I don’t know” etc.] with their partners too.” (Teacher interview, p. 87)

So it seems that students’ use of class D MCPs in *materials mode* is seen as not being aligned with teacher expectations of using some L2 in pair-work, and the teacher interjects in the discourse accordingly.

On the other hand, Extract 18 is a good example of a student *accepting the normative classroom role* of using English, and resources L1 in preparation for doing so. As a consequence this trajectory sees a Class D MCP followed by a Class B one higher up the *ladder of interaction*. Meanwhile, in extract 17 the adjacency pair initiated with “into *tte hairu no*” (=“into” means enter) and completed by “*hairu dakke*” (=ah enter is it) could be

seen to be a private exchange between the two students confirming their understanding of the teacher’s explanation. The fact that the teacher inserts his own confirmation check inside this Class D MCP exchange might be a reaction to the use of Japanese in front of him, and so perhaps a transgression of the “use English” communicative rule he is trying to establish.

Therefore the extracts from the Tokyo corpus hint at a tendency towards less tolerance of Class D MCPs compared to the Osaka data, where the teacher seems a bit more at ease accepting some code-switching. This difference may be a reflection of the contrasting maturity and educational experience of the two sets of students. Macaro (1997) has argued that there may be some value in the use of L1 in the L2 classroom, as it may encourage not only peer collaboration, but also learner autonomy. Therefore a teacher dealing with a younger class, less-accustomed to English-only instruction might well have a different orientation towards Class D MCPs, viewing them as the first steps away from the silent response.

## 5.6 Handling of Class C MCPs

### Osaka Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
4	1-12	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Answer ⇒ T nudges ⇒ (practice tte donna spell) ⇒ T prompts ⇒ (“how do you spell”) ⇒ T responds</i>
7	3-5	<i>“mo ikkai iutte” ⇒ “once again please” ⇒ T responds</i>
9	1-7	<i>Question ⇒ “by train?” ⇒ T responds ⇒ “how many minutes..I don’t know..I wrote something though” ⇒ “I don’t know is okay” ⇒ “I don’t know”</i>
9	8-14	<i>Question ⇒ “how many minutes? I don’t --” ⇒ “I don’t know”</i>

In extract 4, the incidence of a Class C MCP provokes a delighted response from the teacher, followed by prompting that leads the student to reformulate the MCP into English. The student in extract 7 follows a similar trajectory, although this time spontaneously and without any intervention from the teacher. In extract 9 the teacher needs to intervene again, and feeds the answer “I don’t know” to a student during the oral test, indicating that this is preferable to the Class C response of speaking in Japanese. In the next trajectory, the student then self-corrects her response from Class C to Class A, thereby accepting an orientation towards this *communication rule*. Therefore all the instances of Class C MCPs in the Osaka data show an implicit understanding among the participants that addressing the teacher in English is preferred to speaking to him in Japanese.



## Tokyo Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
16	1-8	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ “ <i>nandakke</i> ” ⇒ “ <i>ippai arisugi</i> ” ⇒ “many many” ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
16	13-22	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ “ <i>odoroku</i> ” ⇒ “surprise” ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ “ <i>koai</i> ”
18	3-22	<b>Class D</b> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ “ <i>koai yo</i> ”

Extract 16 shows a similar understanding among the university students. In lines 3 and 20, S8 at first utters some Japanese (“*ippai arisugi*” and “*odoroku*”), but on each occasion supplies an instant translation into English (“many many” and “surprise”). She also utters a Japanese word once again towards the end of the extract (“*koai*”), but this time does not follow up with any English equivalent, evidently because the respective word (“scared”) is unknown to her and the reason for the exchange in the first place. Her use of Japanese here then is not attended to by the other participants, and so does not affect the subsequent interaction. The same result can be seen in extract 18 too, where the student’s code-switching (“*koai yo*” (=that’s scary)) seems to be a natural response to the content of the teacher’s turn, and indicates a good understanding of the teacher’s explanation. In both cases the use of Japanese when addressing the teacher is not handled as a breach of any communication rules, but the general orientation towards using English can still be seen in these trajectories.

## 5.7 Handling of Class B MCPs

### Osaka Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
4	1-12	<i>Question (Class A)</i> ⇒ <b>Answer</b> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ “how do you spell” ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
5	2-20	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ “what iszu eat out in Japanese” ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ “what’s mean” ⇒ <i>T feeds MCP</i> ⇒ “what’s eat out...in Japanese” ⇒ <i>T responds</i>

The teacher’s handling of Class B MCPs from extracts 4 and 5 reveals tensions between maintaining smooth discourse, and promoting active and accurate MCP usage. We have already seen in extract 4 how the Class C MCP was followed by the teacher prompting the students into reiterating the request for spelling in English, which led to the incomplete Class

B MCP. The hesitation the teacher displays in line 12 of this extract can be attributed to him deciding whether to directly repair their questions, or respond to the English naturally, which in the end is what he chooses to do. The choice of smooth discourse did not win out in the next extract however, which sees the teacher take deliberate steps to “scaffold” appropriate classroom language.

This scaffolding occurs after a student has used an MCP to ask for the meaning of a phrase, one which is in fact grammatically a Class A, but the imperfect pronunciation probably prompts the teacher to ask her to repeat it “once more”. The student starts to recast the question, but this time using a grammatically Class B form, so the teacher interrupted in order to feed the correct MCP directly. The resulting implication for participants in this exchange would seem to be that at times, even addressing the teacher in English is not enough to avoid his intervention until utterances match his preference for accurate classroom language. The handling of the Class B MCPs here resembles the “jagged profile” of many teacher clarification requests, which Walsh contends are “extremely valuable in promoting opportunities for learning” (2006: 77).

#### Tokyo Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
10	16-19	<b>“waves spelling, what mean”</b> ⇒ <i>T Responds</i>
11	2-6	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>“don’t know”</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T answers</i>
14	11-14	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Answer (“what do you mean”)</b> ⇒ <i>“what does this mean, what does this mean”</i>
15	2-5	<b>“what does this...say”</b> ⇒ <i>T feeds MCP</i> ⇒ <i>T answers</i>
16	1-8	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class C (?)</b> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <b>“many many”</b> ⇒ <i>“ask me one”</i> ⇒ <b>“what this skado”</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
17	3-22	<b>“this mean is mukatte...into usually naka ni, naka”</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b>
17	24-25	<b>“(xxxxx) mean”</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
18	3-22	<b>Class D</b> ⇒ <b>“what do ..situation”</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b>

In contrast to extract 5, the teacher in the Tokyo class reveals a preference for smooth interaction on almost every occasion a Class B MCP presents itself, as he usually responds without any further requests for clarification (extracts 10, 11, 14, 16, 17 and 18). Extract 15, meanwhile, offers an interesting contrast to the feeding of an MCP we saw in extract 5. The

teacher begins to feed the correct question form after hearing a Class B MCP (“what does this...say” recast as “how do you say?”), but rather than insisting the student repeat the question “once more”, he proceeds to answer the question directly. This suggests that accuracy in MCP usage is not of particular importance to the teacher, as he later stated in the interview: “generally if the meaning has been communicated, then I’ll respond appropriately.” Therefore it can be expected that the students in this class would orient to this understanding. Walsh has argued that the absence of teacher clarification requests here, while smoothing over the discourse, may represent a lost opportunity for learning (Walsh, 2006: 81-2). Whether this is the case or not is debatable given the pedagogical aims of this stage of the lesson, and the course as a whole.

## 5.8 Handling of Class A MCPs

Osaka data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1	1-5	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Answer ⇒ Question (Class A) ⇒ “I don’t know” ⇒ T moves on</i>
1	7-11	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ “I don’t know” ⇒ T prompts ⇒ “how do you spell glasses” ⇒ T responds</i>
1	15-33	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ “I don’t know” ⇒ Question (Class A) ⇒ “I don’t know / “I don’t know” ⇒ T prompts ⇒ “what’s tenjo in English” ⇒ T responds ⇒ “pardon” ⇒ T responds ⇒ T nudges ⇒ “how do you spell it?” ⇒ T responds</i>
1	39-47	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ “I don’t know” / Answer ⇒ Question (Class A) ⇒ Answer</i>
3	1-11	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Class D ⇒ “I don’t know” ⇒ T prompts ⇒ “What’s cram school in Japanese” ⇒ T responds</i>
6	17-25	<i>Question ⇒ “pardon” ⇒ Question ⇒ Class E ⇒ T prompts ⇒ novel circumlocution</i>
8	1-22	<i>Question (Class A) ⇒ Class D ⇒ T prompts ⇒ Class D / “I don’t know” / Answer ⇒ T responds ⇒ T nudges ⇒ “How do you spell lift?” ⇒ T answers</i>

Tokyo data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
11	2-6	<i>T prompts ⇒ “don’t know” ⇒ T prompts ⇒ “What does it mean?” ⇒ T answers</i>
12	1-5	<i>Question ⇒ Class E ⇒ T prompts ⇒ “I don’t know” ⇒ T moves on</i>
16	13-22	<i>Question ⇒ “I don’t understand” ⇒ T responds ⇒ Class C ⇒ Answer ⇒ T responds ⇒ Class C</i>

Due to the different size and make up of the two data sets, it is difficult to infer much by the relative quantitative occurrence of Class A MCPs. What is interesting to note, however, is the prevalence of “I don’t know” MCPs which, like other simple fixed expressions such as “pardon”, Marchand (2006) has previously argued are more readily available as an interactional resource for low level students. The teachers’ handling of this MCP in both contexts almost uniformly validates its use as a face-saving strategy to avoid guesses, or longer responses.

However a contrast can be drawn between the two teachers’ actions following this validation. In every trajectory from the Osaka data, the teacher prompts or nudges the students towards asking him a secondary MCP, such as “How do you spell lift?” (extract 8) and “What’s cram school in Japanese?” (extract 3). In section 4.2 it was argued that the expectation for this two-step response was built into the structure of the oral tests, as exemplified by extract 1 which contains by far the most Class A MCPs.

On one occasion (extract 11) the teacher in Tokyo also follows a “don’t know” with a prompt for another MCP, although in this case he smooths over the fact that the student misunderstood his original question. However on the other occasions when similar utterances from the students occur, the teacher chooses not to press for a secondary MCP in the relentless fashion of the Osaka teacher. In extract 12 he chooses to move on conducting the class, whilst in extract 16 he is in the middle of checking whether the students understand the meaning of “scared”, and quite naturally uses his turns to explain the word rather than prompt the students to ask him for its meaning first.

## **5.9 Summary of communication rules**

Certain communication rules seem to emerge when sections 5.3-5.8 are viewed as a whole. These apparent codes of behaviour are evidently recognised by all participants when aligned to their normative classroom roles, as demonstrated by the various participant orientations discussed above. The rules for the Osaka classes are shown in table 5.1, while the rules for the Tokyo class are listed in table 5.2.

**table 5.1**

Communication rules apparent from the Osaka data
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• All instances of saying “I don’t know” (Class A) were validated and accepted as appropriate responses, but nudging by the teacher established the expectation that students should ask the teacher directly to fill any gaps in their linguistic knowledge.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Attempts at classroom language in English that were not perfectly formed (Class B) were accepted, but on occasion further clarification was requested for the sake of accurate MCP usage at the cost of smooth discourse.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Addressing the teacher in Japanese (Class C) was sanctioned, but a preference for reiterating the utterance in English was shown by both the teacher and students.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Collaboration with classmates in L1 (Class D) was tolerated to the extent that it produced satisfactory outcomes in terms of answers to the teacher’s questions, or MCPs higher up the ladder of interaction.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• No clear rules about the appropriacy of the silent response can be drawn from the data due to its infrequency in occurrence – perhaps in itself a testament to the classes’ orientation away from this Class E MCP. The one example presented in the results section occurs during the testing stage of the lesson, which resulted in the intervention of the teacher to address the perceived source of trouble.</li></ul>

In terms of the *ladder of interaction* the communication rules in the Osaka classes seem to validate Marchand’s suggestion that the students exhibited an orientation away from silent responses towards more communicative behaviour “up” the steps of the ladder. This upward tendency is demonstrated in figure 5.1, which aggregates the “normal” behaviour observed in the trajectories. For example several times, peer collaboration using L2 resulted in appropriate requests for help in English, or correct responses to the teacher’s question, meaning Class D MCP usage often led to jumps up the ladder to Class A/B MCPs or Answers. Sometimes this came about after prompting by the teacher (marked as “pushed” in figure 5.1) and sometimes self-consciously as natural result of the L2 conferencing (“transformed”).

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**table 5.2**

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Communication rules apparent from the Tokyo data
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• The use of “I don’t know” in answer to a question (Class A) was always accepted, and sometimes followed by a prompt for a secondary MCP to elicit more information from the teacher, but sometimes resulted in the teacher moving on to find another student to answer the question.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ungrammatical attempts at addressing the teacher in English (Class B) were invariably accepted as appropriate by the teacher, and were never followed by requests for clarification. The communication rule seems clear, speak to the teacher in English and he will attend to the content of your utterance rather than its form.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Students shared the teacher’s orientation away from addressing him in Japanese (Class C), often translating the utterance into their L2 interlanguage immediately within the same turn.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Using L1 when engaged in tasks or in interaction with the teacher (Class D) is not a preferred response, in that the teacher will exhort the students to either use a little bit of English, or engage him by asking questions in English. At the same time students were seen to use Japanese only as a preparatory step before engaging the teacher higher up the ladder of interaction.</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Silent responses (Class E) while the teacher is <i>conducting</i> the interaction are not seen to be particularly problematic: the teacher may prompt the student gently or move on without any signs in the interaction that face has been lost.</li></ul>

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Figure 5.2 illustrates the observed norms for the *ladder of interaction* for the Tokyo class. The upward tendency here is a lot less clearly defined, although it is still evident in some respects. For example students who used their L1 in front of the teacher were seen to self-correct immediately, thereby automatically “transforming” a Class C MCP to some kind of Answer. However what stands out is how much is “left to stand” compared to the Osaka classes. Silent responses, imperfect classroom language and the occasional “I don’t know’s” (Class E, Class B and Class A MCPs) were often accepted by the teacher without further prompting.

**figure 5.1:** Osaka classes “ladder of interaction”

Class A ⇒	⇒ pushed to ⇒	⇒ Class A
Class B ⇒	⇒ pushed to ⇒ ⇒ left to stand	⇒ Class A
Class C ⇒	⇒ pushed to ⇒ ⇒ transformed to⇒	⇒ Class A
Class D ⇒	⇒ pushed to ⇒ ⇒ transformed to⇒	⇒ Answer ⇒ Class A ⇒ Class B
Class E ⇒	⇒ pushed to ⇒	⇒ Answer

**figure 5.2:** Tokyo class “ladder of interaction”

Class A ⇒	⇒ pushed to ⇒ ⇒ left to stand	⇒ Class A
Class B ⇒	⇒ left to stand	
Class C ⇒	⇒ transformed to⇒	⇒ Answer
Class D ⇒	⇒ pushed to ⇒ ⇒ transformed to⇒	⇒ Class B ⇒ Class D
Class E ⇒	⇒ pushed to ⇒ ⇒ left to stand	⇒ Class A

## 5.10 Learner initiative and teacher role

So far the discussion has looked at how MCPs fit into the overall structure of classroom interactions, and we saw that many times students use MCPs after prompting or nudging from the teacher. To truly break the *culture of silence* it would seem reasonable to have students not only answer questions without periods of silence, but also openly self-select in class, and take the initiative to ask and answer questions by themselves.

The rest of this chapter will discuss the evidence for *learner initiative*, which Garton defines as student turns that meet two conditions (2002: 48):

1. the learner's turn does not constitute a direct response to a teacher elicitation
2. the learner's turn gains the "main floor", and is not just limited to the "sub floor"

By this definition, most Class D MCPs can be eliminated as examples of learner initiative as they tend to be limited to the "sub-floor", whilst many other MCPs on the *ladder of interaction* can also be discounted as we have seen many of them occurring after teacher prompting, in other words as a "direct response to a teacher elicitation."

The extent of teacher elicitation greatly depends on which role (as defined in section 3.5) the teacher is adopting at the time. Therefore the following discussion will seek to examine the relationship between learner initiative and teacher role.

## 5.11 Learner initiative and teacher-as-lifeguard

Osaka Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
5	2-20	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T feeds MCP</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
5*	26-27	<b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>

Tokyo Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
10	2-19	<b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts whole class</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts whole class</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T Responds</i>
15	2-5	<b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T feeds MCP</i> ⇒ <i>T answers</i>
16	1-8	<i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class C (?)</b> ⇒ <b>Class C</b> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>



17	3-22	<b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b>
17*	24-25	<b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
18	3-22	<i>T prompts whole class</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <b>Class B</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <b>Class C</b>

**\*note: extended versions of extracts 5 and 17 can be found in appendix 4 (p. 79, pp 83-84)**

There seems to be two patterns regarding learner initiative when both teachers assume the *lifeguard* role. In the first trajectory of extract 5 and also in extract 16 from the Tokyo corpus, the teacher appears to initiate the exchanges – in both cases having spotted students struggling with something while engaged in tasks. Significantly both trajectories are somewhat more involved when it comes to the negotiation of the source of trouble, suggesting that perhaps *unsolicited* help from the teacher-as-lifeguard may lead to more protracted MCP usage.

The second trajectory from extract 5 (see appendix 4, p. 79) meanwhile resembles those from extracts 15 and 17 in that in each case it is the learner who has initiated the exchange. As we saw in section 4.16, the Tokyo teacher takes the time to explicitly remind the students of the expected *modus operandi* when he assumes the lifeguard role, and this clear marking of a change in classroom mode, along with continued general prompting to see if anyone has “any questions” no doubt encourages members of the class to request help when needed. Therefore while these trajectories offer examples of learner initiative, they come about as an *indirect* response to teacher elicitation.

## 5.12 Learner initiative and teacher-as-conductor

### Osaka Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
7	3-5	<b>Class C</b> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i>
8	1-22	<i>Question (Class A)</i> ⇒ <b>Class D</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class D / Class A / Answer</b> ⇒ <i>T responds</i> ⇒ <i>T nudges</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T answers</i>

### Tokyo Data

Ext	Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
12	1-5	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class E</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class A</b> ⇒ <i>T moves on</i>
13	2-6	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <b>Class E</b> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Class E</b> ⇒ <i>T moves on</i>
14	2-10	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Answer (Class A)</b> ⇒ <i>T models MCP</i>
14	11-14	<i>Question</i> ⇒ <i>T prompts</i> ⇒ <b>Answer (Class B)</b> ⇒ <i>T models MCP</i>

If we look at some of the trajectories when the two teachers are in the *conductor* role, different approaches to the control of classroom discourse appear to emerge. For example, extract 8 sees a question posed to the class as a whole generate a lot of collaborative discussion in the L1 among the students, Class D MCPs which as discussed above were somewhat tolerated by the teacher of the Osaka classes. In this case, the result of this interactional space was not only an attempt at a correct answer, but also the involvement of a student who had been previously off-task, and who in the end self-selected to ask a Class A MCP about the word's spelling.

The spontaneous utterance of a Class A MCP is even more outstanding in extract 7, where the student self-selected while the teacher was in managerial mode - directing his students to a new section in the textbook. This interruption would be seen as a transgression of the norms of most classroom discourse, especially in the Japanese context, but suggests that the ever-present pedagogical focus on classroom language here overrides the established rules of interaction in Japanese high school classrooms. It is also a perfect example of learner initiative in an Immediate Method class.

No such interruptions of the teacher-as-conductor were attested in the Tokyo data, and in fact while adopting this role, the teacher seemed to maintain a tighter control of the interactional space. According to the interview, the teacher manages the discourse by mixing it up: "I do three things really: one is allow them to volunteer, one is select individuals, and one is select rows."

Extract 14 is an example of where the teacher opens it up to the whole class to volunteer, and while in both trajectories we find students doing so, it takes some prompting by the teacher (in lines 6 and 12) before they manage this, and his subsequent extended turns reveal that he is still very much controlling the interaction. The need for this continued elicitation also suggests that learner initiative was somewhat absent.

Extracts 12 and 13 show examples of the teacher selecting individuals to answer his questions. In these instances he seems to be maintaining the tightest possible control of the discourse, and both times the teacher's questions resulted in silent responses, which were then followed by a second Class E MCP in extract 12, and an "I don't know" in extract 13.

Therefore it might be no surprise that in the interview, the teacher stated a preference for selecting rows to answer his questions, which he finds “an effective way of allowing them the freedom to volunteer.” Extract 19 (appendix 5.2) supports his opinion, as it shows students self-selecting and answering his questions without too much hesitation. Although by Garton’s definition extract 19 trajectories do not qualify as examples of learner initiative, they could also be construed as examples of an *indirect* response to teacher elicitation.

### **5.13 Summary of learner initiative**

It is difficult to draw too many conclusions about learner initiative when comparing the two classes, in part due to the imbalance in the sizes of the respective corpora. However at first blush it seems that while the teacher is in the conductor role, learner initiative is somewhat muted in the Tokyo classes compared to the Osaka data.

The discussion so far suggests that there may be some intermediary steps on the road towards true learner initiative which may count as *discoursal* marking posts away from student reticence. Step one is to achieve student answers or Class A/B MCP responses to direct elicitation from the teacher. Step two sees students readily self-selecting in response to indirect elicitation, either by volunteering answers to questions put before the whole class, or by asking for help when doing tasks. Step three is when students feel comfortable to self-select out of turn, and ask the teacher a question whilst he is conducting some other classroom activity.

I would argue that in terms of these steps, learner initiative among the junior high school students was at least on a par with, if not greater than, that of the students attending university. It would suggest that the continued pedagogical focus on using MCPs shaped interaction during all stages of the IM class, to the extent that it may have blurred the distinction between different classroom modes and teacher roles, and encouraged students to self-select when the need arose, as seen in extract 7 (section 4.8).

## Chapter 6 - Conclusion

### 6.1 Introduction

In conclusion, I would like to address the three research questions from section 1.2, and see how findings from this dissertation may point towards future avenues of research.

### 6.2 Research questions

#### **1) Does a detailed analysis of classroom interaction support the suggestion that students observe an orientation *up* the ladder of interaction?**

I would argue that the results of chapter 4, and discussion of the analysis in chapter 5 strongly support the original suggestion that students in the Osaka classes orient to an implicit *ladder of interaction*. Figure 5.1 illustrated the aggregate “normal” behaviour that manifested itself in the trajectories of interaction, and showed that lower level MCPs were, when pushed by the teacher, followed by MCPs higher up the ladder of interaction. This transformation was also seen to occur self-consciously, without the teacher’s prompting. By way of comparison, the Tokyo class had a less clearly defined ladder of interaction (figure 5.2), which probably reflected the fact that the university teacher was not so relentlessly concerned with the frequency and form of classroom language, as his overall classroom aims clearly differed from those of an Immediate Method (IM) teacher. Even so, trajectories in the Tokyo data suggested some awareness of certain rules against using Japanese, especially in front of the teacher. Tolerance of Class B and Class E responses, however, perhaps precipitated their continued occurrence.

#### **2) Is the ladder of interaction a useful model for analysing classroom interaction?**

The ladder of interaction model was created during an action research project, after a period of reflection from the teacher about his classes. It therefore should come as no surprise to see this model fit the recorded data from those same classes. The true test of the model’s validity then is how easily it can be applied to other contexts. The results from the Tokyo data (4.11-4.20) showed that the model could be transferred to a new context in Japan, where it helped to educe some of the interactional features of the class. To test its robustness further, future

research could apply it to yet more contexts within Japan, in Asia or even across multi-lingual ESL classrooms. It might also be worthwhile to combine the model with other research instruments, such as student questionnaires or interviews.

If future research is to be undertaken, some adjustments to the model and methodology of analysis may be required. For example other steps on the ladder could include peer collaboration *in English*, which would certainly be a useful addition when analysing the interaction between higher-level students, or during learner-centred spoken tasks. Also more precision might be called for in the categorisation of MCPs: the current model broadly classifies within the same band phrases of varying functionality, and even some that extended beyond single turns. At times I felt this made the subsequent marking of trajectories rather awkward, and Walsh's SETT system has shown that coding with numerous categories need not be an unwieldy instrument of analysis (Walsh, 2006 – and see appendix 3). Despite these reservations, I feel the *ad-hoc* interaction analysis methodology adopted here proved to be a useful way of coding the interaction.

### **3) What implications does this analysis have for ways of mitigating the culture of silence and student reticence?**

In section 2.7, I outlined a model of how several *affective*, *discoursal* and *linguistic* measures could work in combination to move the classroom culture from the “ritual” domain to the “interactional” domain, and thereby mitigating student reticence (figure 2.2). Based on that model, it would appear that the IM classes in Osaka went some way to pushing the students towards the interactional domain. On a discourse level the repeated attention paid to MCPs encouraged the establishment of some *communication rules*, that were shown to promote peer collaboration, an orientation towards addressing the teacher in English, and even signs of *learner initiative*. On a linguistic level, the same focus on MCPs provided the students with resources to manage localised points of trouble in the classroom discourse, and teacher requests for clarification may have “pushed” this output further and provided greater opportunities for learning (cf. Walsh, 2006, citing Swain, 1995). Most of the *affective* measures were left up to the teacher to provide, although it could be argued that having students experience successful outcomes from self-selected turns and MCP usage would engender a rise in perceived L2 competence (cf. Hashimoto, 2002).

However the overriding focus on MCPs could have been at the expense of other language forms, and other more interesting (and motivational) lesson topics. The Tokyo data showed that the teacher had established a relaxed and supportive atmosphere, and my general impression after observing the class was that his university students were far from unresponsive. This could be in part down to the extra maturity, instrumental motivation and curricular support behind the Tokyo students, but also thanks to the teacher's selection of engaging tasks and the good rapport that he had established with the class members.

Therefore to really evaluate the effectiveness of the IM at breaking through the culture of silence, future research could include a longitudinal comparative study of two classes of similar composition, with one class subjected to IM instruction, and another under a more conventional pedagogic approach. But to conclude this current research, I will turn to Johnson who states that:

“the teacher plays a critical role in understanding, establishing and maintaining patterns of communication that will foster to the greatest extent both classroom learning and SLA.” (1995: 90)

I would argue that in the Japanese context, the *ladder of interaction* may count as an underlying pattern of communication, and that a teacher following Immediate Method procedure may be expected to foster greater student participation and less student reticence.

Word Count: 16481

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# Appendices

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### Appendix 1 Transcription Guidelines (modified from Jefferson, 1984)

T	teacher
S1	identified student
S	unidentified student
Ss	Students
(xxx)	incomprehensible
( )	commentary, e.g. <b>(gestures rowing)</b>
Wha-	aborted utterance
:	elongated sound, e.g. fo::r
°oh°	low volume
CRAM	emphasized or stressed
>yup<	high tempo
<I don't know>	low tempo
(.)	micropause
(..)	pause
(...)	pause up to 1 second
(1.0)	timed pause
=	fast connection, latching
[ ]	overlapping talk
. (period)	falling intonation
, (comma)	continuing intonation
?	rising intonation
<i>shiranai</i>	code-switching, i.e. Japanese
<u>I don't know</u>	translation (usually to the right of text)

## Appendix 2 - Examples of the silent response

The following examples come from two sets of recordings, the details of which are covered in sections 4.1 and 4.10.

- T: who did you go:: (..) to club (..) with  
S: (4.0)  
I (2.0) I I went to:: (..) I went to (..) club  
(4.0)
- T: with (..) °dare to° °who with°  
S: (3.0)  
I:: only
- T: ah (..) only you? by yourself? (..) you went (..) by yourself.  
S: (..) I went by (..) myself

In this extract, the teacher asks a question to a single student, which leads to a couple of four second pauses sandwiching a hesitant utterance that fails to answer the question. The teacher assumes the trouble to be one of comprehension, and so offers support by translating the key words from the question. However another three second pause follows, before the student eventually manages a circumlocution for the phrase “by myself”, indicating the source of trouble and perhaps cause of the silent responses was a gap in the student’s linguistic ability.

- T: did anybody catch, did anybody catch (..) this **(laughs)** when she FINally?  
(4) can you guess? can you think?  
(2) with your partner. with your partner. Japanese is okay, (..) what- what is this do you think (..) FINally! (..) Barbados, rowing, rowing, rowing **(gestures rowing)** kkkh-ahhh **(stops rowing)**  
(2) with your partner just have a little think. finally::  
(3) any ideas?

In the second example, we have a teacher addressing the whole class, asking for the missing word in a dictation that had just been completed. A four second pause is followed by further prompting from the teacher, and after another two seconds of silence have elapsed the teacher appears to switch the *mode* of the classroom (Walsh 2006) by asking the students to work together in pairs to discuss what the answer might be. He then provides a visual and contextual clue to help them find the correct answer, and prompts them once more to volunteer an answer in the last line. It is not clear from reading the transcript whether the teacher here was expecting an immediate response from anyone in the class, or merely using the questions to set up the pair work activity. If it is unclear on reading the transcript it is probably equally unclear for the students at the time to *navigate their way* through the

discourse (Breen 1998), a skill which requires the students to understand - and accept - *rules* of classroom discourse.

- T any ideas? anybody?  
(3) any ideas?  
(2) no? (...) hang on (..) wait **(goes to wallet in jacket pocket)**  
(4) >give you some money< **(takes out 1000yen note)** any ideas?
- S6 yes **(many hands go up)**
- T no, no too late too late
- Ss **(laughing)**
- T **(laughs)** finally...aRRI:Ved
- S *iutteita ne* I (you) said that, right
- T finally arrived (..) in Barbados

The final example (from extract 20, p. 85) actually follows on from the previous one with the teacher still trying to elicit the missing word from the dictation. His initial prompts are met by silent pauses, after which he jokingly offers to pay 1000 yen upon receipt of a correct answer. This is immediately followed by a rush of volunteers who suddenly seem a lot more willing to communicate. When the teacher answers his own question, one student remarks to her classmate (in Japanese) that they had said the right answer. In this case then, the silent response does not seem to be caused by an inability to answer the question, or necessarily a misunderstanding of what is expected, but rather a lack of confidence or motivation to do so.

### Appendix 3 – Walsh’s identification of classroom modes

	pedagogic goals	interactional features
Managerial mode	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>transmit information related to the management of learning</li> <li>organize the physical conditions for learning to take place</li> <li>refer learners to specific materials</li> <li>introduce or conclude an activity</li> <li>move to and from alternative forms of learning (whole class, group, pair or individual work)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a single extended teacher turn, frequently in the form of an explanation or instruction</li> <li>the use of transitional markers (all right, now, OK etc.) to focus attention or indicate a beginning of a lesson stage</li> <li>confirmation checks (Is that clear? Have you got that? DO you understand?)</li> <li>the absence of learner contributions</li> </ul>
Materials mode	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>provide language practice around a specific piece of material</li> <li>elicit learner responses in relation to the material</li> <li>check and display answers</li> <li>clarify as and when necessary</li> <li>evaluate learner contributions</li> <li>extend learner contributions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>the IRF sequence closely managed by the teacher</li> <li>display questions to check understanding and elicit responses</li> <li>teacher feedback is form-focussed, attending to correctness rather than content</li> <li>repair is used to correct errors and give further examples</li> <li>the teacher may scaffold learner contributions</li> <li>learners may be afforded more or less interactional space according to the type of activity</li> </ul>
Skills and Systems mode	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>enable learners to produce strings of correct utterances</li> <li>enable learners to manipulate the target language</li> <li>provide corrective feedback</li> <li>provide learners with practice in essential sub-skills (skimming, listening for gist etc.)</li> <li>display correct answers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>use of direct repair</li> <li>use of scaffolding</li> <li>extended teacher turns</li> <li>display questions used for eliciting target language</li> <li>teacher echo used to display responses</li> <li>clarification requests</li> <li>form-focused feedback</li> </ul>
Classroom Context mode	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>enable learners to talk about feelings, emotions, experience, attitudes, reactions, personal relationships</li> <li>establish a context</li> <li>activate mental schemata</li> <li>promote oral fluency practice</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>extended learner turns</li> <li>relatively short teacher turns</li> <li>direct repair; repair is used to “fix” a breakdown in the interaction</li> <li>content feedback, focusing on message not form</li> <li>extended use of referential questions, rather than display questions</li> <li>scaffolding may be used to help learners express their ideas</li> <li>requests for clarification and confirmation checks</li> </ul>



## Appendix 4 - Full transcripts of extracts 1- 20 (including trajectory for extract 19)

Note: names of class participants appearing in the data have been changed

### Extract 1

01 T: I see. that's good (..) and umm:: (...) >do you know< what's (.) err::: (...) *megane* in English  
02 S1: (1.0) it's (..) glasses in English  
03 T: glasses. how do you spell glasses  
04 S1: (..) I don't know  
05 T: okay  
06 Ss: **(laughing)**  
07 T: how do you spell glasses  
08 S2 I don't know  
09 T: (..) okay. do you want to ask me?  
10 S3: (.) how:: do you (.) spell (..) glasses  
11 T: err (.) it's G, L, A. (..) S, S, (.) E, S  
12 Ss: **(writing)**  
13 T: L  
14 S1: S, E **(laughing)**  
15 T: L, A, S, S, E, S. (..) okay. UMm:: how do you say:: (.) *tenjou* in English  
16 S2: It's (...) I don't know **(laughing)**  
17 T: okay. how do you say *tenjou* [in English]  
18 S1: [I don't know]  
19 S3: (..) I don't know  
20 T: okay(.) can you ask me  
21 S3: how (..) what? (.) what s:z *tenjo* in English  
22 T: in English (..) umm:: It's CElling  
23 (2.0)  
24 S3: pardon?  
25 T: ceiling  
26 S3: cei::ling  
27 T: yes  
28 Ss: **(laughing)**  
29 T: okay?  
30 (1.0)  
31 S1: [how do you spell]  
32 S3: [how do you spell] it  
33 T: ahh: (..) it's C, E, I, L  
34 Ss: °C, E, I, L°  
35 T: I, N, G  
36 Ss: °I, N, G°  
37 T: that's right. good. ceiling  
38 S1: (xxxxxx)  
39 T: okay. err:: (.) how do you say *kabe* in English  
40 S2: (.) I don't know  
41 S3: it's wall  
42 T: wall  
43 S2: ah::: (..) Humpty Dumpty!  
44 T: Humpty Dumpty, that's right!  
45 Ss: **(laughing)**  
46 T: um:: okay, how do you spell wall?  
47 S2: wall, okay W, A, L, L  
48 T: that's right. good. okay that's good. can you umm ask me a question  
49 S1: (2.0) what's *yuka* in English  
50 T: er it's floor  
51 S2: how do you [spell]  
52 S1: [how] do you spell it  
53 T: ah: F, L, O, O, R

## Extract 2

- 1 T: good afterNOON!  
2 S1: good after[noon]  
3 T: [good afternoon]  
4 S2: [good afterno]on=  
5 T: =okay. no:w (.) how do you feel today  
6 S1: *eto:: eto* (..) *eto* I'm feeling fine.  
7 T: you're feeling fine. good. how about you. (1.0) how do you feel  
8 S2: (xxxx) oh:: feel (xxxxxx)  
9 Ss: (xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx)  
10 S2: (...) I'm feeling (xxxxxx) I'm feeling (xxxxxxxx)  
11 T: I feel,  
12 S2: (1.0) I (1.0) I feel *kekou tte nani?* (..) I feel what's "quite"?  
13 S3: (xxxxxxxx) *boku wa jibun teki wa nani nani* (xxxxxx) I myself am blah blah  
14 *boku-* I'm feeling *naninani* (..) I feel *naninani* I (I'm feeling) blah blah  
15 S2: (..) I'm feeling:::u  
16 S1: (xxxxxxxxxx)  
17 S2: *ah kore* (xxxxxx) (1.0) I'm feeling::u (1.0) sleepy ah this one  
18 T: sleepy. okay. you seem to be sleepy.

## Extract 3

- 1 T: oka::y (..) what's (.) go to cram school (.) in Japanese.  
2 S3: °(...) *ee?* (xxxxx) (..) *cram school tte nani*° what? (xxxx) what's "cram school"  
3 S4: °(..) (xxxxxx) *cram school wa* (..) (xxxx) *shiranai*° "cram school" is (xxxx) I don't know  
4 S5: °(xxxxx) I don't know°  
5 Ss: **(laughing)**  
6 S3: (xxxx) (..) I (..) d[on't](..)  
7 T: [you don't =  
8 S3: =know  
9 T: (.) you don't know. (..) okay. (..) ask me (.) ask me  
10 S3: (2.0) what's cram school (..) in Japanese  
11 T: er: (.) CRAM school is *juku*  
12 Ss: °*ehhh?*°(..) what?  
13 T: *juku* (..) okay?

## Extract 4

- 01 T: okay, (..) what is: (.) er::: (..) *piano no* (.) *renshu o* (.) *suru* (..) in English.  
02 S8: °eh° (...) it's (..) practice piano  
03 T: that's RIGHT. (..) < PRACTICE (..) PIANo > (.) practice (.) piano  
04 S9: *un?* huh?  
05 T: (..) practice (.) piano  
06 Ss: (2.0)  
07 T: okay?  
08 S9: (...)°practice *tte donna* spell° °what's the spelling for "practice"°  
09 T: okay! (.) good. thank you (.) ask me. good (.) >good good< yup?  
10 S9: (..) how (..) [do you (.) spell]  
11 S10 [how do you spell]  
12 T: (..) err:: (..) P, R, (..)

## Extract 5

- 1 S4: (xxxxxx) eat out (xxxxx)  
2 T: do you have a question?  
3 S4: °do (.) I have a question° (.) [what's (..) in Japanese]  
4 S3: [ (xxxxxx) Sta::backsu?]  
5 S5: [ (xxxxxxx) ]  
6 T: wh- wha- (..) ask me please.  
7 S4: *nante iu n daro* what does this mean  
8 S3: *eh* what  
9 S4: *nante iu n daroo* (..) eato (..) outo what does this mean "eato (..) outo"  
10 Ss: **(laughing)**  
11 S5: *dakara* = so  
12 T: =what's=  
13 S4: =what's (..) what iszu (...) eat out (..) in (..) in Japanese.  
14 T: good. what's eat out in Japanese. once more?  
15 S4: what's mean  
16 T: °no°(.) what's eat out (..) in Japanese  
17 S4: what's (..) eat out (..)  
18 T: in Japanese  
19 S4: in Japanese  
20 T: *gaishoku* eating out  
21 S4: it's *gaishoku*?  
22 T: it's *gaishoku*, *gaishoku suru*. yeah. it's eating out, to eat out.  
23 (2.0)  
24 okay? (.) think about that, (.) concentrate on that one  
25 (1.0)  
26 S9: what's Starbucks?  
27 Starbucks is a:: COFfee shop

## Extract 6

- 1 T: um (..) postcards please. (..) thank you very much  
2 (4.0)  
3 T: awh:::, very nice! (..) very good. (..) okay. (..) erm::: (..) let's see::  
4 (..) ah- >°thank you°< (...) where did you go (..) this summer  
5 S1: (..) *eh*- I (..) went (..) to (..) club (..) at school  
6 T: oka:y, (..) how 'bout you  
7 S2: ah- (..) me too.  
8 T: > you too < (..) and how about you  
9 S3: Guam  
10 T: Guam? what did you do: (..) in Guam  
11 S3: (..) °*eh*?° what?  
12 T: < what did you do in Guam >  
13 S3: (xxxxx)  
14 T: okay, but what did you do  
15 S3: (..) ah (..) I (..) played golf  
16 T: you played golf? sounds nice.  
17 And erm::: (..) who did you go (..) to the club with?  
18 S2: (1) pardon?  
19 T: who did you go::: (..) to club (..) with  
20 (4.0)  
21 S2: I (2.0) I I went to::: (..) I went to (..) club  
22 (4.0)  
23 with (..) °*dare to*° °who with°  
24 T: (3.0)  
25 S2: I:: only



01 T: how long does it take from your city:: (..) to Nara by train  
02 S1: (..) Nara (...) Nara (.) train? (.) *densha de?* by train  
03 T: that's right  
04 S1: *eee?* (.) *nanpun yarou* (.) *wakarimasen* (..) what?(.) how many minutes (.) I don't know  
05 *>nante<kaita'n da kedo ne* >saying that< I wrote something though  
06 T: *ma >okay<* (..) well (..) I don't know (.) is okay=  
07 S1: = I don't know well  
08 T: °okay° (.) how long does it take from::: (..) Kyoto to:: (..) what?  
09 S1: °e?° =  
10 T: = Osaka (..) what?  
11 S1: °e?°  
12 T: (..) by car  
13 S1: by car *de* (..) Kyoto to Osaka (..) *Kyoto kara Osaka made* (.) from Kyoto to Osaka  
14 *ee?* (..) *nanpun darou* (..) *eee? wak-* I don't know (**laughing**) what? how many minutes? umm? I don-

### Extract 10

1 T: okay once more? (.) there were stor:::ms, (..) lar::ge wa::ves, (.) aND shar::ks  
2 S1: sharks *tte nani?*= what's "sharks"  
3 S2: = *wakanna sharku?*= don't know sharku  
4 S1: =sharku, sharks  
5 S2: sharku  
6 T: okay, check with your partners  
7 (...) I'm LISTtening out for some Englisssh  
8 Ss: (xxxxxxx)  
9 S1: sharks, [sharks]  
10 S2: [sharks?]  
12 S1: sharks (xxxx) spell *wa wakanai* I don't know the spelling  
13 T: if you don't know the spelling please ASk me. (.) if you don't know the spelling.  
14 Ss (xxxxx)  
15 T yes.  
16 S3 waves spelling, what mean  
17 T waves spelling?  
18 S3 yes  
19 T W, A (.), V, (..) B? no V! (.) E, S.  
20 S3 ah  
21 T okay?  
22 S3 okay  
23 Ss (xxxxxxxxx)  
24 T does anyone want to check any spelling? okay?

### Extract 11

1 T does everybody understand ro:wed? (..) yeah  
2 (1) Yumi? (..) do you – do you have a question about rowed?  
3 S5 (.) don't know=  
4 T = you don't know. okay- can you ask me a question?  
5 S5 what (..) does it mean  
6 T ro:wed. good – what does ro:wed mean. row is a verb, (.) to row (**gestures rowing for 3 seconds**) okay? (.) in a boat (.) row. (..) rowing (.) (**gestures rowing**) okay? it's a very tough sport. (.) very tough sport, rowing.

### Extract 12

1 T: she was proud of herself, (...) when (.) so the last bit (..) let me see (.)  
2 S11: Hiroki  
3 T: (9)  
4 S11: any ideas?  
5 T: (2) I don't [know]  
6 S12: [I don't kno- that's okay. >good< you don't know. >alright<  
7 T: Tadahiro?  
8 S12: (2) she: (..) finally (...)  
9 T: good. when she finally, **(writes on board)**  
10 S12: (1) ah  
11 T: ahh  
12 S12: (..) in  
13 T: in  
Bar(.)bados  
Barbadosss (..) okay

### Extract 13

1 T: let's just take a look at this picture, can I ask a question (..) hmmm  
2 (.) Shiho? are you okay? are you on 16 yet? okay (1) who is this? Shiho  
3 S13: (4)  
4 T: who is this? who is this lady?  
5 S13: (2)  
6 T: anybody?  
7 S: Deborah  
8 T: Deborah, yeah this is Deborah.

### Extract 14

1 T if you have a problem, (..) what do you say (.) what question, if you can't if you see a word  
2 **(holds head and gasps)** what do you say when you have a question  
3 (1)  
4 what (...) what's the question  
5 (...)  
6 David, excuse me **(puts hand in the air)**  
7 S how do you say  
8 T oh, rock and roll! [excellent.]  
9 Ss **[(laughing)]**  
10 T good. <how (.) do (.) you (.) say>, >right<. how do you say this word. what about if you don't  
11 understand? if it's a new word, you can say it but you don't understand. what do you say  
12 (2) excuse me David **(puts hand in the air)**  
13 S (2) °what do you mean°  
14 T >very good< what- what do you mean or what (.) <DOES (.) THIS> (..) what does this mean.  
15 okay? so please, when you're reading (.) if you have a problem with saying or if you have a  
16 problem with MEAning (.) please ask me. (.) okay?  
17 (...) rock and roll let's go!

### Extract 15



12 S1 yes  
13 T INTO the water  
14 S1 [ahhh *hai*] (ahhh yes)  
15 S2 [xxxxx]  
16 T okay? int- yeah this picture here. into the water  
17 (...) here's the water, (**gestures pushing boat**) INTO the water  
18 S1 into *tte hairu no* ("into" means enter)  
19 T okay? into  
20 S1 ok[ay]  
21 S2 [okay]  
22 S2 *hairu dakke* (enter, is it?)  
23 T (**turns to S7**) yes  
24 S7 (xxxx) (..) me:an  
25 T storm. (..) my- my picture there (..) lots of strong wind, kkhkk-kkk  
26 (..) rain, shhhwiiuu (..) okay?

### Extract 18

1 T: does anybody have a question? (3)  
2 S1: yes  
3 (**walks over to table**)  
4 S1: *imi wa nani* (what's "meaning")  
5 S2: (xxxx)  
6 S1: what do, what do (..) [situation]  
7 T: [ IN: dan]ger  
8 S1: ah no. mean mean=  
9 T: = what does it me:an? what [does] it mean?  
10 S1: [°yes°]  
11 T: so in (**laughs**), well( ..) for example (..) for example (..) if (..) hmm, let me see (..) if you are in, do  
12 you remember earthquake? from the book. earthquake?  
13 S1: yeah  
14 T: >yeah<? if you are on a very high building, maybe 20 (..) 20 floors on the top (..) outside (..) on a  
15 balcony (..) okay? (..) the building is very old, and then an earthquake (**gestures shaking**  
16 **building**)(...) you (..) are (..) (**gestures top of building with circle and points into circle**)  
17 in danger  
18 S1: ahhh  
19 S2:  
20 T:  
21 Ss:  
22 T:

### Extract 19

1 T what did they row across (..)  
2 anybo- how about this group here. this one (**points to a row of desks**)  
3 S (xxxxx)  
4 T pardon?  
5 S (xxxx)  
6 T very good. the Atlantic. (..) what's the (..) what's the Atlantic in Japanese?  
7 S19 (...) *taiseiyou* (Atlantic Ocean)  
8 T *tai?* (At?)  
9 Ss (xxxx)  
10 S19 *taiSEIyou* (Atlantic Ocean)  
11 T *unh* (uh-huh)  
12 Ss (xxxx)  
13 T I don't - I don't know=  
14 S4 =*taisei?* (xxxx) (Atlantic?)



15 T from Europe (.) from Europe and America (.) the big (.) the big ocean.

Lines	MCP Class and Trajectory
1-5	Question ⇒ Answer ⇒ Class A ⇒ Answer
6-13	Question (Class A) ⇒ Answer ⇒ Class A

This extract the teacher naturally modelling MCP usage, perhaps unintentionally and without pedagogical purpose. It takes place towards the end of the lesson during the “speed reading” stage, where sentences from the story are flashed up on the projector, followed by questions about the sentences. In line 1 the teacher is repeating one of those questions and then seeks a volunteer from one “group” of students to answer it. One student replies (presumably saying “Atlantic”) in lines 3 and 5, although the teacher does not catch it the first time and uses the MCP “pardon?” in line 4. The teacher then asks for the Japanese translation of the Atlantic, and after a student answers the question a couple of times (lines 7 and 10), the teacher indicates that he in fact does not know the answer himself, and so in line 15 describes the location of the Atlantic to confirm the correct meaning

#### Extract 20

- 1 T: did anybody catch, did anybody catch (.) this **(laughs)** when she FINally?  
2 (4) can you guess? can you think?  
3 (2) with your partner. with your partner. Japanese is okay, (.) what- what is this do you think (.)  
4 FINally! (.) Barbados, rowing, rowing, rowing **(gestures rowing)** kkkh-ahhh **(stops rowing)**  
5 (2) with your partner just have a little think. finally::  
6 (3) any ideas?  
8 (xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx) **(students discussing in pairs)**  
9 S3: *uchi ippai aru*  
10 T: what you drawing?  
11 S3: **(laughs)** today *ja nai* (..) not today not today  
12 T: not today **(laughs)** uh-huh (.) >sorry< **{steps over someone’s bag}**  
13 S: *waKANai* finally I don’t know “finally”  
14 T: any ideas? anybody?  
15 T: (3) any ideas?  
16 (2) no? (...) hang on (..) wait **(goes to wallet in jacket pocket)**  
17 (4) >give you some money< **(takes out 1000yen note)** any ideas?  
18 S7: yes **(many hands go up)**  
19 T: no, no too late too late  
20 Ss **(laughing)**  
21 T: **(laughs)** finally...aRRI:Ved  
22 S: *iutteita ne* I (you) said that, right  
23 T: finally arrived (..) in Barbados

## **Appendix 5 – Teacher interview while reviewing transcripts**

### ***What was the main purpose of the dictation?***

Well in this lesson I was trying to teach some target vocabulary. I know for one thing that this class enjoys the challenge of dictation, they get on task when they have something to listen to. And it's a good way to introduce the target language. And while they're doing the dictation and talking with their partners they can also check the meaning together before I explicitly check the meaning later...

...so the dictation is more of an active, if that's the right word because its listening, to engage with the vocabulary than just reading...

### ***And then following the dictation?***

It's ...the feedback session,...and during the class feedback section it's a good way to reinforce what's coming up.

### ***Why did you go to your wallet here? (cf. extract 20)***

That's to try and motivate the students, just to give them a little bit of a laugh, a challenge...it's also a way of creating a nice atmosphere with the class because they think I'm being unfair and I'm laughing. Two things, create a nice atmosphere and maybe encourage a bit of guessing.

### ***What's the purpose of getting the students to read the text in pairs, while monitoring them?***

It's a chance to reinforce again what they've been listening to, ...but I think it's also a good chance for the more positive students to ask questions about pronunciation and meaning. I think I say several times if you don't know what a word means to please ask, and if you don't know how to say it to please ask. So for the more positive students it's a chance to interact with me the meaning to please ask.

As I go around the class as well, if I hear some particular problems as they're reading, and I notice they're stumbling over particular words and then I might drop in and ask them if they need any help.

### ***How often did you teach classroom language?***

...For that particular classroom language, I remember distinctly that I started off my first lesson practicing that quite heavily. I wouldn't say I consistently did it every week, but I probably did it five lessons, four times. Sometimes I wouldn't necessarily focus on specifically reminding them to say it, but generally I do. It's a bit like a routine as well, as a teacher when you are doing a particular activity, for example when they're reading the passages that automatically clicks in my mind oh this is the time that they can ask me for help with pronunciation and meaning, using the language that we talked about. It kind of triggers with me the language that I use with the class "if anyone has any questions, please remember put up your hand, and what do you say?"

***At the beginning of the course, did they go straight into English, or did they start off by asking you in Japanese?***

No, they went straight into English. I specifically started the class with those two phrases. In the first class, when we were looking at the reading textbooks, those were two questions that I put on the board, and whenever I saw the need for them to use it, I pointed to the board.

And gradually I took those words away, but maybe for the first three, four lessons, I always put them on the board ready.

***Did you also encourage them to say “I don’t know”?***

Yes I did, but I’m looking at the transcripts and I notice that a lot of them are saying *wakanai, wakanai*

***Yes, but that is a bit misleading because some of the time they’re talking to their partners, and not addressing you.***

Yes it is, but I specifically encouraged them to use those words with their partners too. I tell them when they’re working in pairs they don’t have to *speak* in English, but to use *some* of those phrases in English.

It’s a low level class, they don’t use English that much, but what I try to encourage is just use little phrases like “I don’t know” and “What do you have”

***If they do use Japanese what do you do?***

I try not to respond too much to their Japanese, they know I understand Japanese but I try not to respond...I sometimes ask them to say that again in English, or give them a blank expression and pretend I don’t understand, or one thing is I might just wait.

***How often do you select individuals to answer your questions, rather than opening it up for the whole class?***

I mix it up deliberately. I do three things really: one is allow them to volunteer, one is select individuals, and one is select rows. So I might select a row and say anyone from this row. I find that an effective way of allowing them the freedom to volunteer. The whole class volunteer one I generally find is not very effective...because the same student gets tired of always being the one that answers, and they feel uncomfortable. So I mix it up...I think it’s important to mix it up.

***If they speak to you or ask you in English and it’s not perfect, do you accept that?***

“Yes, generally yes. Of course it depends, but generally if the meaning has been communicated, then I’ll respond appropriately.”

***How do you handle it when there is a silent response?***

Someone told me when I trained to be a teacher – quite a long time ago now! – count to four really slowly when you ask a question...Generally if I pause, and I want someone to answer from the class, then I pause quite a while and if nothing happens then I move on.

***And how about in this instance? You ask a question to the whole class, and then switch to get them to do it in pairs?*** (extract 20)

...It looks like here they probably feel more comfortable with their partners, and then that's the other strategy I use, if they don't volunteer, then they can check with their partners and that's a way for me seeing if they do know the answer, and then if I hear enough of them getting the answer in their pairs, then I can go back perhaps to "well how about you two, do you know the answer?"

***And here you move on after a student you selected hasn't responded?*** (extract 13)

...I'm not going to push it if she doesn't answer, especially in front of the class.