An Investigation of Collaborative[1] Language Teaching and Learning in English Lessons in a Japanese Primary School: A Qualitative Analysis of Classroom Interactions among HRTs, ALTs, and Pupils

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[1] The term 'collaborative' here is not utilized as a specific term but used as a more general term as a result of the data analysis of the current research to inclusively illustrate the situation where the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils cooperatively teach and learn English during lessons.

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List of Abbreviations

CA	Conversation analysis
DA	Discourse analysis
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ESL	English as a second language
FL	Foreign language
L1	First language
L2	Second language
NESs	Native English Speakers
NNESs	Non-native English speakers
SLA	Second language acquisition

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Chapter 1

Introduction

With globalization English use is spreading all over the world (e.g., Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006). In this context, English language teaching (ELT) is one of the most important areas of investigation as English becomes 'a basic skill' in a globalized world (Graddol, 2006, p. 72). As the number of young learners increases (see Graddol, 2006; Yano, 2009), many Asian countries, including Japan, also started English education in primary schools. For example, in Korea, English education started from the third graders at primary level in 1997 (Park 2009). Also, China started compulsory English education in 2001 in primary schools from third graders (Graddol, 2006). These Asian countries might have affected the introduction of English education in Japanese primary schools. Under these circumstances, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) decided to start English education for the fifth and sixth graders in Japanese primary schools in 2011. Team teaching between HRTs (homeroom teachers) and ALTs (assistant language teachers) has mainly been adopted (Kobayashi, 2009; MEXT, 2018)[2] as a teaching style in English education in Japanese primary schools. This thesis has originated from a growing interest with how HRTs, ALTs, and pupils collaboratively communicate with each other for language learning and teaching during English lessons in a Japanese primary school.

Introducing English education in Japanese primary schools, according to Y. Otsu

[2] Team teaching between Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and ALTs in English education in public junior high and senior high schools in Japan was originally started in 1987 by the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme (JET Programme, 2019). Team teaching has also gradually been introduced for English lessons in primary schools (MEXT, 2008) since English activities were introduced at primary level.

(2007), Torikai (2007), and Yamada, Y. Otsu, and Saito (2009), however, was controversial due to the fact that most HRTs were not trained or experienced enough to teach English, although they were experienced and qualified teachers in all other primary school subjects and could manage pupils well. Y. Otsu (2007), Torikai (2007), and Yamada et al. (2009) further point out that most ALTs had no experience or teaching skills in primary education. Thus, it is of vital importance to investigate what is happening in English education in actual primary school contexts. This is why the present research will investigate how HRTs and ALTs communicate with each other in order to conduct English lessons regardless of their limited experience and/or teaching skills for teaching English at primary level as well as how they interact with pupils. It is hoped that this investigation will benefit the vast number of primary school teachers who need to cope with this challenging situation, increasingly so, as English activities will be introduced to the 3rd and 4th years of primary education as detailed below.

In the system of English education in Japanese primary schools started in 2011, fifth and sixth graders in all public primary schools took *Foreign language activities*[3] classes for 35 hours per academic year.[4] The main purpose of introducing these activities was to let pupils get used to English through songs, games, and so on (MEXT 2010). Under the system, it was also advised that pupils were not assigned to a class by a grade or score (MEXT, 2014). However, English will soon become a formal subject for the fifth and sixth graders in primary schools in 2020, and a transition period for English as a formal subject already started in 2018. Under the new system, pupils will receive English lessons partially based on the current English curriculum in junior high schools (MEXT, 2014).

[3] They are also called as 'English activities'. The Course of Study states that English should basically be taught as a foreign language at primary level as most junior high schools teach English as a foreign language (MEXT, 2008).

[4] It means that pupils take the English activities classes once a week for 45 minutes.

In this situation, I became interested in the research topic of primary English education while participating in a short-term study abroad program in the State of Queensland (QLD), Australia in 2006 when I was an undergraduate student in Tokyo. While studying abroad at the language center, the University of Queensland, I learnt that there were many immigrants in Australia, and that the Australian government puts emphasis on keeping their mother tongue (see Australian Federation of Ethnic Schools Associations, 2019, for the details on community language school). I also learnt that Japanese was also learnt not only as a mother tongue at community language schools, where children of immigrants, international marriage family, and permanent residents learn Japanese and Japanese culture, but also as a foreign language in local primary, middle, and secondary schools under the Commonwealth Languages Other Than English (LOTE) Program (Queensland Government, 2019). Then, I became interested in how Japanese is taught and learnt in Australia. After coming back from the short-term study abroad, I decided to conduct fieldwork on how Japanese is taught and learnt as a foreign language in a unified primary, middle, and secondary school in QLD in 2008 where I worked as an ALT of Japanese as a foreign language and English as a second language in 2008, during which I was a master student in Japan. First, I just participated in Japanese lessons at primary level as an ALT. However, I was also allowed to join Japanese lessons at secondary level and English lessons in ESL classes as an ALT. In addition to working in the local school, I also worked in a Japanese language and culture school (community language school) in QLD where children of international marriage family or permanent residents learn Japanese as a mother tongue every Saturday in order to keep their Japanese language ability and get used to Japanese culture.

On my return to Japan, I started wondering how English was taught and learnt as a

foreign language at primary level in Japan, compared with how Japanese was taught and learnt as a foreign language in Australia, and how HRTs and ALTs conduct team teaching as I also worked as an ALT in Australia. I was allowed by the Board of Education to observe English lessons in S Primary School, where English education started from 2007 as a pilot school, and where the present research has been conducted since 2009. After the first observation of English lessons in the school, I heard from some HRTs that they felt anxious about conducting English lessons with an ALT due to their limited English ability, shortage of adequate time for having pre-lesson meetings with the ALTs, and lack of teacher training for teaching English. Thus, I decided to investigate what was happening in actual English lessons in Japanese primary schools and how HRTs and ALTs should conduct team teaching for more effective English lessons at primary level in order to share the results with teachers, supervisors on primary school English education, researchers, policy makers, and people who are involved in English education and make use of the findings for more effective English language teaching at primary level.

To achieve the purpose, I observed English classes in S Primary School as an assistant teacher from 2009 to 2013. The research was longitudinally conducted because I decided to further investigate English education in S Primary School in my doctoral research after completing my MA dissertation, which analyzed the data collected in 2009. While conducting my MA research, I was informed that ALTs in H City had one-year contracts with a private company as H City asked it to recruit ALTs. It means that the ALTs in S Primary School change every year. Thus, I thought it was necessary to conduct research longitudinally to find various ways to effectively conduct English team teaching by different pairs of ALTs and HRTs, although this thesis does not specifically focus on individual interaction features. I also audio-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed actual

classroom interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils (see Chapter 5 for the detailed information on data collection). The data obtained in the present research was analyzed based on sociocultural theory (e.g., Vygotsky, 1978), classroom discourse (e.g., Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013) and conversation (e.g., Sacks, et al., 1974; Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977; Seedhouse, 2004) analytic approaches. These approaches were employed because sociocultural theory could be a tool to explain how English lessons are achieved through social interactions, that is, interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils. Moreover, the classroom discourse analytic approach will be used to investigate the organization of the classroom in order to find how a communication system of English lessons works for smooth English team teaching in classrooms, whereas, the conversation analytic approach will be utilized to examine individual interactions in a more detailed manner to reveal what is happening in specific interactions (see Chapters 2, 3, and 4 for literature reviews on sociocultural theory, conversation analysis, and classroom discourse analysis).

The research topic is worth examining because of two reasons. First, since little research is conducted on analyses of classroom interactions among HRTs, ALTs, and pupils in primary school English lessons in Japan (but see, for example, Hosoda, 2016; Hosoda and Aline, 2013 for classroom discourse analyses of team-taught English lessons at primary level in Japan), to investigate actual classroom interactions among the three parties could unveil what is actually happening in primary school English lessons and thus could contribute to find an effective way for especially HRTs to cope with team-taught English lessons with ALTs in their limited English ability. Second, considering the fact that most HRTs in Japanese primary schools have no special certificate or training

for teaching English (MEXT, 2018)[5], to reveal how the HRTs in the present research try to communicate and teach English in collaboration with ALTs in their limited English ability and training could be helpful for HRTs as well as ALTs in similar contexts in Japan or other countries to conduct more effective team-taught English lessons.

By employing conversation and discourse analytic approaches, the present research could reveal the actual situation of English lessons in a Japanese primary school in a detailed manner, which is of great use to understand the nature of interactions among HRTs, ALTs, and pupils and hopefully contribute to the field of primary school English education, especially to HRTs who feel anxious about teaching English with ALTs. In addition, the current author also participated in actual English lessons as a participant observer as well as an assistant teacher, and recorded, transcribed, and analyzed actual classroom interactions, which could unveil what is actually happening in classrooms, knowing the situations well as a participant observer.

This thesis consists of nine chapters. In Chapter 2, sociocultural theory and language learning will be reviewed in order to explain how language learning is achieved through social interactions. Classroom DA and language learning will then be examined in Chapter 3 to investigate how learners develop their language ability in classroom interactions. Furthermore, in Chapter 4, CA and language learning will be reviewed in preparation for the more detailed analysis of classroom interactions in Chapters 6, 7, and 8 as the context of interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils are complicated and dynamic.

In Chapter 5, research design will be described in terms of data collection methods,

[5] According to MEXT (2018), only 5.9％ (20,182/343,295) of HRTs in Japan have a certificate for teaching English (at junior high and secondary level).

specific sites of the present research, and data collection. Chapters 6-8 are dedicated to the analyses of the current research data. Chapter 6 will investigate the data from a classroom discourse analytic perspective in order to investigate what is actually happening in primary school English learning/teaching classrooms, while Chapters 7 and 8 will analyze the data from conversation and classroom conversation analytic perspectives in order to examine classroom interactions in a more detailed manner. Chapter 9 will conclude the research and implications for ways to improve team teaching in English education in Japanese primary schools as well as a brief discussion on the limitations of the current research and its future directions will be discussed.

Chapter 2

Literature Review:

Sociocultural Theory and Language Learning

2.0 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the relation between sociocultural theory and language learning and explore how children can achieve intellectual development through interactions with other people. This is important because the notion of sociocultural theory enables the current research to explain how teachers (and peers) assist pupils through interactions to achieve their clear understanding in primary school English lessons. The concept of sociocultural theory is proposed by Vygotsky (1978). He explains that a child's intellectual development is deeply based on the link between individuals and social interaction. That is, the child can intellectually develop when speech and practical activity are converged through interaction with others (pp. 24-30).

In a language learning context, Walsh (2013) states that learning based on sociocultural theory puts an emphasis on its social nature and that it happens when 'learners interact with the "expert learner"' (p. 6). Thus, social interaction is important for children's development. Through social interaction, Walsh (2013) further states, children 'collectively and actively construct their own knowledge and understanding, building mental schemata and concepts through collaborative meaning-making' (p. 32). Donato (2000) also mentions that sociocultural theory can be an interpretive tool to investigate 'the dynamics of classroom foreign language instruction and learning' (p. 28). Thus, sociocultural theory is an important concept to explain children's learning and development through social interactions.

In the present research, language is used by the ALTs, HRTs, and pupils through classroom interaction, not only for language teaching and learning, but also for conveying their messages. Mainly English and Japanese are used in this context as 'symbolic tools' (Lantolf, 2000, p. 1) for mediation, which is a process in which 'the human mind is mediated' by both physical, i.e., material artifacts such as pencils, and psychological, i.e., symbolic artifacts such as language (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011, pp. 151-2), tools for language learning (Lantolf, 2000, p. 1), as will be explained in detail later. In learning a language, children can stretch the zone of proximal development (ZPD)[6] through 'languaging' which, according to Swain et al. (2011), is 'the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language (p. 151). They further explain that languaging organizes and controls (mediates) the mental process during the performance of cognitively complex tasks (p. 151). In the present research, 'private speech' (Vygotsky, 1962 discussed in Swain et al. 2011, p. 36) and collaborative dialogue will be dealt with as examples of languaging. Moreover, scaffolding, which is a 'process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his [sic] unassisted efforts' (Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976, p. 90), will also be discussed in this chapter (2.3) as it plays an important role in the current research data analysis in Chapter 6.

The chapter consists of four sections. Namely, Section 2.1 examines the concept of mediation followed by the discussion on the zone of proximal development (2.2), the concept of scaffolding (2.3), and languaging (2.4).

[6] ZPD is 'the difference between what a person can achieve when acting alone and what the same person can accomplish when acting with support from someone else and/or cultural artifacts' (Lantolf, 2000: 17, see Section 2.2 for more details).

2.1 The Concept of Mediation

Vygotsky (1978) defines mediation as using signs and tools in 'human-environment interaction' (p. 7) and explains that the former, 'sign', is '*internally* oriented' and 'changes nothing in the object of a psychological operation', whereas, the latter, 'tool', is 'externally oriented' and 'it must lead to changes in objects' (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 55).

In relation to the latter, 'tool', Kramsch (2000), discussing the relation between mediation and language, points out that, in a situation of language learning, language is not only learnt, but also used as a symbolic tool for mediation, for example, to convey a message and communicate with others. Through language learning, learners experience social interactions and what they have learnt through the interactions will be internalized and turned into learners' ways of thinking and learning (pp. 133-4, see also, Ahmed, 1994; Lantolf, 2000; Swain et al., 2011).

As one example of language being used as a symbolic tool for mediation, Donato (2000), who calls a symbolic tool a cognitive tool, reexamines Smith's (1996) explanation of a co-construction process for problem solving between a teacher and students in a language learning classroom. Here is an extract from Smith (1996), which Donato (2000) reexamined from language as a cognitive (symbolic) tool perspective.

Protocol 1: *I'm puzzling through now.*

→1 S: I'm puzzling through now.

2 T: OK.

3 S: (laughs)

4 T: OK… does this help to make any more sense?

5 S: So, could you change…?

6 T: OK, yes?

7 S: Could you change the verb?

8 T: OK.

9 S: (Laughs) because… (laughs)… because…

10 T: Which verb do you want to change?

→11 S: Well… so the… uh… the teacher… you know… uh… I… I

→12 believe that 'mean' has many meanings. Some… some… some…

13 T: OK.

(Smith 1996, quoted in Donato, 2000, pp. 31-2)

Donato (2000) interprets this interaction from languaging as a symbolic (or cognitive) tool for mediation. He points out that the student's private verbalizations 'I'm puzzling through now' in line 1 and 'Well… so the… uh… the teacher… you know… uh… I… I believe that "mean" has many meanings. Some… some… some…' (lines 11-12) are what Smith terms 'kind of on-going think-aloud verbalization' (Swain, 2000, p. 105). Donato, however, explains that they are shown in order to 1) appeal for assistance, 2) state her 'private orientation to the explanation', and 3) externalize her 'thinking and problem solving' (Donato, 2000, p. 33) and further states that these 'incomprehensible utterances' of the learner can be a cognitive tool to mediate and navigate him/her and the teacher to shared understanding and problem solving eventually (2000, p. 33) from the perspective of language as a symbolic (cognitive) tool.

Thus, interaction is found to play an important role as a mediation strategy for students to co-construct new knowledge '[t]hrough saying and reflecting what was said' with others (Swain, 2000, p. 113). The next section will explore the recent research on

mediation in interactions in classrooms to reveal how language is utilized as a mediation tool in a classroom context.

Recent Research on Mediation in Classroom Interactions

Recent research on mediation often focuses on what types of strategies are utilized as mediation in classroom interactions (e.g., Rivera & Barboza, 2016; Schwartz & Gorbatt, 2017). That is, mediation strategies such as modeling, questioning, translation, elaboration, recasts, clarification in order to scaffold learners and repair what learners said, are reported to be used (ibid). For example, Schwartz and Gorbatt (2017) show that teachers use mediation strategies such as modeling (p. 143) in order to promote learners' participation into L2 (in this case, Arabic) interactions in an Arabic-Hebrew bilingual pre-school setting in Israel. The teachers' efforts lead to 'the co-construction of knowledge' in teacher-children conversations (p. 144, see also Donato, 2000, p. 33 for shared understanding and problem solving in teacher-student interactions). In the study, direct translation is avoided in order to activate learners' ZPD and encourage 'their involvement in L2 learning' (p. 143), which is in contrast to the present research findings (see Chapter 6 for the detail).

Rivera and Barboza (2016) also examine how a teacher mediates ninth-grade students' participation in discussions by using various mediation strategies in EFL classrooms in Columbia (p. 152). The study finds that the teacher effectively utilized questions, elaboration, recasts, and continuatives such as the use of the backchannels *uh hu* and *uhuh* to show '"go on, I'm listening" and encourage learners to continue talking' (p. 155) as mediation strategies in order to promote learners' participation in discussions (pp. 155-7). In addition, translation is also effectively used by the teacher (pp. 157). That

is, the teacher does not restrict the students' use of their L1 and translates it into TL and encourages their L2 production in contrast to the finding of the study by Schwartz and Gorbatt (2017) as discussed above. The use of translation will also be discussed in the analysis of the current research data (see Chapter 6).

On the other hand, although using a different term 'interaction strategies', but not 'mediation' strategies, Xu and Kou (2017) illustrate how interaction strategies contribute to improving university students' oral performance during group work in EFL lessons in China from a sociocultural perspective. Interaction strategies are regarded as mediation strategies by both Schwartz and Gorbatt (2017) and Rivera and Barboza (2016) since they are utilized to improve and promote learners' performance. Xu and Kou's (2017) study reveals that four interaction strategies: 1) '[t]he use of follow-up questions', 2) '[r]equesting and giving clarification', 3) '[r]epair (to be discussed in Chapter 4), and 4) '[r]equesting and giving help', are utilized to improve learners' oral performance (pp. 2-3). By using these strategies, Xu and Kou (2017) state, students work as 'mutual scaffolders' by giving support to and receiving support from each other (p. 7). Xu and Kou point out that these scaffoldings are effective for learners' language learning since social interaction helps them to 'develop their cognitive abilities' (2017, p. 8).

These recent studies have shown that mediation strategies such as modeling, questioning, translation, elaboration, recasts, clarification are frequently utilized in teacher-student (Schwartz & Gorbatt, 2017; Rivera & Barboza, 2016; Yang, 2016) and student-student interactions (Xu & Kou, 2017) in various types of classroom situations to encourage learners' participation in lessons and promote their understanding.

To sum up, Section 2.1 has explained that language learning is mediated by interaction, using language as a symbolic (cognitive) tool. In the present research, English

is learnt and also used as a lingua franca (ELF) among HRTs and pupils (non-native speakers of English) and an ALT (a native speaker), when communicating with each other. In addition, Japanese (HRTs' and pupils' L1, and ALTs' FL) is also sometimes used as a lingua franca by the three parties in order to achieve clear understanding in their classroom interactions. In Chapter 6, therefore, I will also examine how English and Japanese are used as mediation tools from a sociocultural perspective as well as how English is taught, learnt, and used in English lessons. In the following section, the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978), which is closely related to mediation since the zone would be stretched by successful language learning through mediation, will be examined.

2.2 Zone of Proximal Development

According to Vygotsky (1978), the zone of proximal development (ZPD) is:

> the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (p. 86)

Lantolf (2000) on the basis of Vygotsky (1978) also defines ZPD as 'the collaborative construction of opportunities… for individuals to develop their mental abilities' (p. 17). In language learning, the child or novice relies on the adult or expert at the beginning. At the next stage, the child or novice starts to take in what they need from the adult or expert (Lantolf & Appel, 1994, pp. 10-11). Vygotsky, according to Lantolf (2000), regards this

transition as a ‘general law of cultural development’ (p. 11) and explains as follows:

> Any function in the child’s cultural development appears twice, or on two planes; first it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane; first it appears between people as an interpsychological category, and then within the child as an intrapsychological category. (Vygotsky, 1981, p. 63, quoted in Lantolf & Appel, 2000, p. 11)

Here, the change from the interpsychological into the intrapsychological plane shows the ‘beginning of the child’s control over his or her own behavior- that is, self-regulation’ (Lantolf & Appel, 2000, p. 11) in which ‘speech becomes “the instrument of the problem’s organized solution”’ (Vygotsky & Luria, 1994, p. 121, quoted in Swain et al., 2011, p. 38). Thus, ‘[s]pontaneous behavior has been transformed into planned and organized behavior with the aid of speech’ (Swain et al., 2011, p. 38) in the zone of proximal development where the ‘child and adult engage in the dialogic process’ (Lantolf & Appel, 2000, p. 11). That is, this ‘higher cognitive process…emerges as a result of the interaction’ between the child/novice and the adult/expert (Lantolf & Appel, 2000, p. 10). Through the interaction, ‘mediational means are appropriated and internalized’ into the child/novice’s ZPD (Lantolf, 2000, p. 17). In other words, children learn language through interactions with adults and take in what the adults showed them. Through the whole process, the mental process of the child/novice shifts from ‘intermental/interpsychological’ (other-regulated) to ‘intramental/intrapsychological’ (self-regulated) (Lantolf & Appel, 2000).

In order to stretch the child/novice’s ZPD, the help of the adult/expert is essential. Regarding effective help in the ZPD, Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) report the following

two points. That is, firstly, help provided by the advanced member is for checking the novice's ZPD to offer appropriate assistance and to 'encourage the learner to function at his or her potential level of activity' (p. 468). At this point, the purpose is to estimate how much guidance is at least required by a novice to solve his/her task. Therefore, help usually starts from implicit and gradually becomes specific help 'until the appropriate level is reached' (ibid). Secondly, Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) report that 'help should be *contingent*' (ibid). That is, it should be given 'only when it is needed, and withdrawn as soon as the novice shows signs of self-control and ability to function independently' (ibid). Some research shows that children begin to reject parents' help once they recognize that they can complete tasks by themselves (explained in Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 468, see also Wertsch, 1984, 1985; Wertsch & Hickman, 1987).

In relation to effective help to stretch the child's ZPD, Lantolf and Appel (1994) specifically investigate how ESL learners develop their L2 learning through corrective feedback from experts based on the notion of ZPD in order to examine 'the interaction between error correction and the learning process as it unfolds during the dialogic activity collaboratively constructed by learner and tutor' (p. 467). In the study, one of the learners (called 'N'), through working with a tutor, gradually shows 'an orientation toward joint activity which is markedly different from working alone' (p. 472). Here is an extract of the interaction between the learner 'N' and the tutor from Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994).

(A) N3*

1. N: "It's a little difficult for me"
2. T(utor): uhum

→3. N: Is good?

4. T: It's good

5. N: To tell you

6. T: uhum

→7. N: Or tell to you said to you

8. T: To tell to tell you is fine

9. N: To tell you where or what ...

10. T: Or ah okay to tell you

11. N: “Where or what will I do ten years later”

12. T: Okay

→13. N: Okay?

14. T: That's good

→15. N: “But I will try explain to you” ... To is right here?

16. T: aah, yeah

→17. N: Is right?

18. T: Uhum, it's right

19. N: Okay

20. T: Yeah, “I will try to ...”

21. N: Okay, “to explain ...”

22. T: To explain

→23. N: “To explain to you something about [I prefer “about” no] of my

24. inquietudes, about some inquit ... inquit...”

25. T: Okay, what is inquietudes?

26. N: I think this is Spanish (laughs)

*The capital letter is the learner's initial (N=Spanish L1).

Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994, pp. 471-2)

Before the interaction between the learner 'N' and the teacher in the above extract, N had two opportunities to check if there were errors or not in her essay, once by reading it alone before coming to the tutor's office, and another, by reading it in the office but without the tutor's help. However, she did not detect any errors either time. In the above extract, the learner starts self-initiated self-correction in line 23, stating '"To explain to you something about [I prefer "about" no] of my', to replace the preposition *of* with 'the more appropriate' one *about* (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 472). Also, she asks clarification questions in lines 3 'Is good?', 7 'Or tell to you said to you', 15 '"But I will try explain to you" ... To is right here?', and 17 'Is right?', and does confirmation checks in line 13 'Okay?' (ibid). Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) point out that the learner starts self-correction in the extract, but 'in the presence of the expert tutor' (p. 472) and collaborative dialogue, 'in which speakers engage jointly in problem solving and knowledge building' with the tutor (see Section 2.4.2 for detailed information on collaborative dialogue). That is, the collaborative dialogue with the expert is an important factor for the learner's intellectual development, which, according to their definition introduced earlier, can be explained in terms of ZPD.

Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) conclude that mediation plays an important role to promote productive error correction and effective language learning and further that learning is not achieved by an individual alone, but collaboratively with other advanced individuals (p. 480). In addition, they suggest that L2 development is not only affected by each learner's ability to 'generalize what had been appropriated', but also by what kind of assistance is offered by experts and how it is 'jointly negotiated between experts and

novices' (p. 480).

To sum up, in order to stretch the child/novice's ZPD, the help of the adult/expert is important, although various factors are intertwined with the development of the ZPD. Furthermore, the quality of help offered by the adult/expert needs to be considered in terms of two points, which are, 1) the adult/expert should check the minimum but appropriate level of guidance required by the novice to successfully perform (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 468) and 2) 'help should be contingent' and offered only when needed by the child/novice (ibid). In the present research, the ALTs and HRTs try to give help to the pupils, especially to those who are less advanced, during lessons. To examine how the teachers try to help the pupils in interactions would lead to finding a way of stretching learners' ZPD for successful language learning. In relation to the help of an adult/expert, the concept of scaffolding, which is closely connected to the notion of ZPD, will be discussed in the following section.

2.3 The Concept of Scaffolding[7]

As already touched on in discussing the concepts of mediation (2.1) and ZPD (2.2), scaffolding is utilized to stretch the zone of proximal development as a mediation. According to Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976), scaffolding is:

> a process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his [sic] unassisted efforts (p. 90)

They further go on to describe that scaffolding has the following six functions which are

[7] Part of the section will be published as a paper in *The Bulletin of the Graduate School of Education of Waseda University* (see Shino, in press).

1) ‘recruitment’, in which experts get children involved in tasks, 2) ‘reduction in degrees of freedom’, in which experts reduce the size of tasks to the levels, which children can achieve, 3) ‘direction maintenance’, in which experts keep children motivated in an objective of a task, 4) ‘marking critical features’, in which experts show children important points of tasks, 5) ‘frustration control’, in which experts control frustration of children while they (children) are dealing with tasks, and 6) ‘demonstration’, in which experts show children model solutions to tasks (Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976, p. 98). The concept of scaffolding proposed by Wood et al. (1976), is applied to various language learning situations including English in first and second language learning contexts, which I shall introduce in the following:

First of all, in the situation of first language learning, Bruner (1983) specifically defines scaffolding as:

> a process of ‘setting up’ the situation to make the child’s entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he [sic] becomes skillful enough to manage it (p. 60)

In the above definition, the notion of scaffolding is applied to children’s first language learning. However, van Lier (1988) considers that the process of scaffolding could also be applied to second or other foreign language learning. Furthermore, he states that there is a possibility that teachers can apply the concept of scaffolding between parents and children in L1 contexts to L2 classroom contexts (van Lier, 1988).

As to the actual application, Walqui and van Lier (2010) investigate scaffolding in adolescent ESL classroom contexts and point out that the interdependence between ‘rules’

(structure) and 'how the game is played' (process) is especially important when we observe how scaffolding is applied in the classroom (p. 24). According to them, scaffolding is not just to set up the structure of a task for helping learners or to design activities for making the learners' participation easier. The more important thing is to contingently react to new ideas or actions which learners introduce into classroom work. Only when unexpected things are introduced by learners, do teachers begin scaffolding. Thus, in order to achieve scaffolding successfully in a classroom context, teachers should not control learners, but support and encourage their autonomy (p. 25).

Walqui and van Lier (2010) also regard a supportive environment as one of the important features of pedagogical scaffolding. In such an environment, learners should feel 'safe and trusted' and realize that making mistakes is no problem (p. 35). When the environment is applied to English learners, they are able to trust teachers and peers even when they cannot yet fully deal with new tasks (p. 35). Thus, what Walqui and van Lier (2010) maintain is that learners' trust of others and a sense of security in the learning environment in which they do not have to be afraid of making mistakes in front of others would lead to successful language learning.

Walqui and van Lier (2010), referring to Wood et al. (1976) and van Lier (1996; 2004), further point out that in the classroom context there are mainly four types of situations where scaffolding occurs: 1) expert-novice interaction, 2) interaction between an advanced learner and a less advanced learner, 3) collective scaffolding among peers, and 4) interaction when a learner works alone, teaching and learning by him/herself (Walqui and van Lier, 2010, pp. 30-1). The following sections will discuss the literature on the first and third types of scaffolding, i.e. expert-novice scaffolding and collective scaffolding among peers, as they are relevant to the present research, being also observed

in the current research data and to be analyzed later (see 6.1.2).

2.3.1 Expert-novice Scaffolding

This section will illustrate expert-novice scaffolding which occurs between an expert such as an adult/a teacher and a novice such as a child/pupil. This type of scaffolding is frequently observed in English lessons in S Primary School, where the data of the current research was collected. Vine (2008) reveals teacher-student interactions between a pre-school child and his teacher during social studies classes in English as a first language context in New Zealand in order to examine how conversation analysis and sociocultural theory contribute to the analysis of the process of classroom interaction (p. 673). The study demonstrates that the teacher effectively scaffolds the pupil when she finds the learner's responses as 'insufficient' (p. 690). She utilizes the strategy of scaffolding in order to 1) reduce 'degrees of freedom' to limit the pupil's answer, 2) mark 'critical features', 3) focus on 'direction maintenance' to lead the pupil's answer to the goal of the task, and 4) forego her 'curriculum agenda' in order to accomplish the goal of the lesson (p. 690), using some of Wood et al.'s stating types of scaffolding (1976, see Section 2.3 above). These functions for scaffolding will be discussed in the current research data in Chapter 6.

Apart from the study by Vine (2008) where English is used as a first language, Hammond and Gibbons (2005) explore the contribution of scaffolding in an ESL educational setting. They state that scaffolding is 'specific help that provides the intellectual "push" to enable students to work at "the outer limits of the ZPD"' (p. 25). They identify six types of interactional scaffolding which happen at the micro level of scaffolding such as 1) 'linking to prior experience and pointing forward' by which

teachers provide learners information on ‘the broader purposes of the lesson or the broader conceptual frameworks of the curriculum’, 2) ‘recapping’ by which teachers sum up major points of interactions, 3) ‘appropriating’ by which learners take in teachers’ wording, ideas, and information, and vice versa, 4) ‘recasting’ by which teachers reshape learners’ wording into more appropriate ones without changing the meaning of what they have said, 5) ‘cued elicitation’ by which teachers give learners ‘strong verbal or gestural hints’ to elicit expected responses from learners in an IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) exchange, and 6) ‘increasing prospectiveness’ by which teachers give learners opportunities to ‘say more and reflect aloud on their thinking and understanding’ in an IRF exchange (Hammond & Gibbons, 2006, pp. 20-3). These strategies for scaffolding will also be discussed in the current data analysis (see Chapter 6 for the details).

Michell and Sharpe (2005) also examine ESL classrooms, focusing on ‘collective instructional scaffolding’. They divide scaffolding which occurs in classroom contexts into two types: 1) task-enabling support and 2) language-mediated co-regulatory activity, and further explain, referring to Appleby (2002), that the former can also be regarded as ‘assisted accomplishment’ (p. 32) of ‘new or difficult tasks’ (Appleby, 2002, explained in Michell & Sharpe, 2005, p. 32) by, for instance , managing task complexity for learners. In the latter, language-mediated co-regulatory activity, learners can develop ‘language and literacy skills’ through collaborative activities, utilizing language (see also Hammond & Gibbons, 2005 for the related term ‘interactional scaffolding’). In this language-mediated co-regulatory activity, Michell and Sharpe (2005) uncovered that a learner was assisted by a teacher by 1) repetitions, 2) affirmation (confirming a learner’s efforts), 3) modelling (of questions or answers), 4) reformulations, 5) recontextualizations (of learners’ language into more specific discourse), 6) recaps (see also Hammond & Gibbons,

2005), 7) clarification, 8) reinforcement/exemplification, 9) high demand questions, and 10) encouragement. Table 1 compares the strategies for expert-novice scaffolding proposed by Hammond and Gibbons (2005) and Michell and Sharpe (2005).

Table 1: Strategies for Expert-novice Scaffolding by Hammond and Gibbons (2005) and Michell and Sharpe (2005)

Scholars	**Strategies for expert-novice scaffolding**	**Common strategy**
Hammond and Gibbons (2005)	1) 'linking to prior experience and pointing forward' 2) 'recapping' 3) 'appropriating' 4) 'recasting'	**Recapping**
Michell and Sharpe (2005)	1) repetitions 2) affirmation 3) modelling 4) reformulations 5) recontextualizations 6) recaps 7) clarification 8) reinforcement/exemplification 9) high demand questions 10) encouragement	

As seen in Table 1, the common strategy for expert-novice scaffolding is recapping. When using these strategies for scaffolding, Michell and Sharpe (2005) further point out, the balance between challenge and support regarding tasks is essential. That is, learners are likely to be overwhelmed by difficulties of tasks when support is insufficient, whereas they are likely to be bored by the easiness of tasks when they are not sufficiently challenging (pp. 48-9). In order to keep learners' motivation and stretch their ZPD, therefore, experts should consider the right balance between challenge and support according to the level of learners in the use of scaffolding.

In summary, when comparing the three studies by Vine (2008), Hammond and Gibbons (2005), and Michell and Sharpe (2005), one common feature to be discovered is that experts (teachers) utilize various types of scaffolding as a strategy to support novices (pupils). On the other hand, one feature in the ESL classroom contexts observed both in Hammond and Gibbons (2005) and Michell and Sharpe (2005) is that ESL teachers tend to utilize scaffolding not only for task-enabling support but also for developing learners' English language skills such as reading skills in which ESL students interpret an English literature (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005), reporting skills in which the students resolve mathematical word problems in English, and interview skills in which the students ask and answer questions in English (Michell & Sharpe, 2005), compared with those in an English as L1 classroom (Vine, 2008). These studies are related to the present research in that the HRTs and the ALTs use scaffolding to help the pupils to achieve tasks (see Chapter 6 for more details). On the other hand, scaffolding also occurs among peers, which will be discussed in the next section.

2.3.2 Collective Scaffolding among Peers

Scaffolding occurring among peers is sometimes called ‘collective scaffolding’, in which, as stated in Donato (1994), ‘second language learners mutually construct a scaffold out of the discursive process of negotiating contexts of shared understanding’ (p. 42). He investigates three university students who learn French as L2 in America, taking from ‘a larger study on collaborative planning’ (Donato, 1988, 1994, p. 39), in order to reveal ‘how students co-construct language learning experiences in the classroom setting’ through an ‘open-ended classroom task’ for ten weeks (p. 39). The study also aims to investigate ‘how L2 development is brought about on the social plane’ (p. 39) in that the study also focuses on how learners’ language development is achieved through scaffolding among peers. In other words, even if an individual participant is a novice regarding a task, he/she can solve it together with peers (Donato, 1994, p. 46). Donato (1994) also finds that ‘the dual scaffolding’ has happened in the study. Namely, Speaker 1 asks Speakers 2 and 3 to help him, and through collectively solving a problem of Speaker 1, Speaker 3 ‘also appears to have benefited from the scaffolded help’ as ‘a peripheral participant’ (p. 52). Thus, when peer scaffolding happens, ‘learners can expand their own L2 knowledge and extend the linguistic development of their peers’ (Donato, 1994, p. 52). Additionally, it is also found that not only novice pupils but also advanced pupils can benefit through the action of teaching and explaining in collective scaffolding (e.g., Ohta, 2000; Umino, 2008). That is, all members in classrooms have a chance or possibility to learn a language through scaffolding each other.

On the other hand, Takahashi (1998) also finds that learners’ performance level gets higher when they assist each other (Takahashi, 1998, p. 392, see also Brooks, 1992; Donato, 1994; Ohta, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2000). She investigates scaffolding in Japanese as a foreign language classes in an American primary school over three years. She reveals

that the learners gradually develop and begin to assist each other as their language ability progresses year by year. That is, in the first year, the pupils utilized one-word utterances in which they repeated the teacher's utterances. However, in the second year, they acquired more difficult language and began to assist one another. Then, in the third year, assistance by the teacher was reduced and the pupils actively joined the lessons (Takahashi, 1998, p. 402).

Thus, the concept of scaffolding is used not only for first language acquisition but also for second and foreign language learning (e.g., van Lier, 1988). Moreover, scaffolding is not only given by an adult to a child but also takes place among pupils collectively during language learning (e.g., Donato, 1994). In the present research, scaffolding is also observed in the lessons of English among the ALTs, HRTs, and pupils. Therefore, the details of who scaffolds, when and why scaffolding occurs, and how to do it will be investigated and analyzed on the basis of the review in this chapter to shed light on what is actually happening in English lessons among the ALTs, the HRTs, and the pupils. But meanwhile, private speech and collaborative dialogue, which are also important notions in sociocultural theory for language learning and using, will be discussed in the category of languaging in the following section.

2.4 Languaging: Private Speech and Collaborative Dialogue

This section will illustrate 'languaging', which is subcategorized into private speech and collaborative dialogue by Swain et al. (2011) and is also sometimes observed in the English lessons in the current research data. According to Swain et al. (2011), languaging is:

> the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language. Languaging organizes and controls (mediates) the mental process during the performance of cognitively complex tasks. (p. 151)

On the basis of the concept of languaging, this section will introduce the two different forms of languaging, introduced above, namely, 1) 'private speech', which is 'talking with the self' and 2) 'collaborative dialogue', which is 'talking with others' (p. 34). The former is 'intrapersonal' and the latter is 'interpersonal' (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995). Swain et al. (2011) further explain that these two types of activities 'are connected theoretically and in practice' in that languaging is achieved through both activities (p. 34). It is also important to note that Swain et al. (2011) point out that private speech is also differently labelled such as 'self-directed speech' (Vygotsky & Luria, 1994), 'speech for the self' (Lantolf, 2000; Lee, 2008), 'self-talk' (Vocate, 1994), and 'intrapersonal communication' (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) by different scholars. The present research, however, uses the term 'private speech' hereafter as I will utilize the definition proposed by Swain et al. (2011), which will be explained in the following section.

2.4.1 Private Speech

Private speech is, as briefly introduced in the preceding section, defined by Swain st al. (2011) in a more detailed manner as:

> speech addressed to the self. It is intrapersonal communication that mediates thinking processes; that is, it is a cognitive tool that helps to structure and organize our own thinking (p. 36)

Swain et al. explain that Piaget regards private speech in children as 'merely signals the transition from individual to social speech and eventually disappears' (2011, p. 111). On the other hand, referring to Vygotsky (1978), they further explain that it is 'the initial stage in the child's formation of an autonomous mediated mind' and that 'it does not disappear at all, but goes *underground* as verbal thought, or inner speech' (Vygotsky, 1978, quoted in Swain et al. 2011, p. 111). That is, according to Swain et al. (2011), there are two different views in private speech. One is by Piaget, who states that private speech eventually disappears as a child grows. On the other hand, another view by Vygotsky (1978), which, Swain et al. (2011) subscribe to, states that the child's private speech goes underground as he/she grows and remains as inner speech. Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995), who also share the same view as Swain et al. (2011), referring to Vygotsky's notion of the relationship between private speech and inner speech, further explain that:

> Once private speech goes underground as inner speech, the child is then assumed to be a fully self-regulated individual to the extent that he or she no longer needs to rely on mediation from others to perform certain tasks.
>
> (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995, pp. 111-2, see also Berk & Diaz, 1992)

That is, a child's private speech eventually leads him/her to self-regulation through inner speech. In this way, private speech plays an important role in sociocultural theory originated in Vygotsky since language is regarded as 'the most crucial mediating artifact in the creation and functioning of higher mental processes' (Swain et al., 2011, p. 37).

As private speech is not directed to others but to the self (Swain et al., 2011, p. 37),

Swain et al. characterize it as follows: 1) ‘no eye contact is established’, 2) ‘voice is lowered often to a whisper and sometimes it is not audible at all’, and 3) ‘utterances may be short (often limited to a few words or less)’ (Swain, et al., 2011, p. 37, see also Ohta, 2001; Saville-Troike, 1988).

As to the function of private speech, Saville-Troike (1988), quoting Vygotsky (1978), states that it is ‘to organize, unify and integrate many disparate aspects of children’s behavior, such as perception, memory, and problem solving’ (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 126, quoted in Saville-Troike, 1988, p. 570). In addition, Saville-Troike (1988) also shows the functions of private speech are to direct and control action, influence perception, and facilitate memory, ‘and thus contribute positively to learning’ (p. 569).

According to Saville-Troike (1988), it is evident that ‘many children choose to practice in private before they attempt social performance’ (p. 572). In the study, private speech is seen during the silent period in various ways such as 1) ‘repetition of others’ utterances’, 2) ‘recall and practice’, 3) ‘creation of new linguistic forms’, 4) ‘paradigmatic substitution and syntagmatic expansion’, and 5) ‘rehearsal for overt social performance’ (p. 567).

Furthermore, Saville-Troike (1988) explains private speech is affected by various factors such as learners’ proficiency level, difficulty of tasks, how learners engage in society, and learners’ learning style. In addition, the study also refers to the children’s language choice during the silent period. In contrast to the situation of bilingual children where they are ‘consistently using only one language or the other for private speech, or using only the language which is dominant in the setting’ (p. 587), the participants of Saville-Troike’s study use both English and their native languages. That is, when children focus on language forms, they tend to use English, whereas, when they focus on objects

or events, they tend to use their first language (Saville-Troike, 1988, p. 588).

In contrast to private speech, which is 'speech addressed to the self' and 'intrapersonal communication that mediates thinking processes' (Swain et al., 2011, p. 36), the next section will discuss collaborative dialogue, which is collaboratively constructed by speakers.

2.4.2 Collaborative Dialogue

According to Swain (2000), collaborative dialogue is 'dialogue in which speakers engage jointly in problem solving and knowledge building' (Swain, 2000, quoted in Swain et al., 2011, p. 41). Swain et al. (2011) explain that collaborative dialogue is different from the concept of negotiation of meaning. Negotiation of meaning occurs when a learner anticipates difficulties in understanding messages (p. 41, see also Block, 2003; Pica, 1994). In contrast to the concept of negotiation of meaning, Swain et al. (2011) introduce the concept of 'growing the meaning' during collaborative dialogue, which is explained as follows:

> …the issue is NOT one of making a message more comprehensible, but rather of building, and building on, what each interlocutor has said to create new knowledge and solve problems. (p. 41)

That is, through collaborative dialogue, learners' '"saying" (process) and responding to "what is said" (an artifact/product)- ***is*** [becomes] language learning (knowledge building)', and languaging mediates this process (Swain et al, 2011, p. 41).

As an example of this, Swain et al. (2011) introduces Storch's work. Storch (2002)

investigates collaborative dialogue through pair work of 10 pairs of adult ESL students over a semester on various language tasks in a writing class (p. 123). Through the investigation, she finds four types of interaction patterns such as 1) collaborative, 2) expert/novice, 3) dominant/passive, and 4) dominant/dominant (p. 127). Storch (2002) reports that the first two patterns, i.e. collaborative and expert/novice, are especially helpful for second language learning. That is, in the collaborative pattern, alternative views are discussed between the pairs, and acceptable solutions for both participants tend to be found in a 'joint problem space' (Storch, 2002, p. 128). In the expert/novice pattern, an expert encourages the novice to join in the task (Storch, 2002, p. 129), so the novice comes to have opportunities to engage in language learning through achieving the task together with the expert. Furthermore, Storch (2002) reveals that in these two interaction patterns, scaffolding has taken place. That is, in the collaborative pattern, collective scaffolding (Donato, 1988) happens between the two participants, while in the expert/novice pattern, an expert contingently offers scaffolded assistance to the novice (p. 148).

On the other hand, Watanabe and Swain (2007) specifically investigate 'how proficiency differences and patterns of interaction affect L2 learning' by analyzing learners' pair interactions as well as their post-test scores in an adult ESL situation, where the participants' language proficiency level is different (p. 124). The study reveals that when the learners engage in 'collaborative patterns of interaction', they are 'more likely to achieve higher post-test scores regardless of their partner's proficiency level' (p. 121). That is, even when a pair's language proficiency is largely different, language learning can happen if participants are able to interact collaboratively (p. 138). This has great relevance to the current research in that the pupils in S Primary School are frequently

observed trying to learn collaboratively with other peers, although their language proficiency level is different from each other due to the fact that some pupils go to private English conversation schools or cram schools to study English after school.

Swain and Lapkin (2002) also examine the significance of collaborative dialogue in second language learning, using 'a reformulation[8] of a story written collaboratively in French' by two Grade 7 French immersion learners (p. 285). The study shows that the changes which the learners made over two weeks could be as a result of collaborative dialogue between them, and the two participants were able to achieve second language learning through collaborative dialogue since they can 'reflect on the language point in question and come to a deeper understanding of the proposed change' (p. 299). Thus, it is reported that collaborative dialogue promotes the participants language learning.

To sum up, collaborative dialogue is used not to make a message more comprehensible, but rather to build and create new knowledge, expand the meaning, and then solve problems through dialogue (Swain et al., 2011, p. 41). Both Storch (2002) and Watanabe and Swain (2007) have found, 'collaborative' and 'expert/novice' interaction patterns are effective for successful language learning through collaborative dialogue (Storch, 2002). In the present research, collaborative dialogue discussed above would not be seen directly since the data of interaction is mainly about whole class lessons. However, the pupils in the current research sometimes give their ideas or opinions collaboratively during lessons. I shall therefore also investigate these interactions from the perspective of collaborative dialogue in the data analysis.

[8] Swain and Lapkin (2002) use Cohen's (1983) definition of reformulation, which is 'a technique consisting of "having a native writer of the target language rewrite the learner's essay, preserving all the learner's ideas"' (Cohen, 1983, p. 4, quoted in Swain and Lapkin, 2002: 287). In addition, Swain and Lapkin (2002) maintain that the effectiveness of reformulation depends on 'learner variables such as the proficiency of the participants, and features of its implementation such as the instructions participants receive, and the opportunity for peer discussion (or lack of such opportunity)' (p. 288).

Thus, in this chapter, sociocultural theory has been investigated in terms of the concept of 1) mediation, 2) ZPD, 3) scaffolding, and 4) languaging (private speech and collaborative dialogue), based on the results from the research on second or foreign language learning. Through the investigation, it has been found that social interaction is essential for children's language development in order to connect the individual and the world.

In the present research, not only the pupils but also the teachers, in a sense, are learners of foreign languages. That is, the HRTs, who tend to have little confidence with English, are both learners and simultaneously users of English, and the ALTs, who tend to have little confidence with Japanese, are simultaneously learners and users of Japanese. Therefore, to investigate how these three parties (the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils) learn and use their foreign languages collectively and as lingua francas in the classroom based on the concept of sociocultural theory would lead to revealing a new style of language learning and teaching, and to re-acknowledging the importance of the connection between individuals and social interaction in the process. Especially, one of the phenomena reviewed in this chapter, scaffolding, will be discussed in Chapter 6 (data analysis from a classroom discourse analytic approach) to reveal how teachers and pupils use scaffolding in their interactions in a detailed manner, for which DA is effective. Therefore, the next chapter will review literature on classroom DA, to which we will now turn.

Chapter 3

Literature Review:

Classroom Discourse Analysis of Language Learning Classrooms

3.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, sociocultural theory and language learning was reviewed in order to investigate how sociocultural aspects contribute to individual language learning. In this chapter, I will narrow the focus down to language learning at classroom level and review the literature in the field. This is because classroom discourse data will be later analyzed in Chapter 6 to reveal what is actually happening in English lessons in a Japanese primary school in a more detailed manner, using a DA approach to consider how teachers can conduct lessons collaboratively and effectively, and consider what kind of ways are helpful especially for HRTs who do not have confidence to use English in English lessons. In so doing, I will first define what is meant by classroom discourse analysis (hereafter, classroom DA) (3.1), followed by models of classroom DA (3.2). After that, interaction patterns in the classroom, including teachers' questioning patterns (3.3), traditional interaction patterns in the classroom (3.4), and non-traditional interaction patterns (3.5), will be discussed. Section 3.6 will examine the use of discourse markers, while L1 use and translation by non-native English teachers in foreign language classrooms will be illustrated in 3.7. Section 3.8 will then analyze contextualization cues and cultural assumption as sometimes miscommunication occurs among the HRTs, the ALT, and the pupils due to different use of contextualization cues or cultural assumption (see Chapter 6 for the detailed analysis). Finally, Section 3.9 will explain face saving/threatening in class. In the following, first, the definition of classroom DA will be briefly discussed.

3.1 The Definition of Classroom Discourse Analysis

In the current research, which examines primary English classrooms, classroom DA, which is pioneered by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), is especially relevant. According to Sinclair and Coulthard, classroom DA examines 'the linguistic aspects of teacher/pupil interaction', that is, an 'investigation of language function and the organization of linguistic units above the rank of the clause' in classrooms (p. 1). The current research in particular investigates the former, language functions used by the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils in primary English lessons.

On the other hand, Hall and Verplaetse (2000) define classroom discourse in a broader manner as 'the oral interaction that occurs between teachers and students and among students' (p. 9). They regard the role of classroom discourse as 'especially consequential to the creation of learning environments and ultimately to the shaping of individual learners' development' (ibid). Mercer (1999), also states the analysis of classroom discourse makes 'a practical contribution to education by clarifying some of the ways that teachers and children use talk in the pursuit of learning' (p. 318). Moreover, Cazden (2001) defines classroom DA as classroom 'communication system' (p. 2). Thus, all of these scholars state that classroom DA is a study of classroom interactions, especially focusing on language functions and communication system in classroom contexts. Among these, I will use the definition of classroom DA proposed by Hall and Verplaetse (2000) as the current research investigates interactions not only between teachers and pupils but also among pupils.

In the present research, a classroom discourse of English lessons in a Japanese primary school will be analyzed in order to obtain, to borrow Mercer (1999)'s terms, 'a

clearer picture of what is said and done' (p. 318) in classrooms and consider more effective ways of English team teaching between HRTs and ALTs for pupils. In so doing, a classroom discourse analytic model proposed by Rymes (2009), which is also closely related to the current research in that it considers the social context, will also be referred to, which I review in the following section.

3.2 Rymes's (2009) Classroom Discourse Analysis Model

Rymes (2009) defines classroom DA as 'looking at language in use in a classroom context…to understand how context and talk are influencing each other' (p. 9). She investigates classroom discourse in terms of three dimensions: 1) 'social context', 2) 'interactional context', and 3) 'individual agency' (p. 20).

First, Rymes defines 'social dimension' as comprising 'social demographics like class, race, and gender and speaker characteristics that can be accounted for by circumstances outside the immediacy of a single interaction' (p. 55). That is, social dimension is an invisible or indirect aspect in classroom talk (p. 55), we therefore need to consider it by examining the environment pupils and teachers are placed inside and outside classrooms in order to reflect this aspect in the analysis of their interactions.

The second dimension is an 'interactional dimension'. In examining the relationship between discourse and social contexts, Rymes (2009) finds the interactional context created by speakers is a crucial aspect of classroom discourse. She explicates that interactional contexts include, for example, 'storytelling, or problem solving that can be witnessed in face-to-face classroom talk' (p. 55). Furthermore, compared to a social context, an interactional context has a visible or direct aspect in classroom talk as we can collect, see, and investigate interaction data in classrooms, for example, by recording,

transcribing, and analyzing it if we are allowed to do so (Rymes, 2009, pp. 55-6).

The third dimension is 'individual agency', which, according to Rymes (2009), means 'personal control' to 'produce desired outcomes or contribute to our own personal goals' while teaching and learning in the classroom (p. 40). Figure 1, which is illustrated by the current author based on Rymes (2009, p. 46), shows the relationship between the social context, the interactional context, and the individual agency in forming classroom discourse.

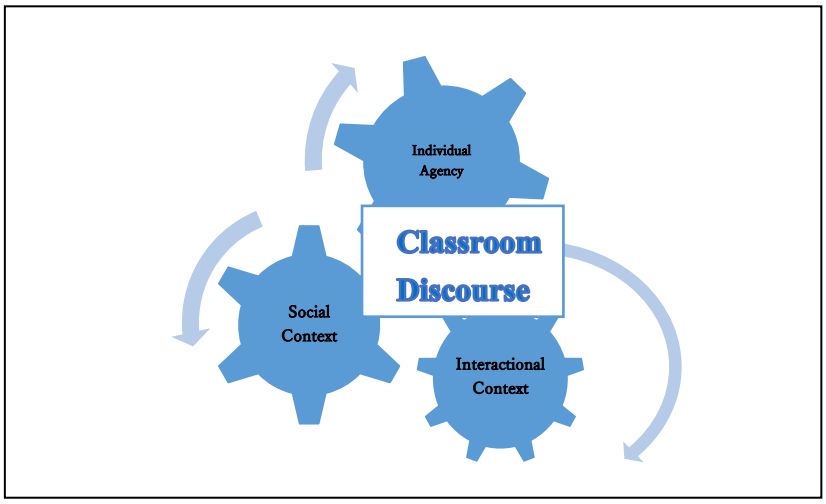


Figure 1: Relationship between the social context, the interactional context, and the individual agency based on Rymes (2009)

According to Rymes (2009), each element is essential for creating classroom discourse. Rymes (2009) further states that various elements such as social and interactional contexts are layered in classroom discourse and that they affect individual agency (personal control) (p. 62). We need therefore to examine classroom interaction, paying attention to these 'multiple voices involved' in classroom discourse (p. 55).

I will adopt Rymes's (2009) classroom DA model to my data analysis as the model

focuses on investigating social context behind a classroom situation as well as classroom interaction itself. In the present research, the EFL context in Japanese primary schools is surely different from ESL (English as a second language) or EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts in other Asian countries such as Korea and China (e.g., Butler, 2004, 2009, 2011, 2014, 2015) in that English was originally introduced to the Japanese primary level not as a formal subject but as an English activity which aims to let pupils become familiar with English (MEXT, 2010), although the situation is gradually changing, and English will become a formal subject in 2020 in Japanese primary schools (MEXT, 2014). Furthermore, how individual differences or differences of the three parties, namely, the ALTs, HRTs, and pupils affect classroom discourse among them as individual agency needs to be examined. Thus, it is meaningful to analyze the data based on the model which takes into consideration the above stated three dimensions: 'social context', 'interactional context', and 'individual agency' (Rymes, 2009, p. 20). Bearing in mind the definitions of the model of classroom DA discussed in this section, in the following sections, I will examine some patterns of classroom interactions, starting with teachers' questioning in 3.3.

3.3 Teachers' Questioning

Two specific types of questions asked by teachers are identified by Rymes (2009, p. 111): known-answer questions and open-ended questions (Rymes, 2009, p. 111). The former, Rymes (2009) explains, also called 'test questions, display questions, or convergent questions' (p. 111), are utilized 'to prompt students to display information already known to the asker' and have 'one or only one right answer- usually one the teacher has in mind' (p. 112). Postman and Weingartner (1969), Rymes (2009) explains, critique known-

answer questions as ‘guess what I’m thinking’ questions because learners tend to just pursue what teachers expect them to answer without deeply thinking about questions in these types of questions (Postman & Weingartner, 1969, pp. 30-1, discussed in Rymes, 2009, p. 112).

On the other hand, the latter, open-ended questions, also called ‘genuine, authentic, information-seeking, or divergent questions’, according to Rymes, do not require ‘one right answer, and the asker may not have any predetermined answer in mind’ (Rymes, 2009, p. 112). Rymes (2009), referring also to Nystrand (1997), maintains that open-ended questions make more opportunities to have a discussion between teachers and students compared to known-answer questions.

Thus, different types of questioning are often used by teachers in the classroom for various purposes. In the present research as well, different types of questioning and answering between teachers and pupils are also often observed in classroom interaction. In this situation, sometimes misunderstandings in relation to questioning also happen. I will therefore investigate various cases of questioning in classroom interaction and multiple functions of questions in the data. Apart from the discussion on the use of different types of questioning by teachers, ‘traditional’ (Cazden, 2001) classroom interaction patterns, that is, ‘IRF’ interaction model (Sinclair & Coulthard 1975; Sinclair and Brazil, 1982) and ‘non-traditional’ (Cazden, 2001) classroom interaction patterns such as ‘dialogue’ (Lefstein & Snell, 2011), ‘grand conversations’ (Rymes, 2009), and ‘discussion’ (Cazden, 2001), will be explored in the following sections (3.4 and 3.5).

3.4 Traditional Interaction Patterns in the Classroom: Sinclair and Coulthard’s (1975) and Sinclair and Brazil’s (1982) Descriptive Model (IRF)

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) put forward the pattern of IRF and try to construct a descriptive system in order to reveal 'the function of utterances' and 'the structure of discourse' in the classroom (p. 4). The system makes five categories of the level of discourse[9]: lesson, transaction, exchange, move, and act (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, pp. 20-4).

Sinclair and Coulthard subdivide one of these categories, 'exchange', into two: 'boundary' and 'teaching' exchanges (1975, p. 26). The former shows transition in the lesson, using discourse markers such as *well*, *OK*, *now*, *good*, *right*, and *alright* (p. 40). Whereas, the latter shows a typical pattern of exchange in classrooms, consisting of an initiation by a teacher, followed by a response from a pupil, further followed by a feedback from the teacher to the pupil's response (p. 21), i.e., IRF. The study of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) is further discussed and developed by Sinclair and Brazil (1982).

Sinclair and Brazil (1982) investigate classroom interaction from the perspective of teacher talk. On the basis of the IRF pattern pointed out by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Sinclair and Brazil (1982) state that in teacher talk, initiation by a teacher is the main part of education in order to guide and control his/her class by 'asking questions, giving instructions, and giving information' (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982, p. 36). They also explain that pupils also use initiation by asking questions and volunteering information, and that the frequency of pupils' initiation depends on how far teachers allow them to initiate talk (p. 36). They have found that there are mainly three types of responding in the pupils' response part such as 1) answer, 2) 'a diversion e.g. *Pardon, Miss?*', and 3) anything else (p. 36). After initiation and response, Sinclair and Brazil (1982) further elaborate, feedback categorized as follow-up comes to tell 1) 'the effects of the previous utterance',

[9] In the descriptive system, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) recognize 'the level of discourse as lying between the level of *grammar* and *non-linguistic organization*' (p. 24).

2) whether it is successful or not, 3) ‘warmth of its reception’, and so on (p. 44). Sinclair and Brazil (1982) maintain that IRF structure is regular and characteristic in teacher talk (p. 49), although exchanges do not always include three elements (initiation, response, and feedback).

Sinclair and Brazil (1982) further point out that teachers tend to have more free choices on what they say than others and more power to control what interlocutors (pupils) say, although it has to be borne in mind classroom interaction created by teachers and pupils is affected by various factors such as ‘age, sex, subject matter, time of day, day in week’ etc. (pp. 2-4). Accordingly, Sinclair and Brazil (1982) state that teachers have dominance in the classroom, and pupils’ opportunities to participate in language classes are restricted (p. 4). This is a typical and ‘traditional’ teacher-centered classroom, where the major part of talking is taken by teachers, and the amount of talking time by pupils is limited (see Sinclair & Brazil, 1982). The teacher-centered classroom, however, changes in line with the introduction of more communicative teaching (e.g., Littlewood, 1981; Wei, Lin, & Litton, 2018). In this context, ‘traditional’ interaction patterns might not be able to describe the changing patterns of teaching/learning in the classroom effectively. In the following section, another pattern listed by Cazden (2001), that is, non-traditional interaction patterns, which attempt to avoid one-way interactions of traditional interaction patterns as stated in this section, will be discussed.

3.5 Non-traditional Interaction Patterns in the Classroom

This section explores three types of non-traditional interaction patterns, in which the amount of pupils’ talk is reported to increase (e.g., Lefstein & Snell, 2011): ‘dialogue’ (Lefstein & Snell, 2011), ‘grand conversations’ (Rymes, 2009), and ‘discussion’ (Cazden,

2001). As to the first one, ‘dialogue’, Lefstein and Snell (2011) propose that the dominant pattern of teacher talk such as an IRF way of interactions, which is ‘problematically monologic’ from learners’ perspective, ‘should be replaced with more dialogic models’ (p. 165). They conducted a dialogic model in a literacy lesson context for the 6th graders in which a teacher and students read and discuss ‘C.S. Lewis’ *The Lion, The Witch and the Wardrobe*’ (Lefstein & Snell, 2011, pp. 171-3). In this model, ‘participants freely exchange ideas (rather than all communication being mediated by the teacher), discursive rights and responsibilities are more evenly distributed, and all voices are given an opportunity to be heard’ (p. 171). The study found that in the dialogue model, each pupil contributes to creating classroom discourse and builds his/her identity while interacting with others. Focusing on each pupil’s talk and encouraging him/her to talk more and more have lead to increasing the amount of pupils’ talk during lessons.

The second non-traditional interaction pattern introduced, this time, by Rymes (2009) is ‘grand conversations’, originally proposed by Peterson and Eeds (1990) in literature discussions. In grand conversations, there are two rules as follows: 1) [r]espect the interpretations of others and 2) [n]ever enter a discussion with a plot in mind (Peterson & Eeds, 1990, quoted in Rymes, 2009, p. 124). To conduct literature discussions with these rules in mind, both teachers and students have to listen to each participant’s comments carefully and make conversation cooperatively with each other. On the basis of her own trial, Rymes (2009) states that grand conversational style can be used ‘at all age levels’ and applied to ‘all subject areas’ (pp. 124-5). However, this model by Rymes (2009) was conducted in an ESL context, where English is taught and learnt as a second language. We therefore need to be cautious when applying it to an EFL context where English is taught and learnt as a foreign language in which the present research is located.

The third type of non-traditional classroom interaction pattern is discussion observed in Cazden (2001). On the basis of her practice, Cazden describes relationship between teachers and students in non-traditional classroom interactions as follows:

> In non-traditional classrooms… each student becomes a significant part of the official learning environment for all the others, and teachers depend on students' contributions for other students' learning, both in discussions and for the diffusion of individual expertise through the class. (p. 131)

In this situation, classroom discourse is co-production between teachers and students and among students. Therefore, not only teachers but also each student plays an important role to create lessons. However, Cazden (2001) often points out teachers also feel the dilemma in this context. That is, if other teachers do not know non-traditional teaching styles such as discussion in mathematics, there is a possibility that they judge a pupil's answer only by whether it is conventionally correct or not, and the pupil's 'own thinking and speaking about math' would not be considered as valuable (p. 54). Therefore, Cazden further states that '*schoolwide* consensus on the philosophy and practice of curriculum and teaching' regarding non-traditional classroom interaction style would be needed in order to secure the status of the non-traditional teaching style (p. 56).

The classroom interaction style of the current research site does not always follow traditional classroom interaction patterns such as IRF. Therefore, on the basis of the review of the literature on traditional/non-traditional interaction patterns in classrooms as discussed in this section, I will investigate how language teaching/learning in a Japanese primary school context is structured and what is actually happening in classroom in

Chapter 6. Before analyzing actual interactions, however, discourse markers, which are also frequently observed in classroom interactions in the present research, will be examined in the following section.

3.6 The Use of Discourse Markers

Discourse markers are frequently utilized in the current research (See Chapter 6 for the detailed analysis of the data), therefore, in this section, I will review the literature on them. The section consists of two parts. Section 3.6.1 introduces definition of discourse markers, followed by Section 3.6.2, which explains the use of discourse markers in classroom settings.

3.6.1 Definition of Discourse Markers

Schiffrin (1987) defines discourse markers as 'sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk' (p. 31). According to her, discourse markers are utilized to provide 'contextual coordinates for utterances' (p. 31). That is, they connect what is said and what has been already said by speakers during interactions. On the other hand, Jucker and Ziv (1998) regard discourse markers as devices for structuring texts which show openings or closings, or transitions between discourse units. Furthermore, both Schiffrin (1987) and Jucker and Ziv (1998) also regard discourse markers as indicators of speakers and hearers' attitudes. That is, discourse markers could also show the intention of speakers and hearers at a pragmatic level apart from the role of connecting utterances at a text level (Jucker & Ziv, 1998; Schiffrin, 1987). Based on the definition and the roles of discourse markers as stated above, the following section investigates them in classroom settings in general.

3.6.2 Discourse Markers in Classrooms Settings

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), discourse markers belong to the level of 'acts' in the rank scale which is the smallest and 'lowest rank of discourse' in classroom discourse (p. 27). Furthermore, they introduce the idea that discourse markers such as '*well*, *O.K.*, *now*, *good*, *right*, *alright*' are utilized for marking boundaries in discourse when they work 'as the head of a framing move' with a falling intonation or silent stress[10] (p. 40).

Walsh (2013) also points out that teachers use discourse markers such as '*right*, *ok*, *now*, *so*, *alright*' in order to signal changes in interactions in classrooms and that these markers are helpful to 'assist comprehension and help learners "navigate the discourse"' (p. 32). He further suggests that discourse markers such as '*ok, so, now, right*… help learners to follow what is being said and give direction to the discourse' (Walsh, 2013, p. 75) while transition markers *all right*, *okay*, and *so* indicate 'the end of one part of the lesson' and tell learners that the lesson will move on to the new activity (p. 76). These functions of discourse markers proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Walsh (2013) are summarized in Table 2:

Table 2: Functions of discourse markers by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Walsh (2013)

Researchers	Functions	OK	now	right	alright	so	well	good
Sinclair and Coulthard	Marking boundaries	✔	✔	✔	✔		✔	✔

[10] According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), silent stress is 'realized by a pause, of the duration of one or more beats, following a marker. It functions to highlight the marker when it is serving as the head of a boundary exchange indicating a transaction boundary' (p. 43).

(1975)								
Walsh (2013)	Marking transitions	✔			✔	✔		
	Signaling changes in interactions	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔		
	Giving directions in interactions	✔	✔	✔		✔		

Furthermore, O'Riordan and Chambers (2006) investigate discourse markers used in classrooms where French and Spanish are taught. Although the discourse markers shown in the study are uttered in French or Spanish by the teachers, they are effectively utilized to achieve various purposes, which are also relevant to the data of the current research. The functions of their discourse markers are categorized into five groups: 1) introducing a new topic or activity, 2) motivating or encouraging pupils, 3) calling the pupils' attention, 4) recapping or clarifying what has been said, and 5) rephrasing what has been said. These will also be referred to when analyzing the current research data. In the following section, discourse markers *OK* and *alright* will specifically be discussed as they also play important roles in the current research data.

Discourse Marker *OK* and *Alright*

Discourse markers *OK* and *Alright* are frequently observed being utilized by the ALTs in the current research. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), *OK* and *alright* show

marking boundaries. Walsh (2013) also points out that *OK* and *alright* signal the end of one part of the lesson and alert learners the fact that the lesson has moved on. Liao (2009) further explicates that *OK* is utilized for 1) initiating movements toward closure, 2) checking learners' comprehension, 3) asking for confirmation, and 4) marking transitions to next utterances (pp. 1314-22). Fraser (2009) also confirms that *OK* and *alright* are categorized as attention markers[11] in order to signal topic orientation and tell hearer that 'an end point has been reached' (p. 897). Thus, the shared feature of discourse markers *OK* and *Alright*, pointed out by all these scholars, is to mark boundaries.

Thus, discourse markers in classrooms are used for various purposes. On the basis of the above introduced functions, I have divided them into two types: external and internal. The former is used to mark boundaries/transition, signal changes, give directions, call pupils' attention, introduce a new topic, and recap/clarify/rephrase what has been said, while the latter is used to motivate and encourage pupils. These are summarized in a table as follows.

Table 3: Functions of Discourse Markers

Discourse Markers	**Functions**
External	・Marking boundaries/transition ・Signaling changes ・Giving directions ・Calling pupils' attention ・Introducing a new topic

[11] Although Fraser (2009) utilizes the term 'attention marker', referring functions of discourse markers *OK* and *alright*, the present research will regard it as discourse marker hereinafter.

	・Recapping/clarifying/rephrasing what has been said
Internal	・Motivating pupils ・Encouraging pupils

(based on Fraser, 2009, Liao, 2009, O'Riordan & Chambers, 2006, Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, and Walsh, 2013)

On the basis of these categories of the functions of discourse markers, later in Chapter 6, I will examine how these discourse markers are utilized by the ALTs, the HRTs and the pupils during English lessons in the classroom in S Primary School. However, before that, L1 use and translation in foreign language classrooms will be discussed in the following section as the use of L1 is also frequently observed in the current data.

3.7 L1 Use and Translation in Foreign Language Classrooms[12]

It is often said that foreign language learners and teachers are likely to have anxiety when using their target languages (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Machida, 2015; 2016). On the other hand, the participants in the present research (the ALTs, HRTs, and pupils) are often observed using their own and the interactant's (the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils') L1, that is, their target/foreign languages, positively in class. This section therefore will review how learners' L1 use and translation by teachers and learners have been dealt with in foreign language classrooms, and what kinds of functions they have in foreign language teaching and learning.

The issue of using learners' L1 and translation by teachers and learners in language

[12] Part of the section was published as a paper in *The Bulletin of the Graduate School of Education of Waseda University* (see Shino, 2019).

classrooms has been controversial in the ELT field (see Cook, 2010). Cook (2010) explains that in the early nineteenth century, the Grammar Translation Method, which uses learners' L1, was popular mainly in Europe. However, Cook (2010) continues, through the Reform Movement in the latter half of the nineteenth century, this method was replaced by the Direct Method, which utilizes 'neither translation nor first-language explanation' (Cook, 2010, p. 7, see also House, 2009). Since then, Widdowson (2003) points out, new languages have tended to be taught and learnt without utilizing learners' L1 for a long period mainly in Western TESOL contexts, affected by the business of promoting 'monolingual teaching' (Widdowson, 2003, p. 149, see also Cook, 2010; Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

However, the practice has been questioned and there are movements which have re-evaluated to teach new languages by the use of learners' own languages (e.g., Hall & Cook, 2012). House (2009) points out that 'it is natural for people encountering a foreign language to relate it to the language they already know' (p.59). Moreover, Widdowson (2003), referring to language contact, mentions that 'if the contact occurs in individuals, there must be some compounding of the two languages in their minds' (p.51, see also Cook, 2010). Translation could be said to happen inside each person's minds anyway, even if using learners' own languages is discouraged in second or foreign language classrooms.

Thus, although some researchers are against using learners' L1 and translation in second/foreign language classrooms particularly in the past (e.g., Chambers, 1991; Krashen & Terrell, 1983), others are for using learners' L1 and translation, albeit, to some degree. (e.g., Atkinson, 1987; Bolitho, 1983; Duff, 1989; Edge, 1986; Harbord, 1992; Riley, 1985; Thomas, 1984).

The issue of learners' L1 use and translation is also argued in ELT in Japanese educational contexts (see, for example, Butler, 2014), including the issue of the Grammar Translation Method (Cook, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2001), which is still used in EFL contexts in Japan, although it is controversial (see, for example, Butler, 2007; Butler & Iino, 2005; Takanashi & Takahashi, 1990).

On the other hand, according to Cook (2010), one of positive aspects of the Grammar Translation Method is that 'it provides a safe, structured route for both students and teachers…particularly well suited to those teachers who are themselves not wholly proficient in the language they are teaching' (p. 14). In the current situation, most of HRTs in primary schools in Japan do not have a certificate for teaching English and have little confidence in teaching English. Therefore, it could be useful to utilize translation in English lessons to some extent. However, we need to pay attention to the fact that translation in English lessons in Japanese primary schools is mainly used for translating ALTs' explanations or instructions in English to do language activities but not English grammar as currently grammar is not officially targeted in language activities in primary school (MEXT, 2008, p. 13). Based on a discussion of L1 use and translation in ELT contexts and the specific situation in primary English lessons in Japan, the next section will examine the functions of L1 use and translation by non-native English teachers in foreign language learning classes.

3.7.1 Functions of L1 Use and Translation by non-native English Teachers (NNETs) in Foreign Language Classes

Various studies explore functions of learners' L1 use by non-native English teachers in foreign language learning lessons. Liu, Ahn, Baek, and Han (2004), for instance, examine

code-switching practices in English lessons in 13 South Korean secondary schools in which English teachers are requested by the government to conduct lessons in English as much as they can. In this context, they explain that teachers utilize learners' L1, first, for explaining 'difficult vocabulary and grammar', second, for giving 'background information', third, for overcoming 'communication difficulties' in expressing what teachers want to say in the target language, fourth, for saving time, fifth, for highlighting essential information, and finally, for managing students' behavior (Liu et al., 2004, p. 616). Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2005), although in a German as a foreign language teaching context in an English-speaking situation, also examine the use of L1 (English) and the target language (German) by teachers and students in language learning classes in a university in Canada and show that teachers (L1 English speakers) utilize learners' L1 in order to promote students' clear understanding. Whereas, Nagy and Robertson (2009), who investigate English lessons in a Hungarian primary school, explain that teachers utilize learners' L1 to confirm that the whole class understand what they said. Nagy and Robertson conclude that when there is a departure from routine activities, teachers are likely to utilize learners' L1 spontaneously and unexpectedly. On the other hand, the target language is likely to be used ritually and predictably in a routine manner during classes (p. 79).

In team teaching contexts as well, some researchers investigate the importance of the use of learners' L1 in foreign language classrooms. For example, Aline and Hosoda (2006) scrutinize interactions among ALTs, HRTs, and pupils in six team-taught lessons at five public primary schools in Japan, especially concentrating on 'HRTs' participation patterns' in their interactions (p. 5). They report that HRTs join the lesson as a translator, utilizing pupils' L1. When HRTs participate in the lessons as a translator, they use

translation where necessary to support pupils' understanding and ALTs' organizing activities in a 'facilitating role' (p. 12).

Thus, it has been found that teachers often use learners' L1 in foreign language classrooms to 1) enhance learners' clear understanding (Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005; Liu, et al., 2004), 2) save time (Liu, et al., 2004), 3) manage learners' behavior (Liu, et al., 2004), 4) make sure that learners understand what teachers have said (Nagy & Robertson, 2009), and 5) conduct activities smoothly (Aline & Hosoda, 2006). The next section will focus on the use of learners' L1 by native English teachers (NETs) in team-taught language classes.

3.7.2 The Use of Learners' L1 by Native English Teachers (NETs) in Team Teaching Contexts

In terms of using pupils' L1 by native English teachers, who are not native speakers of the pupils' L1, Carless (2006) investigates good practices in team teaching based on firstly, interviews with native English teachers (NETs) and non-native English teachers (non-NETs) and secondly, observations of their lessons, examining team teaching programs such as the Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (JET) in Japan, the English Program in Korea (EPIC), and the Primary NET scheme in Hong Kong (PNET). According to one of the NETs working in Japan in the study, to familiarize pupils' and HRTs' L1 is essential for NETs to build a good relationship between them 'inside and outside the classroom' and conduct successful team-taught lessons (p. 348). It is also reported in the study that NETs would be isolated from the community of HRTs and pupils if they cannot manage the local language. This would result in communication breakdown between them (Carless, 2006, p. 346, see also, Azkarai & Agirre, 2015; Shino, 2018). Thus, adjusting to

the local language and culture is regarded crucial for NETs. Getting used to the local language could be hard for them, however, HRTs can back them up regarding NETs' lack of knowledge on the pupils' and HRTs' L1. This is because the HRT shares the same local language and culture as the pupils (see also Tang, 1997).

Just like Carless (2006), Luk and Lin (2007) also explore NETs working in Hong Kong and show that it could be a disadvantage for NETs if they cannot deal with learners' L1. They, referring to Guthrie (1984), mention that if monolingual NETs cannot utilize students' L1, they are not likely to be able to manage students' behavior during classes (Luk & Lin, 2007, p. 26). Luk and Lin also discuss, further referring to Guthrie (1984), that if monolingual NETs lack knowledge on learners' L1, to efficiently recognize how well learners have understood the lessons is hard for them (p. 26). Luk and Lin (2007) thus suggest that knowledge of learners' L1 is a 'valuable resource' to teachers (p. 26). Luk (2005) further states that 'the target language nativeness of the teacher', that is, NETs in the case of ELT, does not necessarily ensure that learners develop communicative competence (p. 264).

Accordingly, although MEXT expects NETs (ALTs) to use learners' TL (English) as much as possible during English lessons at primary level in order to keep an English environment (MEXT, 2002), the use of learners' L1 is found to be useful where appropriate in order to achieve learners' clear understanding as reviewed above (Carless, 2006; Luk & Lin, 2007). Considering the fact that NETs might also find useful and effective to use the local teachers' and students' L1 from time to time where relevant in order to achieve a good relationship and conduct successful team teaching with them and that the literature available also shows that local teachers and students use their L1 for various purposes in English classrooms, the use of learners'L1 could play an important

role in language teaching/learning lessons. Thus, the issue will be examined in relation to the current research data in Chapter 6. Before that, the next section will discuss the use of contextualization cues and cultural assumption by teachers (and learners), which could also affect understanding and interpretation of what is said and meant in classroom interactions, as communication breakdowns are also observed in the current research data.

3.8 Contextualization Cues and Cultural Assumption

According to Rymes (2009), discourse analysis is helpful to develop 'our cultural assumptions into something concrete to talk about' (p. 154). That is, by doing classroom discourse analysis, our cultural assumptions would become clear. If there is a problem due to difference in cultural assumptions, we could examine what is happening in the classroom interaction and what the problem is by conducting detailed discourse analysis of interactions, which could lead to some ways of solving the problem.

According to Gumperz (1982), contextualization cues include 'any feature of linguistic form that contributes to the signaling of contextual presuppositions' (p. 131). Dorr-Bremme (1990), on the basis of Gumperz (1982), further explains that contextualization cues are signaled by both verbal and nonverbal means such as 1) '[s]hifts in voice tone and pitch, speech tempo and rhythm', 2) 'the selection of, and switches in, linguistic code, dialect, and speech style', and 3) '[c]hanges in participants' postural configurations… gaze directions, facial expressions, and interpersonal distancing' (pp. 381-2). Furthermore, Gumperz (1982) points out that 'the meanings of contextualization cues are implicit' and '[t]hey are not usually talked about out of context' (p. 131). This makes it difficult for those who do not share the same cultural background to understand what is meant by contextualization cues.

In classrooms, it is reported that students try to read teachers' contextualization cues and vice versa (Erickson, 1996; Johnson, 2005). Therefore, analyzing to what extent teachers and students use contextualization cues and how they interpret these signals become important to understand how communication is achieved as contextualization cues 'are not always interpreted in the same ways by all students or all people' (Rymes, 2009, p. 141) because of their 'implicit' nature and sometimes misunderstandings occur while negotiating.

In relation to misunderstandings of the interpretation of contextualization cues as stated above, Gumperz (1982) points out that when a misunderstanding occurs, 'it tends to be seen in attitudinal terms' (p. 132). That is, a speaker, who 'does not react to a cue or is unaware of its function', is seen to be 'unfriendly', 'impatient', 'rude', 'uncooperative', or 'fail to understand' (p. 132). Gumperz (1982) further states that this kind of miscommunication is conceived as 'a social faux pas' (p. 132).

In the present research, miscommunication sometimes happens due to different cultural assumptions among the ALTs, the HRTs and the pupils during lessons. These cultural differences can also be referred to as cross-cultural issues. Allwright (1999) mentions that little is known about 'cross-cultural differences in language classroom discourse' (p. 321). Therefore, to investigate issues of cultural assumptions among the ALTs, the HRTs, and the pupils would be useful in order to deepen our understanding in what is happening in primary school English lessons in Japan, which is important to find a way to preempt misunderstandings which originate in cultural assumptions in classrooms. In relation to cultural assumption and miscommunication, the next section will discuss how teachers and learners try to save each other's face in order not to threaten other parties' face.

3.9 Classroom Discourse and the Use of Face Saving/ Threatening Strategy

Through the investigation of classroom discourse in primary school English lessons in the current research, the use of face-saving act has been observed among the ALTs, the HRTs, and the pupils. The phenomenon will be examined later, but before that, I will illustrate the use of face saving/threating strategy in this section, starting with Goffman's notion of face. According to Goffman (1967), face is 'the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself (sic)' (p. 5). Brown and Levinson (1987), based on Goffman's notion of face, set up an assumption that 'competent adult members of a society' have this face, which consists of two aspects as follows:

> **negative face**: the want of every 'competent adult member' that his actions be unimpeded by others.
>
> **positive face**: the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others.
>
> (Goffman, restated in Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 62)

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), people basically try to maintain each other's face but some kind of action essentially threatens one's face (pp. 61-5). This action is called a 'face threatening act (FTA)' (p. 65). When doing FTAs, people often use 'redressive action' in order to save interlocuters' face (p. 69). Brown and Levinson (1987) divide this redressive action into two types as follows:

> **Positive politeness** is oriented toward the positive face of H (hearer, addressee), the

positive self-image that he claims for himself. Positive politeness is approach-based.

Negative politeness, on the other hand, is oriented mainly toward partially satisfying (redressing) H's negative face, his basic want to maintain claims of territory and self-determination. Negative politeness, thus, is essentially avoidance-based.

(Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 70)

We choose either one of these according to which face we put an importance on in a specific context of communication. Björkman (2011), for example, investigates ELF (English as a lingua franca) academic interactions recorded in lectures and group-work sessions in a technical university in Sweden where there are many international students and English is used as a medium of instruction (p. 953). The study shows that there are mainly two principles as to the participants' linguistic behavior, that is, 1) they wish to save each other's face and 2) they desire to support each other by using strategies such as a) backchanneling, b) supportive laughter, and c) 'excessive use of cajolers' (p. 951). Björkman (2011) concludes that this result indicates ELF academic interactions could be characterized with 'cooperativeness' rather than 'ineffectiveness or misunderstandings' (p. 951).

In the present research, the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils seem to put importance on saving each other's face during English lessons since all the three parties (the ALTs, HRTs, and pupils) are, in a sense, simultaneously foreign language learners and users. That is, the ALTs are language learners and users of Japanese, sometimes using Japanese during lessons in order to promote the pupils' clear understanding and show solidarity to the pupils and the HRTs. On the other hand, the HRTs and pupils are both language

learners and users of English in English classes in the present research, trying to use English in communication with the ALTs. In this situation, as Kramsch (1985) states, the ALTs, the HRTs, and the pupils try to avoid 'the loss of face', while learning or using foreign languages as language learners and/or users (p. 174). The present research therefore will also reveal how these three parties teach and learn languages in a classroom, saving each other's face (see Chapters 7 and 8).

To sum up, the chapter has found that classroom DA is utilized to explore how interactions between teachers and pupils (and also pupils and pupils) are achieved during lessons in classrooms. However, there is a limitation of classroom DA in that 'it tends to homogenize and oversimplify the interaction' (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 58) as classroom DA mainly investigates 'what is said and done' (Mercer, 1999, p. 318) in classrooms by systematically coding interaction features such as initiation, response, and feedback (Seedhouse, 2004, pp. 56-57). Accordingly, CA will be useful to scrutinize how the next speaker responds to what the previous speakers said in a more detailed manner, to which we will now turn.

Chapter 4

Language Learning in Classrooms: Conversation Analytic Approaches to Description

4.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I have reviewed the relationship between classroom discourse analysis and language learning in order to find ways to explore how communication among HRTs, ALTs, and pupils is achieved through classroom interaction and its description in a systematic way. The present research will also examine interactions among the three parties (the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils) in a team-teaching context, which means that detailed analysis and description are needed as the context of interactions is complicated in that the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils teach, learn, and use English (and sometimes Japanese), communicating with each other in their limited English/Japanese ability. To aid this, CA is useful to reveal how the next speaker interprets and responds to what the previous speaker said in their interaction sequences. The current research therefore adopts a conversation analytic perspective in addition to a discourse analytic one.

The chapter will specifically focus on conversation analytic approaches and language learning in classrooms in preparation for description in the chapters of data analysis (Chapters 6 and 7). The chapter consists of two sections. Section 4.1 explains some characteristics of conversation analysis such as turn-taking (4.1.1), adjacency pairs (4.1.2), and repair (4.1.3). Section 4.2 examines some characteristics of conversation analysis in classroom contexts such as adjacency pairs of question and answer sequences (4.2.1), repair (4.2.2), silence (4.2.3), and repetition (4.2.4).

4.1 Characteristics of Conversation Analysis

According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008), CA is 'a concern with the nature of turn-taking in talk-in-interaction' and is 'a concern with the *sequential order* of talk' (p. 41). In the following sections, I will investigate turn-taking and its rules (4.1.1), followed by adjacency pairs (4.1.2) and repair (4.1.3) on the basis of the seminal work by Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974), supported also by more recent works on CA such as Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) and Walsh (2013).

4.1.1 Turn-Taking

Sacks et al. (1974) investigate how native speakers of English manage turn taking in natural conversation. They explain that there are three basic facts on conversation, which are: 1) turn taking occurs, 2) one party tends to talk at a time, and 3) transitions tend to occur 'with no gap and no overlap' (Sacks et al., 1974, pp. 700-1). They state this does not mean that more than one speaker never talks at a time or that gaps and overlaps never occur (pp. 706-8), and further explain that there is 'a basic set of rules' which organize turn construction to 'minimize gap and overlap' (p. 704). These consist of two main rules, and the first one is divided into three subdivisions. Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) briefly sums up the rules proposed by Sacks et al. (1974) as follows:

> At the initial transition-relevance place of a turn:
> Rule 1 (a) If the current speaker has identified, or selected, a particular next speaker, then that speaker should take a turn at that place.
> (b) If no such selection has been made, then any next speaker may (but need

not) self-select at that point. If self-selection occurs, then first speaker has the right to the turn.

(c) If no next speaker has been selected, then alternatively the current speaker may, but need not, continue talking with another turn-constructional unit, unless another speaker has self-selected, in which case that speaker gains the right to the turn.

Rule 2 Whichever option has operated, then rules 1 (a)-(c) come into play again for the next transition-relevance place.

(Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 51)

Bearing these rules in mind, I will examine how the participants of the present research, i.e., the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils, construct turns in conversation in order to build mutual understanding in English lessons in a Japanese primary school in Chapters 7 and 8. However, before that, the concept of adjacency pairs, which are also related to turn taking, will be briefly discussed in the following section.

4.1.2 Adjacency Pairs

According to Schegloff and Sacks (1999) based on Schegloff and Sacks (1973), adjacency pairs are utterance pairs such as ‘greeting-greeting’, ‘question-answer’, and ‘offer-acceptance/refusal’ and have the following five main features:

(1) two utterance length,

(2) adjacent positioning of component utterances,

(3) different speakers producing each utterance,

(4) relative ordering of parts (i.e., first pair parts precede second pair parts) and

(5) discriminative relations (i.e., the pair type of which a first pair part is a member is relevant to the selection among second pair parts)

(Schegloff & Sacks, 1999, pp. 265-6)

Thus, according to Schegloff and Sacks, adjacency pairs consist of two utterances, which are adjacent (1999, p. 265). They are, however, not always adjacent because of the existence of, for example, 'insertion sequences' (Levinson, 1983, p. 304) between the first and second parts of adjacent pairs. Moreover, utterances in adjacency pairs are produced by different speakers, and the order of utterances are basically fixed, that is, for example, a question comes first and an answer comes second in a question-answer pair (Scgegloff & Sacks, 1999, pp. 265-6). Finally, the first utterance of a pair part expects the second utterance to belong to the same pair type, that is, for instance, if the first utterance is 'greeting', the second utterance should be 'greeting' in a greeting-greeting pair (pp. 255-6). Apart from adjacency pairs, repair, which is also an important feature in conversation analysis, will be discussed in the following.

4.1.3 Repair[13]

According to Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977), repair is used to deal with 'recurrent problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding' (p. 361). They regard 'correction' as a particular type of repair (1977, p. 362). Here, attention is necessary for understanding the use of the term 'correction' in relation to 'repair'. That is, the concept of repair includes not only corrections of errors or mistakes, but also phenomena which do not have apparent

[13] Part of the section was published as a paper in *The bulletin of the Graduate School of Education of Waseda University* (see Shino, 2018).

errors, for example, when using word search, such as ‘Yijknow Mary uh:::: (0.3) oh:: what was it. Uh:: Tho:mpson.’ (p. 363).

Schegloff et al. (1977) categorize repair into four types on the basis of agencies of repair, i.e., who initiates and completes repair: 1) self-initiated self-repair, 2) other-initiated self-repair, 3) self-initiated other-repair, and 4) other-initiated other-repair. Self-initiation, here, means that repair is initiated ‘by speaker of the trouble source’. On the other hand, other-initiation means that repair is initiated ‘by any party other than speaker of the trouble source’ (p. 364). Whereas, self-repair means that the trouble source is repaired by the speaker who has yielded trouble sources and other-repair means that the trouble source is repaired by ‘some “other”’ (p. 361).

According to Schegloff et al. (1977), one of the tendencies of repair is that both self-initiated and other-initiated repairs give priority to self-correction over other-correction (p. 362). That is, ‘self-initiated repairs yield self-correction’ and ‘other-initiated repairs also yield self-correction’ (p. 377). In this way, even if others start repairs, they tend to give speakers who have yielded trouble sources opportunities to repair their problems by themselves as much as they can (p. 362). This aspect will be further investigated in the current research data in Chapter 8. On the basis of the brief explanation of characteristics of conversation analysis in natural conversation, the next section will investigate features of conversation analysis in classroom contexts.

4.2 Characteristics of Conversation Analysis in Classroom Context

As the present research investigates primary school English classrooms in Japan, this section discusses features of conversation analysis in classroom contexts, starting with adjacency pairs of question and answer sequences (4.2.1), followed by repair (4.2.2),

silence (4.2.3), and repetition (4.2.4).

4.2.1 Adjacency Pairs of Question-and-Answer Sequences in Classroom Contexts

According to Tsui (1985), questions and answers have been frequently utilized by teachers and students in classrooms in general (pp. 16-8, see also, Walsh, 2013). In Japanese classroom contexts, Hosoda and Aline (2013), for example, investigate question-and-answer sequences between teachers and pupils in a teacher-fronted classroom context in primary school English lessons in Japan (p. 63). The study finds that unlike ordinary conversation and some other institutional interaction settings, teachers and pupils put more importance on letting a selected pupil answer a question than keeping a smooth flow of interactions (p. 63). That is, they find that 'preference for a selected recipient to speak next' is always prioritized over an answer from participants who are not designated by the teacher (p. 72). According to Hosoda and Aline, other interactants such as Japanese homeroom teachers, teacher trainees, and non-selected pupils are observed assisting the selected pupil when he/she is delayed in answering the question by whispering the correct answer, using translation and repeating what the asker has asked (2013, pp. 74-9).

In contrast, Hosoda and Aline (2013) have also found that there is a case that a non-selected pupil answers 'on record…in a loud voice' (p. 79). However, even in this case, the study has revealed that the teacher and other pupils ignore the correct answer provided by the non-selected pupil and wait for the selected pupil to answer the questions. The studies conducted by Hosoda and Aline (2013) thus shows that in classroom settings selected pupils are often expected to answer questions even when they do not know the answers, getting help from other participants (see also Hosoda, 2016). It would be

interesting to investigate whether similar interactions are found in the present research data. In a question-answer sequence in a classroom context, if a learner's answer is not appropriate, repair is likely to be observed, to which we will now turn.

4.2.2 Repair in Classroom Contexts[14]

In Section 4.1.3, the notion of repair in natural conversation has been briefly introduced. This section will specifically deal with repair in classrooms as the current research investigates English lessons in a Japanese primary school. The section consists of four parts. Section 4.2.2.1 defines repair in classrooms, Section 4.2.2.2 explains other-initiation of repair in classroom contexts, while Section 4.2.2.3 discusses repair occurring in language-centered and content-centered classroom contexts. Section 4.2.2.4 sums up this section.

4.2.2.1 Definition of Repair in Classrooms

According to Schegloff, et al. (1977), repair in natural conversation is used to deal with 'recurrent problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding' (p. 361) as stated in Section 4.1.3. On the other hand, Walsh (2013) defines repair conducted in a typical EFL (English as a foreign language) classroom situation as 'the ways in which teachers deal with errors' (p. 36). He points out, referring to van Lier (1988), that correcting errors is the most characteristic activity in language learning classrooms in addition to questioning (p. 36). Thus, repair both in natural and classroom contexts solve problems in interactions, but repair in classrooms tend to regard the problems more as the correction of learners' errors.

Walsh (2013) illustrates error correction from two perspectives. That is, firstly, the

[14] Part of the section was published as a paper in *The bulletin of the Graduate School of Education of Waseda University* (see Shino, 2018).

avoidance of error correction in order not to disturb 'the flow of classroom communication' and secondly, the positive correction of errors for learners to 'acquire a "proper" standard' (2013, p. 36). Walsh (2013, p. 36), on the basis of Schegloff et al.'s (1977) original classification, further mentions that when teachers identify learners' errors in classrooms, they face some choices such as whether to 1) 'ignore the error completely', 2) 'indicate that an error has been made and correct it' ('other-initiated other-repair' by Schegloff et al., 1977), 3) 'indicate that an error has been made and get the learner who made it to correct it' ('other-initiated self-repair' by Schegloff et al., 1977) and 4) 'indicate that an error has been made and get the other learners to correct it' ('other-initiated other-repair' by Schegloff et al., 1977, 'delegated repair' by Kasper, 1985; 'teacher-initiated peer-repair' by Seedhouse, 2004).

Thus, repair in classroom contexts has been defined to have two types of other-initiated other-repair in addition to other-initiated self-repair. That is, in other-initiated self-repair, teachers tend to point out pupils' errors but let the pupils repair them by themselves as much as possible, which is a dominant tendency in classrooms (e.g., Kasper, 1985; Macbeth, 2004). On the other hand, in other-initiated other-repair, repair is conducted not only by an indicator of an error such as a teacher but also by another participant like a pupil delegated by a teacher ('delegated repair' by Kasper, 1985; 'teacher-initiated peer-repair' by Seedhouse, 2004) in order to give each pupil an opportunity to participate in a lesson and share a problem in a whole class.

Walsh (2013) further states that whichever perspectives and ways teachers choose, it 'must be related to the pedagogic goals of the moment' (p. 36). If teachers aim to conduct 'highly controlled practice activity', more error correction is needed. In contrast, if they aim to concentrate on oral fluency, less error correction is needed (p. 36). In this

way, how and to what extent teachers repair learners' trouble sources change according to the situation.

On the other hand, in an ELF (English as a lingua franca) situation, repair is utilized to show explicitness. For example, Kaur (2011) investigates self-repair in an academic ELF context in Malaysia. She finds that self-repair is utilized as an explicitness strategy in order to make meaning and achieve mutual understanding in ELF interactions, where participants have various backgrounds such as 'diverse nationalities, ethnicities, cultures and linguistic as well as social backgrounds' (p. 2704). Kaur (2011) points out that in natural conversation between native speakers of English (e.g., Schegloff, et al., 1977) or between native speakers and non-native speakers of English such as in L2 language classrooms (e.g., Walsh, 2013), repair basically occurs where 'something has gone wrong in the talk' (p. 2706), whereas in conversation between non-native speakers such as in an ELF situation, repair occurs in order to 'pre-empt a problem from the outset' even when there is no observable problem or trouble (p. 2706). Thus, repair is found to play roles not only to make things right but also to make things 'clear, explicit, and specific' for avoiding potential problems in advance in ELF settings (p. 2706).

In the present research, repair has been frequently observed in interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils, where English is used as a lingua franca (ELF) particularly when they communicate, using English. Therefore, I will use the notion and functions of repair based not only on repair in NES-NES communication proposed by Schegloff, et al. (1977) and the one in EFL/ESL classroom settings proposed by Walsh (2013), but also repair in academic ELF interactions proposed by Kaur (2011) in the data analysis. The next section will specifically discuss other-initiation of repair, which is reported to be frequently used in classrooms (e.g., Kasper, 1985; Kaur, 2011; Macbeth,

2004; McHoul 1990; Seedhouse, 2004).

4.2.2.2 Other-initiation of Repair in Classrooms

As touched in Section 4.1.3, self-repair (both self-initiated and other-initiated) tends to be preferred in natural conversation (Schegloff, et al., 1977). That is to say, even if others start repairs, they give speakers who have made trouble sources chances to repair their problems by themselves as much as they can (Schegloff et al, 1977).

Teachers in classrooms are also likely to utilize other-initiated self-repair of learners' trouble sources to allow learners to have the control of their learning and involve them in the process of learning (Kaur, 2011; van Lier, 1988). The exchange of elicitation (initiation)-response-feedback by teachers and learners in classrooms is similar to this type of repair (Kasper, 1985, p. 206; Macbeth, 2004) in that repair in classrooms frequently occurs after learners answer teachers' questions (Walsh, 2013, p. 36). Regarding the importance of self-completion of repair in classrooms, McHoul (1990) mentions that although other-initiation of repair by teachers is frequently seen in classroom talk, their other-repair tends to be delayed in classroom interactions, prioritizing giving learners opportunities to repair their trouble sources by themselves (p. 375).

Simultaneously, teachers are also reported to often use other-initiated other-repair in classrooms (Kasper, 1985; Macbeth, 2004). They, however, not only repair learners' trouble sources themselves but also ask other learners to help their peers repair trouble sources. The latter is called 'delegated repair' by Kasper (1985, p. 207) or 'teacher-initiated peer-repair' by Seedhouse (2004, p. 147). By using 'delegated repair', Kasper (1985) states, not only one learner, but also other learners can actively participate in a

lesson. Furthermore, step-by-step repair work by various learners would make the 'problem-solving process transparent to all the learners' and they could receive the benefit of better understanding (Kasper, 1985, p. 207). Seedhouse (2004) also states that by utilizing 'teacher-initiated peer-repair', learners can learn from each other as repair proceeds, while teachers can understand each learner's language ability through repair sequences (p. 148). Thus, in the classroom context, teachers often not only repair the trouble source by themselves, but also let other pupils repair it to give them opportunities to help each other and share the problems in the classroom.

Based on the studies discussed above, I will examine what types of the above discussed repair teachers (the HRTs and the ALTs) in the present research actually use as well as when and how they use it. In relation to what types of repair tend to be used in classrooms, the next section illustrates the context in which repair occurs in classrooms.

4.2.2.3 Repair in Language-centered and Content-centered Classroom Contexts

Kasper (1985) investigates repair in classroom settings in terms of language-centered vs. content-centered contexts. In the former, the purpose of learning is foreign language itself. The process of repair in the language-centered context is illustrated by her as follows: learners' trouble sources are recognized by teachers and repaired by teachers or another learner (delegated repair), and finally the completion of repair is confirmed by teachers (Kasper, 1985, p. 209).

Seedhouse (2004) also explores repair conducted in the language-centered context and adds another feature in addition to the above. That is, if learners cannot produce the correct form, they are likely to seek assistance from teachers. These features of the language-centered context, according to him, is not observed in natural conversation (pp.

143-9). In addition to the features of repair in language-centered contexts, Seedhouse (2004) lists various ways teachers use for repairing learners' linguistic forms to avoid threatening learners' face. These include to 1) use a 'next-turn repair initiator' such as 'pardon?', 'sorry?', and 'what?' (p. 165), 2) repeat 'the word or phrase or part of a word which the learner used immediately prior to the error' (p. 165), 3) repeat original questions, 4) repeat learners' utterances which would be an error 'with a rising intonation' (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 166, see also Jefferson, 1974 on minimal repair in natural conversation), 5) supply correct answers, 6) provide explanations on why answers are incorrect without directly pointing out that they are not correct, 7) accept 'incorrect forms' and then supplying 'the correct forms', and 8) invite 'other learners to repair' (pp. 165-8), which is somewhat similar to Kasper's (1985) 'delegated repair' (p. 207). In addition to these repair types, McHoul (1990), originally introduced in Seedhouse (2004), also points out teachers' ways for repairing learners' linguistic forms such as showing clues and reformulating questions (p. 364) not to threaten the learners' face.[15] Teachers thus utilize various ways to repair learners' language forms, eliciting appropriate language forms while avoiding threatening their face in language-centered classrooms.

Compared to the language-centered context, the content-centered one focuses on 'developing the learners' ability to express their ideas about some content matter in FL' (Kasper, 1985, p. 209). Kasper (1985) lists the following two features of repair in the content-centered context: firstly, both teachers and learners are likely to use self-initiated self-repair and secondly, teachers are also likely to utilize other-initiated other-repair when learners do not realize their trouble sources or when they cannot solve the trouble sources by themselves (p. 213). Also, Seedhouse (2004) examines repair in the content-

[15] Although these ways are not specific to language-centered context, they are regarded as features in the context in the studies of McHoul (1990).

centered context in ESL classrooms and finds that teachers focus on achieving mutual understanding in the context (p. 149). That is to say, to convey their intention fluently is more significant than to accurately produce linguistic forms. Accordingly, learners' linguistic errors are ignored unless they become causes of communication breakdown in this context. This is because, according to Seedhouse, the goal of this type is to learn the content matter and build mutual understanding (2004, p. 149).

Based on the various ways of repair reported above, the present research will investigate when, how, and what kind of repair is utilized by the ALTs, the HRTs, and the pupils in the specific research context, namely, primary school English lessons in Japan (see Chapter 8). The next section will briefly summarize Section 4.2.2.

4.2.2.4 Summary

Section 4.2.2 has discussed the use of repair in classroom contexts and found the following three points. Firstly, repair activity is frequently conducted by teachers in classroom settings. Secondly, there is a preference for certain types of repair to be used. That is to say, other-initiated (by teachers) self-repair by learners tends to be dominant (Kasper, 1985; Macbeth, 2004). Also, other-initiated (by teachers) other-repair (by teachers and/or other pupils) is dominant. This is because teachers not only repair learners' trouble sources by themselves, but also ask other learners to help repairing trouble sources, which is called 'delegated repair' (Kasper, 1985) or 'teacher-initiated peer-repair' (Seedhouse, 2004). Thirdly, how, what types of, and to what extent repair is conducted changes depending on various contexts such as language-centered or content-centered ones.

It is therefore important for teachers to decide how, when, and to what extent they

use repair or not, and what kinds of repair they conduct in classrooms on the basis of the goals and the contexts of their lessons. In addition, teachers' preference for the types of repair on the basis of learners' levels and situations they are placed in should also be considered. In Chapter 8, how repair is actually conducted among the HRTs, the ALTs and the pupils in English lessons in a Japanese primary school will be investigated. However, before that, another salient feature in classroom contexts, silence, will be briefly discussed in the following section.

4.2.3 Silence in Classroom Contexts

Silence is also explained by Sacks et al. (1974)[16], however, it is investigated in terms of where silence occurs in turn-taking sequences in natural conversation. In the present research, silence by the pupils is sometimes observed in class and its reasons seem to be partially due to their culture as will be shown in Chapter 7. This section will therefore explore silence in classroom interactions, considering cultural dimension of the use of silence. Specifically, silence for showing learners' respect for teachers, agreement, non-understanding, participation by using non-verbal means, reaction, and for saving face, will be discussed in the following.

In terms of silence observed among non-native English students who study abroad in English speaking countries, Liu (2002) identifies five functions of silence of three Chinese students in American university classrooms, which are 1) showing his/her respect for teachers and other students, 2) showing agreement, harmony, or conformity with others, 3) showing his/her non-understanding, and 4) avoiding taking a risk of losing face in front of others (2002, pp. 47-8). Thus, Liu (2002) reports that Chinese students utilize

[16] Sacks et al. (1974), stating that 'silence in conversation is contingent on its placement', explain three types of silence, i.e., 'pause', 'gap', and 'lapses' (p. 715).

silence in classrooms as a strategy to show their polite attitude and save face, which is based on Chinese cultural values (pp. 47-8, see also Zhu & Bresnahan, 2018).

Similarly, Tatar (2005) investigates reasons for silence used by Turkish graduate students in American academic contexts. Through this investigation, silence is found to be used to 1) save face, 2) show his/her participation by responding to questions or comments through gestures, body language, and taking notes, but not by talking in the classroom, 3) react to the contributions of others to show 'a protest against the perceived low quality of' their opinions, 4) show his/her 'respect for authority and concern for others', and 5) show 'strong feeling of "incapability"' due to the lack of their language skills (Tatar, 2005, p. 288). Thus, the results show that silence by students in the classroom context does not necessarily indicate their 'lack of knowledge or interest' but indicate their conscious choices to show their participation, using non-verbal means of communication, reaction, and respect for others, and to save face (Tatar, 2005, p. 292), which is similar to the study result by Liu (2002). These features of silence will also be investigated in the current research data.

In addition to the whole feature of silence, in the present research, another function of silence shown through is showing the pupils' non-understanding (see Chapter 7). In order to solve learners' non-understanding, teachers in the present research frequently use repetition (see Chapter 7 for the detailed data analysis of repetition), which we will now discuss in the following section.

4.2.4 Repetition in Classroom Contexts

Tannen (2007), albeit not in the classroom context, points out that repetition is utilized to achieve smooth and active communication in natural conversation, showing responses to

interlocutors' utterance and speakers' participation, and accepting interlocutors' utterances (p. 61). On the other hand, in classroom contexts, repetition is reported to be used by teachers and learners for different purposes, for example, for teachers evaluating learners' answers (Duff, 2000) and promoting learners' clear understanding (Tsui, 2001), and learners showing competence/lack of competence and active participation (Duff, 2000). In the following, I will investigate for what purposes repetition is utilized in classroom contexts in more detail.

4.2.4.1 Repetition in Language Classrooms

Duff (2000), describing how repetition is used by teachers and students in high school EFL immersion classes in Hungary and university foreign language classes (German and Hebrew) in America, finds that repetition by teachers is regarded as one of the features of teacher talk in second and foreign language education (p. 113). Repetition is especially found to be used in teachers' evaluation in initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) exchange patterns (p. 113). On the other hand, Duff (2000) also points out that it is beneficial for learners to use repetition in foreign language classes in order to find a problematic term, 'practice articulating the term', and acquire new knowledge of the foreign language together with peers (Duff, 2000, p. 135). Thus, Duff (2000) states that repetition in classrooms is utilized not only for teachers' evaluation of pupils' answers but also for learners' language learning (p. 135).

Just like Duff (2000), Tsui (2001) examines classroom interaction between native English teachers (NSs) and non-native English students (NNSs). The study shows that teachers use modified speeches with various strategies such as repetition in order to make

their speeches comprehensible to students (p. 131).[17] On the other hand, NNSs try to negotiate meaning by using various strategies such as repetition, clarification, or confirmation when they cannot understand what NSs provide as input. Thus, in Tsui's study both teachers and students used repetition as a strategy in classroom interactions to build mutual understanding.

Apart from the studies by Duff (2000) and Tsui (2001), Lee (2016) investigates interactions in a team-taught language classroom context in a Korean primary school, especially focusing on the use of repetition between teachers. Lee finds that repetition is used by both the leading teacher (English-speaking teacher: ET) and the co-teacher (Korean teacher: KT) in order for KTs to show his/her involvement and ability as a co-expert who 'shares immediate access to the correct response' with the leading teacher and for ETs to show his/her acknowledgement, and for both KTs and ETs to indicate confirmation (2016, pp. 3-11).

Thus, between teachers and learners in language classrooms, the former utilize repetition for giving corrective feedback, showing confirmation, and modifying learners' speeches, while the latter use it for both signaling lack of competence and showing competence, showing active participation, and negotiating meaning (Duff, 2000; Tsui, 2001). On the other hand, between teachers in a team-taught language classroom context, repetition is used for teachers' showing involvement, ability as a co-teacher, acknowledgement, and confirmation (Lee, 2016).

While in all the above studies, repetition is investigated in EFL classroom context, in the following section, I will investigate repetition used in an English as a lingua franca (ELF) context. This is because the current research frequently examines ELF interactions

[17] Tsui (2001) also points out that these modified speeches are similar to 'foreigner talk' between native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs) (p. 131).

in which both non-native speakers of English (the HRTs and the pupil) and a native speaker of English (the ALT) communicate with each other, using English as a lingua franca during (and sometimes outside) various class activities.

4.2.4.2 Repetition in ELF interactions[18]

Kaur (2012) states that in an ELF situation, participants have various levels of English proficiency as well as linguistic diversity (p. 594). In order to avoid misunderstanding in such a situation, ELF speakers tend to use various strategies such as repetition (p. 594, see also Kaur, 2009, pp. 119-20). According to Kaur (2012), who examines self-repetition occurring in ELF interactions among international graduate students in a university in Malaysia, self-repetition plays a significant role in ELF conversations in order to 'enhance the clarity of expression' and achieve recipients' understanding (p. 593), and thus its use could pre-empt 'understanding problems from the outset' (p. 598). She points out that self-repetition in academic ELF interactions lead to 'clearer, more explicit talk in ELF and, in so doing, may facilitate the recipient's understanding of it' (Kaur, 2012, p. 600, see also Kaur, 2009, pp. 111-9).

Likewise, Björkman (2011) explores how pragmatic strategies such as repetition are used in an ELF classroom setting in a technical university in Sweden. She explains that there are two forms of repetition such as 1) self repetition, 'in which the speaker repeats him/herself' (see also Murata, 1995, p. 345) and 2) 'other repetition' which is 'repetition of parts of others' utterances' (Björkman, 2011, pp. 958-9). The former is utilized for emphasizing what speakers have said and conveying the messages to peers (2011, pp. 958-9), while the latter is utilized for confirmation checking of what the speakers have

[18] Part of the section was published as a book chapter in M. Konakahara and K. Tsuchiya (eds.), *English as a lingua franca in Japan: Towards multilingual practices* (Chapter 6, see Shino, 2020).

said and feedback to the interlocutors (2011, p. 959). Furthermore, Jenkins (2011) reports that Cogo (2007) illustrates ELF conversations among university language teachers and finds that repetition and code-switching are utilized to 'accommodate linguacultural diversity' (Jenkins, 2011, p. 930). Thus, repetition in academic ELF interactions is utilized to show explicitness (Björkman, 2014; Kaur, 2012), confirm understanding (Björkman, 2011; 2014; Kaur, 2012), and achieve mutual understanding to avoid communication breakdowns (Kaur, 2009; 2012) among speakers.

Sections 4.2.4.1 and 4.2.4.2 have thus investigated repetition in EFL/ESL classrooms settings and ELF academic interactions. Comparing these two different contexts, it is found that repetition in EFL/ESL classrooms tends to be used for 1) evaluating learners' answers (Duff, 2000) and promoting their clear understanding (Tsui, 2001) by teachers and 2) showing competence/lack of competence and active participation (Duff, 2000) by learners. On the other hand, repetition in academic ELF interactions tends to be utilized for explicitness, confirmation checking, and mutual understanding in order to avoid or preempt communication breakdowns among speakers. That is, ELF academic interactions put more importance on maintaining participants' shared understanding regardless of their positions such as teachers and students, although this could be partly because of the different educational contexts investigated, i.e., secondary or tertiary levels.

In the present research, English is utilized by not only native speakers of English (the ALTs) but also non-native speakers of English (the HRTs and the pupils). That is, interactions occur in an ELF context where both native and non-native speakers of English communicate with each other in English as a lingua franca as well as Japanese as a lingua franca. Therefore, I will take the notion and functions of repetition found in ELF

contexts as well as those found in EFL classroom contexts into consideration in the current research data analysis.

To sum up, Chapter 4 has discussed literature on features of CA in classroom contexts for the analysis of the data in the present research. In particular, some characteristic features of CA turn-taking system, such as adjacency pairs, repair, silence, and repetition in classroom contexts are detailed in consideration for the analysis of the current research data in Chapters 6-8. That is, in classroom settings, a question-answer pair is found to be frequently utilized by teachers and learners. As to repair sequences in classroom interaction, it is reported that both self- and other-initiated repairs prioritize self-repair over other-repair (see also Schegloff, et al., 1977). However, other-repair is also found to be actively used in classroom contexts as 'delegated repair' (Kasper, 1985) and 'teacher-initiated peer-repair' (Seedhouse, 2004) to give each learner a chance to join a lesson and share and solve a trouble source with a whole class for learners' deep and clear understanding.

In addition, other features in conversation such as silence (4.2.3) and repetition (4.2.4), frequently observed in classroom settings, are also reexamined. First, silence in classrooms is reported to be used especially by non-native Asian students to show their respect, agreement, non-understanding, participation, reaction, and to save their face (Liu, 2000; Tatar, 2005). Second, repetition in classrooms is found to be used for teachers evaluating learners' answers and promoting their clear understanding (Duff, 2000; Tsui, 2001), and learners showing competence/lack of competence as well as active participation (Duff, 2000). On the other hand, repetition in academic ELF interactions is found to be utilized for explicitness (Björkman, 2014; Kaur, 2012), confirmation checking (Björkman, 2011; 2014; Kaur, 2012), and mutual understanding to avoid communication

breakdowns (Kaur, 2009; 2012) among speakers.

The findings from this chapter will be incorporated in analyzing the data in Chapters 7 and 8. Before moving on to the data analysis, the research design of the present research will be explained in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5

Research Design

5.0 Introduction

In the previous chapters (Chapters 2, 3, and 4), sociocultural theory, classroom discourse analysis, and conversation analysis were reviewed in preparation for the description and analysis of the data of the current research. This chapter will explicate the research design to show how the research was conducted. The present research adopts qualitative research methods in terms of data collection methods and analyses (5.1) such as case study (5.1.1) and ethnography (5.1.2). The chapter will also explain specific sites of the present research (5.2) and data collection (5.3).

5.1 Qualitative Data Collection Methods

The current research adopts qualitative research as a research method. According to Richards (2015), qualitative research primarily investigates 'people's lived experiences in specific contexts', based on the assumption that 'the social world and our knowledge of it are jointly constructed' (p. 61). Richards (2015) points out five main characteristics of qualitative research, namely, 1) locally situated, 2) participant-oriented, 3) researcher-sensitive, 4) holistic, and 5) inductive (p. 62).

In order to guarantee the quality of the qualitative research, Richards (2015) further mentions that qualitative researchers commonly put importance on three issues. First, 'respondent validation', in which researchers show relevant findings with the participants' views (Richards, 2015, p. 63). Second, Richards (2015) lists 'triangulations', in which researchers use 'more than one method to collect data on the same topic' in order to

strengthen the validity of the research (2015, p. 63). Finally, he refers to 'thick description', in which researchers describe and interpret 'the thoughts, emotions and motivations of the relevant participants' as much as possible in order to make descriptions comprehensible (Richards, 2015, p. 64).

Apart from the above important issues in qualitative research, Dornyei (2007) states that a strong point of qualitative research is that it is useful to conduct longitudinal studies in order to 'explore the sequential patterns and the changes' in dynamic phenomena (p. 40). On the other hand, he also lists two main weak points of qualitative research are that it is hard to generalize the results as the sample size is small, and it is time consuming (Dornyei, 2007, pp. 40-1).

In the current research, I have adopted the survey methods such as note-taking while observing classes and audio-recording of classroom interactions as 'triangulations' to make a 'thick description' (Richards, 2015, p. 64). In the following sections, I will explain each qualitative data collection method adopted in the current research, starting with case study.

5.1.1 Case study

According to Duff and Anderson (2015), a case study 'generally constitutes a qualitative, interpretive approach to understand the experiences, features, behaviors, and processes of a bounded (a specific or defined) unit' (p. 112). Dornyei (2007) explains that cases are primarily people; however, a programme, institution, organization, or community is also regarded as a case (p. 151).

Giving an example of a strong point of a case study, Dornyei (2007) mentions that it can obtain 'a thick description of a complex social issue embedded within a cultural

context' (p. 155). Thus, a case study can give us 'rich and in-depth insights' in order to understand 'the target phenomena' (p. 155). On the other hand, regarding a weak point of a case study, Duff and Anderson (2015) point out that although a case study is a powerful methodology, it would lack generalizability (p. 117). However, they further state, a detailed description of 'issues, settings, individuals, and interactions' would give readers a clear understanding and empathy. (Duff & Anderson, 2015, p. 117).

Duff and Anderson further point out that there are two types of case study such as 1) a single case study and 2) multiple case studies. The former conducts a study on one focal case for 'a given period of time' or longitudinally. On the other hand, the latter examines 'several related cases of a similar phenomenon and involves two or more people or groups' (Duff & Anderson, 2015, p. 116).

One of the benefits of a single case study proposed by Duff and Anderson (2015) is that researchers can deeply examine phenomena by focusing on only one participant (p. 116). On the other hand, by using multiple case studies, researchers can uncover various factors that contribute to the research as multiple cases yield different types of informants and 'possibly contradictory experiences, perceptions, and outcomes' (p. 116). However, according to them, there is a challenge for multiple case studies, which is that 'the increased time, resources, and skills' are required in order to 'collect, manage, analyze, interpret, and then represent multiple data sources' (Duff & Anderson, 2015, pp. 116-7). Thus, a case study basically deals with people, programmes, institutions, organizations, or communities as a case or cases and finds features based on detailed descriptions of them. The current research longitudinally deploys English lessons in S Primary School as the purpose of the research is to investigate interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils during English classes as a single case, aiming to deeply examine what is

actually happening in the classroom. In addition to a case study, I will also use ethnography as a research method, to which we will now turn.

5.1.2 Ethnography

According to Palfreyman (2015), ethnographic research is a study of human activity and it tries to understand 'unwritten cultural rules which participants work by', focusing on 'a particular case or set of cases' (pp. 146-7). Fetterman (2010) also defines ethnography as 'telling a credible, rigorous, and authentic story' by 'a "thick description of events' (p. 1). Mackey and Gass (2005) point out that ethnography aims to conduct research on 'group behavior and the cultural patterns underlying that behavior' (p. 168). Thus, the aim of ethnography is not only to give detailed descriptions of what is going on in particular contexts, but to analyze 'what is going on "under the surface"' (Palfreyman, 2015, p. 147), considering participants' perspectives. Additionally, Palfreyman (2015) states that ethnographic studies mainly deal with qualitative data such as 1) observation of 'behavior, language, or use of space', 2) interviews with participants, 3) photographs, 4) documents, and 5) realia (p. 146).

On the other hand, Dornyei (2007) points out that a strong point of ethnography is that it is a good way to cross cultures and gain 'insight into the life of organizations, institutions and communities' (pp. 132-3). Palfreyman (2015) also mentions that a strong point of ethnography is that it handles 'everyday, possibly familiar situations, but takes nothing for granted' (p. 147). Thus, a greater insight could be gained by doing ethnography in unknown areas (Dornyei, 2007, p. 133).

Accordingly, ethnographic investigation is useful for the current research in that, although primary school classrooms are 'familiar' and 'well-known' situations to many

people, what is actually happening during English lessons among HRTs, ALTs, and pupils in these situations is not well-known (but see Hosoda & Aline, 2013; Hosoda, 2016 on classroom discourse analysis in English lessons in Japanese primary schools).

Classroom Observation and Recordings

Edwards and Westgate (1994) report that classroom observation is used to examine 'how classroom interaction was organized' (p. 83) and that through the observation, we can recognize what elements make teaching effective (p. 83). In what follows, what types of observation are relevant in order to investigate the organization of classroom interaction will be discussed.

According to van Lier (1988), there are mainly two types of classroom observation, evaluative and descriptive (p. 69). The former type is utilized for evaluating the lesson, e.g. to check management, evaluate teachers in training, evaluate or compare 'teaching methods and techniques', and do apprenticeship (p. 41). On the other hand, the latter aims to describe 'all that happens in the data' in order to reveal 'what is said and what is done' in the classroom (p. 52). In both types of observation, van Lier (1988) states that 'it must be non-judgemental or objective', that is, classroom observers must be neutral as to the target setting (pp. 38-9). However, van Lier (1988) further maintains that it is also a fact that observation cannot be truly 'objective, nor theory-free' because there is more or less an influence of subjectivity of researchers upon the interpretation of data (p. 38).

On the other hand, regarding participants' perception of observers, van Lier (1988) points out that when an observer is in a classroom, learners are conscious of his/her presence at the beginning. They, however, tend to gradually come to accept the presence of him/her and ignore it (p. 39). In contrast, teachers tend to feel the presence of an

observer as threatening and give lessons differently than usual (p. 39). This attitude of teachers, according to van Lier (1988), could in turn affect learners and, therefore, observers could never observe a natural lesson. (p. 39). This phenomenon is called 'observer's paradox', pointed out first by Labov (1972, p. 209). Kasper (2015), referring to Labov (1972), explains observer's paradox as follows: 'when speakers are aware of being observed, they may talk differently from when they are not being observed' (p. 216). Therefore, we always need to bear in mind that classroom observers may not be able to obtain truly natural data.

van Lier (1988) also points out that there are another two different types of classroom observation, namely participant observation and non-participant observation (p. 40). In the former, there is an observer in a classroom and he/she participates in class activities as a 'teacher, co-teacher, or learner' and conducts observation either covertly ('the participant as observer') or overtly ('the observer as participant') (van Lier, 1988, p. 40). The latter type of observation, i.e., non-participant observation, is traditionally conducted with 'the help of systematic observation instruments' such as a checklist (van Lier, 1988, p. 41).

As for the evidence of classroom observation, researchers often use video or audio recordings in addition to direct observation in order to conduct more accurate analysis (van Lier, 1988, p. 40). By recording interactions, we can investigate what learners are actually doing during lessons as individuals and groups by examining recorded data after observations (1988, p. 64). In the present research, classroom observation and recordings will also be conducted to analyze and reveal what is actually happening in English lessons in a Japanese primary school from classroom discourse (e.g., Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013), conversation (e.g., Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974), and classroom

conversation (e.g., Seedhouse, 2004) analytic approaches (see Chapters 6, 7, and 8 on the detailed data analysis).

So far, I have reviewed several types of qualitative research methods which are to be utilized in the analysis of the present research data such as case study and ethnography. The following section (5.2) will discuss specific sites of the current research, namely, English education in H City (5.2.1), English education in S Primary School (5.2.2), ALT meetings in H City (5.2.3), and the ALTs in H City (5.2.4).

5.2 Specific Sites for the Current Research

5.2.1 English Education in H City

This section will briefly introduce English education in H City, where the primary school I have observed since 2009 is located.

H City has six non-JET[19] ALTs for its eleven primary schools. That is, they are hired by a private company and sent to H City as ALTs. Five ALTs are assigned to two primary schools each, and one ALT is assigned to one primary school and one middle school. Most ALTs work in both larger and smaller[20] primary schools. For example, one ALT works in a larger school from Monday to Wednesday, and then a smaller school on Thursday and Friday. In this way, all the primary schools in H City have English lessons with the ALTs every week.

The Board of Education in H City published an original guide in 2007 for English education for the fifth and sixth graders at primary schools. The guide was made as the year 2007 was the official year when English education at primary level began in the city.

[19] The JET program (the Japan Exchange and Teaching program) is conducted by the Japanese government. The ALTs in H City are recruited by a private company which has contracts with H City.
[20] H City has 11 primary schools in total. Larger schools have about 400-700 pupils and smaller schools have 100-300 pupils.

Lesson plans for English education in primary schools are included in the guide. As an aim, the Board of Education states:

> We hope pupils will be able to deepen their understandings of different languages and cultures through studying a foreign language. We intend to foster a positive attitude among pupils to communicate with people. We would like to form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages while familiarizing them with the sounds and basic expressions of these languages.
> 外国語を通じて、言語や文化について体験的に理解を深め、積極的にコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度の育成を図り、外国語の音声や基本的な表現に慣れ親しませながら、コミュニケーション能力の素地を養う。
>
> (The Board of Education, H City 2007, p. 1, translated by the current author)

In addition, the city lists three points (see the Board of Education, 2007) that it wants teachers to pay attention to in order to avoid pupils having a negative attitude towards English. Firstly, teachers are to put an importance on the enjoyment of English classes. Secondly, teachers are to do activities that use sounds of English as the central part of English classes. Finally, teachers are expected to compare the foreign language and culture with Japanese culture and include things which pupils are familiar with for comparison (p. 1). On this point, the guide tries to make the lesson plans related to H City by including such a specific feature as 'Three Day March', which is an international walking event held in H City every November. Thus, the guide is made to be more locally relevant compared to the one issued by MEXT. One teaching period is 45 minutes long, and there are 35 lesson plans for each grade per year. This is because schools have to

conduct English lessons once a week per class in the fifth and the sixth grades in one year.

5.2.2 English Education in S Primary School

S Primary School has English lessons from the first to sixth grades. The fifth and sixth graders have lessons every week and the first to fourth graders have them about once or twice a month. Since the Board of Education in H City recommends all primary schools in the city to conduct team teaching with an ALT and HRTs, S Primary School also conducts team-teaching. English education in Japanese primary schools place importance on communication or conversation as stated above (see Section 5.3.1). Therefore, teachers are in general encouraged to conduct lessons, utilizing role plays, pair-work activities, rules of games and so on.

In S Primary School, HRTs and ALTs are also encouraged to hold pre-lesson meetings before each lesson, for which ALTs are always expected to prepare lesson plans written in both English and Japanese for HRTs. Although ALTs try to visit HRTs to have pre-lesson meetings, it is often hard for HRTs to arrange the time for meetings mainly because they are almost always in their classrooms with their pupils in the Japanese primary education system, and they have a lot of things to do even during the break. The issues related to pre-lesson meetings will be discussed later.

As for the language use of ALTs and HRTs during English lessons, the Board of Education in H City asks teachers to use English as much as they can. Therefore, both the ALTs and HRTs try to use English in front of pupils as much as possible to maintain an English environment. However, the HRTs (and also the ALT) sometimes use the pupils' L1 (Japanese), when needed, to help and enhance pupils' understanding (see Chapter 3 on the use of L1 in class).

5.2.3 ALT Meetings in H City

The Board of Education in H City held ALT meetings every week in 2009. In attendance at the meetings were a supervisor, a coordinator of the private company and all the ALTs in the city. At the meetings during the first term in 2009, three issues needed to be improved on in the second term were raised.[21]

The first issue was a need for a meeting time between HRTs and ALTs before English classes. However, this was sometimes difficult due to the fact that HRTs almost always stay in their own classrooms as stated above and they are so busy (Fukatsu-Shino, 2010 for the issue on a shortage of pre-lesson meetings between HRTs and ALTs). The second issue had to do with a need for holding more teacher training sessions for HRTs. There are still many HRTs who lack confidence in teaching English because they were not educated to be English teachers. In order to improve the situation, the city had teacher training for HRTs during the summer vacation in 2009. Also, S Prefecture, in which H City is located, held teacher training sessions during the summer vacation and many primary school HRTs in H City[22] attended.

5.2.4 The ALTs in H City Recruited from Various Countries

H City recruits ALTs from various countries. According to the supervisor of English education in the city, there is no strict rule with regard to ALTs' home countries as long as their L1 is English. I met five ALTs in S Primary School from 2009 to 2013. They were from America, Australia (the parents were both Korean), Ghana, Jamaica, and the

[21] I was present at the meeting.
[22] For example, 41 HRTs in H City attended the teacher training held at the prefecture level in 2009.

Philippines. Personal information on the ALTs in S Primary School is shown as follows[23]:

ALT	Sex	Age	Nationality	Teaching experience	Degree
A1 (2009)	M	31 (2009)	America	-Several years in America and Norway -Three years in Japan	Bachelor
A2 (2010)	F	23 (2010)	Australia (Korean parentage)	No experience	Bachelor
A3 (2011)	M	23 (2011)	Jamaica	No experience	Bachelor
A4 (2012)	M	N/A	The Philippines	-Two years in Japan	Bachelor
A5 (2013)	F	N/A	Ghana	No experience	Bachelor

Table 4: Personal Information on the ALTs in S Primary School (2009-2013)

Ghana, Jamaica, and the Philippines belong to the 'outer circle' (Kachru, 1985) countries, where English 'has become part of a country's chief institutions and plays an important "second language" role in a multilingual setting' (Crystal, 2003, p. 60). Thus, in Ghana, Jamaica, and the Philippines, English is established as an official language: H City thus invites not only ALTs from 'inner circle' countries, where English is 'the primary language', but also those from 'outer circle' countries (Kachru, 1985). In other words, H City seems not to put much importance on which country an ALT is from but on which language he/she uses as his/her L1. Accordingly, there are more chances for pupils to be exposed to diverse Englishes and cultures.

[23] Personal information on the HRTs in S Primary School is not shown here as there are many HRTs who were involved in the present research, and the current author collected personal information only from some HRTs to conduct interviews for other studies.

The Japanese government conducts the JET program (the Japan Exchange and Teaching program), and it recruited ALTs from 36 countries in 2009[24] (JET Programme, 2018). Many of them, however, predominantly come from the 'inner circle' (ibid). Therefore, the system of recruitment of ALTs in H City, which positively hires ALTs from various countries other than the 'inner circle', seems to be more advanced, considering the reality of the globalized world, where English is utilized around the world (e.g., Jenkins, 2009)[25]. It would give the pupils in the city good opportunities to learn the fact that English is used not only in the 'inner circle' but also in the 'outer circle' and the 'expanding circle', where often English is used as a lingua franca (ELF) (e.g., Seidlhofer, 2011). Also, this would help the pupils to sweep away the stereotype of English only being used by white people with blue eyes if they have an image like this (e.g., Oda, 2017, p. 107; Scollon & Scollon, 2002, pp. 167-70).

So far, we have found that H City promotes English education with the help of the ALTs not only from the 'inner circle' but also from the 'outer' circles. We will examine how this trial by H City has affected the pupils' and the HRTs' language attitude in English lessons in Chapters 6, 7, and 8. But before that, in the following section (5.3), how the data of the present research is collected will be discussed.

5.3 Data Collection

English classes at S Primary School in H City were observed from 2009 to 2013. Not only were English classes observed, but through the current researcher's participation as an assistant teacher, a greater insight was also gained. I taught English with the ALTs and the

[24] The JET Programme recruited ALTs from 54 countries in 2018 (JET Programme, 2018).
[25] The supervisor of the Board of Education in H City has mentioned that when recruiting ALTs, he puts importance not only on which countries they come from, but also on their personalities and how much they want to communicate with primary school pupils regardless of their teaching experience.

HRTs to the pupils from the first to sixth grade three times a week in the academic year 2009. After 2009, I visited the school about three days per term[26] due to my other teaching commitments and research. Thus, an ethnographic perspective with participant observation has been introduced.

With regard to ethical issues, I paid attention to respecting the participants' privacy by anonymizing their names and affiliations to avoid discomfort or embarrassment. As to the observation and recording of English lessons, I was given permission by the Board of Education in H City by informing them that 1) any data obtained from participants would be kept confidential, 2) participants' names would remain confidential, and 3) participants' identities would be anonymized throughout the research. Based on the research design explained in this chapter, I will analyze the data of the present research in Chapters 6, 7, and 8.

[26] There are three terms in an academic year in S Primary School.

Chapter 6

Discussion of the Data: Classroom Discourse Analytic Approach

6.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, research design of the present research was introduced before moving on to the data analysis. Based on the literature reviews in Chapters 2, 3, and 4 and the design of the present research (Chapter 5), this chapter will investigate, based on the data, what is actually happening in classroom interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils during English lessons in S Primary School from a classroom discourse analytic perspective in order to obtain 'a clearer picture of what is said and done' in the classroom, and consider 'more effective communication' and language teaching and learning (Mercer, 1999, p. 318, see Chapter 3 for the detailed discussion on classroom discourse analysis).

It is apparent, through the data analysis, that the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils effectively teach, learn, and use English in order to enhance understanding by using various ways such as the use of discourse markers, scaffolding and the participants' own language. Although scaffolding has been reviewed under sociocultural theory (Chapter 2), how scaffolding is actually utilized in the classroom context will be investigated in a detailed manner in this chapter from a classroom DA approach. L1 use will also be examined in this chapter as the present research aims to investigate how, for what purposes, and in what situations the participants' first languages (English and Japanese respectively) are utilized in the language learning and teaching classrooms and also as the issue is often discussed from a classroom DA perspective (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Liebscher & Dailey-O'cain, 2005; Liu, et al., 2004; Nagy & Robertson, 2009, see Chapter

3 for the detailed information on L1 use in classrooms). The data analysis has also revealed that there are some situations where the HRTs need to raise awareness of cultural sensitivity to understand the ALTs' and the pupils' different cultural backgrounds. Chapter 6 will therefore mainly discuss two issues: enhancing interlocutors' understanding (6.1) and secondly, cultural sensitivity and awareness (6.2).

6.1 Enhancing Interlocutors' Understanding

Through analyzing the data, various ways to promote understanding in English lessons are found to be utilized by the HRTs, the ALTs and the pupils in S Primary School. They are the use of discourse markers (6.1.1), the use of scaffolding (6.1.2), and the use of the participants' own language (6.1.3).

6.1.1 The Use of Discourse Markers (by the ALTs)

In the present research, discourse markers (e.g., Schiffrin, 1987) are frequently and effectively used by the ALTs to smoothly and successfully interact with the pupils and the HRTs in English lessons. They are mainly utilized in order to 1) get attention from the pupils and mark transition to the next activity and 2) respond to or confirm the pupils' or the HRTs' responses. I will first start this subsection with the restatement of the definition of discourse markers, followed by the analysis of some typical discourse markers found in the current research data.

6.1.1.1 The Definition of Discourse Markers

As already discussed in the literature review on discourse markers in Chapter 3, Schiffrin (1987) defines discourse markers as 'sequentially dependent elements which bracket units

of talk' (p. 31), while Jucker and Ziv (1998) regard discourse markers as devices for structuring texts which show openings or closings, or transitions between discourse units. They also state that discourse markers are regarded as indicators of speakers and hearers' attitudes. That is, discourse markers basically work in interactions as 1) connecting utterances at a text level and 2) showing the intention of speakers and hearers at a pragmatic level.

In the following sections, I will specifically examine the discourse markers *OK* and *alright* (6.1.1.2), which are frequently observed in the current data, and the combined use of more than two discourse markers (6.1.1.3) to show what functions these discourse markers have in the context of English classes in S Primary School. The summary of Section 6.1.1 will be presented in 6.1.1.4.

6.1.1.2 Discourse Markers *OK* and *Alright*

Discourse markers, *OK* and *alright*, are frequently observed in the current data. As already explained in Chapter 3, *OK* and *alright* basically show marking boundaries with also various functions (Fraser, 2009; House, 2013; Liao, 2009; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013). The functions of the discourse marker *OK* and *alright* observed in the current data are: *OK* for showing response, marking boundaries, getting attention, and signaling openings (6.1.1.2.1), *alright* for showing confirmation and marking transition (6.1.1.2.2).

6.1.1.2.1 Discourse Marker *OK*

First of all, it is observed that a discourse marker *OK* is utilized by the ALTs to show responses, mark boundaries, get attention, and signal openings. Extract 1 shows the

discourse marker *OK*, used for responding to the HRT and marking boundaries, in a situation where the HRT raises her hand and tries to ask the ALT a question in the 5th graders' class.

[Extract 1] *OK* for Responding to the HRT and Marking Boundaries

[A5-ALT, H6-HRT]

1 A5[27]: Any questions ?

2 H6: 何かないの ?ないの ?質問なし ?

3 A5: No ?

((The pupils remain silent for two seconds. H6 then raises her hand to ask a question to the ALT))

4 →A5: *OK*, Takagi-sensei[28].

(Extract from Interaction 38)

Here, A5 responds to H6, who raises her hand to ask a question to A5, with the use of a discourse marker *OK* in the beginning of the sentence and mark a boundary from the silent situation to receive H6's question as a new topic (Liao, 2009; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013). The next extract also shows a discourse marker *OK*, for getting attention and marking boundaries, in a situation where the pupils practice snapping for the game activity in the 1st grade.

[27] There are five different ALTs and nine different HRTs involved in this research, who will be shown as A1 to A5 and H1 to H9 in each extract hereafter.
[28] All names are pseudonym hereinafter.

[Extract 2] *OK* for Getting Attention and Marking Boundaries

[A1-ALT]

((The pupils practice snapping respectively))

1 →A1: *OK* everyone, one more time

(Extract from Interaction 2)

Here, A1 uses a discourse marker *OK* in order to 1) get attention from the pupils (Fraser, 2009) and 2) mark boundaries since the pupils move from practicing respectively to practicing together (Liao, 2009; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013). Compared with Extract 1 where the pupils are quiet, A1 tries to get attention from the pupils with a louder voice in order to move on to the next activity since the class is noisy while the pupils are practicing snapping respectively. Thus, the discourse marker OK is utilized as an attention getter to mark boundaries. In addition to working as an attention getter, the discourse marker *OK* is also used for signaling openings, as observed in Extracts 3 and 4, which are situations where A1 starts a lesson.

[Extract 3] *OK* for Signaling Openings and Getting Attention

[A1-ALT]

1 →A1: *OK* everyone, please stand up

((Pupils stand up))

(Extract from Conversation 8)

[Extract 4] *OK* for Signaling Openings and Getting Attention

[A1-ALT]

1 →A1: *OK*, good afternoon class

(Extract from Conversation 6)

Here, the discourse marker *OK* is used to 1) signal openings in the beginning of the lesson (Castro, 2009; Liao, 2009; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013) and 2) get attention from the pupils (Fraser, 2009; O'Riordan & Chambers, 2006). *OK* could thus be used multi-functionally. Similarly, the discourse marker *alright* is also multifunctional, to which we will now turn.

6.1.1.2.2 Discourse Marker *Alright*

As already mentioned in Chapter 3, a discourse marker *alright* basically shows marking transition, the same as the discourse marker *OK*. Extract 5 is a situation where the pupils do Simon Says game, lead by the ALT, A1, in the 6th graders.

[Extract 5] *Alright* as marking transition

[A1-ALT, H8-HRT]

((After the first round of Simon Says game, some pupils sit down because of game over))

1 H8: はい、座ってる人はよく見て待っててね

(*OK, have a look of the game if you have a seat because of game over.*)

2 →A1: *Alright*↓ Simon says touch your toes… ((The game continues.))

(Extract from Conversation 6)

Here, after the first round of Simon Says game, some pupils become game over and sit

down. H8, therefore, tells them to have a look of the game in line 1, stating ‘はい、座ってる人はよく見て待っててね (*OK, have a look of the game if you have a seat because of game over.*)’. A1 then starts the second round of the game in line 2, using a discourse marker ‘alright’ with falling intonation in order to mark boundary (Liao, 2009; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013) from the first round to the second one. Similarly, the next extract also shows the discourse marker *alright* working as marking transition in a situation where the ALT tells the pupils how to use *Ohajiki* [marbles] in an activity for the 5th graders.

[Extract 6] *Alright* as confirmation and marking transition

[A1-ALT, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: Everyone, are you ready?

2 Ps: Yes

3 →A1: *Alright*, let’s play

(Extract from Interaction 5)

Here in line 1, A1 asks the pupils whether they are ready for the game by saying ‘Everyone, are you ready?’ and the pupils respond to this, stating ‘Yes’ in line 2. Therefore, A1 uses a discourse marker *alright* in the beginning of line 3 to show his confirmation and transition to the game activity followed by a phrase ‘let’s play’ (Liao, 2009; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013). It is also observed that the discourse marker *alright* is also utilized to show confirmation and transition as seen in Extract 7, which is a situation where A1 asks the pupils if they have understood the directions at the end of the activity in the 6th grade.

[Extract 7] *Alright* as showing confirmation and marking transition

[A1-ALT, H8-HRT, P6-1, 16-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: Oh OK. It's department store. Very good guys very good! Very good everyone, can you do direction?

2 P6-1[29]: *えっ?* (*Eh?*)

3 A1: So so?

4 H8: *大丈夫? できた?* (*Are you OK? Did you get it?*)

5 Ps: ((Silence but nodding))

6 H8: *はい* ((Laughter)) (*Yes*)

7 →A1: *Alright* ↓ cool. Very good. I think we have, is it 30 35? (*Does the class continue until 30 or 35?*)

8 H8: 何分までだっけ? (*What time does the class continue to?*) ((H8 asks the question to the pupils))

9 P6-16: 35[sanjyu-go] (*Until 35*)

10 H8: 35[sanjyu-go] (*Until 35*)

((The class moves on to the closing as time is almost up))

(Extract from Interaction 6)

A1 thus uses the discourse marker *alright* to show his confirmation of the pupils' response, followed by an adjective 'cool' and 'very good', and simultaneously mark transition (Liao, 2009; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2013) to closing the class.

[29] There are 41 pupils who are numbered with grades (P1-1 to P6-15) in the current thesis. The numbers after 'P' show the pupils' grades (1st to 6th grades) and the numbers after the hyphen indicate different pupils. In addition, other pupils will be shown as 'Ps' hereinafter.

In this extract, although the pupils could not understand what A1 said in line 1 at first, they could get it through owing to P6-1's clarification request 'えっ?' in line 2 and H8's rephrasing in Japanese '大丈夫?できた?' in line 4. Although they could not respond to A1 and H8's questions in lines 1, 3, and 4 with utterances, they showed their response by nodding in line 5, and A1 and H8 understood it. After confirming the pupils' understanding, H8 responds to A1's question in line 1 with an utterance 'はい(*Yes*)' in line 6 instead of the pupils. A1 seems to have understood what the pupils intended to say by nodding (see Chapter 7 for the detail of silence accompanied with nodding) with the help also by H8's response in Japanese. Thus, he utters 'Alright', showing confirmation and marking transition. In the following section, we will discuss two discourse markers simultaneously used.

6.1.1.3 The Combined Use of More than Two Discourse Markers

In his study, Fraser (2009) points out that there is sometimes a case that two discourse markers are used at one time in a sentence and a similar case is found in the present research. Therefore, I will introduce some examples in which two (or more) discourse markers are used simultaneously and investigate functions of the markers in the following. First, Extract 8 is a situation where A4 asks the pupils about their winter vacation at the beginning of the lesson as a warm-up for the 2nd graders.

[Extract 8] The use of discourse markers *OK* and *So*

[A4-ALT, P2-1-Pupil]

1 →A4: *OK so* winter vacation 冬休み (*winter vacation*)

2 P2-1: え？(*Eh?*)

3 A4: 冬休みどこに行った？(*Where did you go during winter vacation?*)

(Extract from Interaction 35)

Here in line 1, A4 uses a discourse marker *OK* in order to 1) mark transition to next utterances (Liao, 2009), that is, from the greeting at the beginning of the lesson to talking about winter vacation as a warm-up, 2) signal topic orientation (Fraser, 2009), and 3) get attention from listeners (Fraser, 2009). Moreover, A4 also utilizes a discourse marker *so* in order to signal a transition for a management of discourse topics (in the above extract, winter vacation) (Schiffrin, 1987), mark a unit of main idea (Müller, 2005), mark a boundary (Müller, 2005), signal topic orientation (Fraser, 2009), and introduce a 'latent but unexplored topic' (Fraser, 2009, p. 896). So, by using both *OK* and *so*, A4 emphasizes marking boundary/transition of activities during lessons, and additionally by using so, he gets attention from the pupils. A similar use of discourse markers is also observed in Extract 9, which is a situation where A4 introduces a Christmas drama in Ghana to the 6th graders. Here, in fact, three discourse markers, OK, so, and now are consecutively used.

[Extract 9] The use of discourse markers *OK*, *so*, and *now*

[A5-ALT]

1 →A5: *OK, so now* let's move on.

2 So, in Ghana, on Christmas day, we have Christmas drama

((The ALT puts some pictures on blackboard))

(Extract from Interaction 40)

Here in line 1, firstly, by using a discourse marker *OK*, A5 marks 1) boundary (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), 2) transitions to next utterances (Liao, 2009), 3) the end of part of the lesson and alerts learners to the fact that the lesson has moved on (Walsh, 2013), and 4) topic orientation in terms of an attention marker *OK* (Fraser, 2009). Secondly, by using a discourse marker *so*, the ALT shows turn transition for a management of discourse topics (Schiffrin, 1987) and marks a boundary (Müller, 2005). In addition, by using a discourse marker *so*, the ALT signals topic orientation, gets attention from listeners, and tells the pupils 'the fact that there is going to be a change' (Fraser, 2009, p. 896). Thirdly, by using a discourse marker *now*, the ALT shows marking boundaries (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), shows immediacy of movement (Fraser, 2009), gets attention (Schiffrin, 1987), and takes turn to control the topic (Schiffrin, 1987). It is noteworthy that all these three discourse markers have similar functions, that is, marking boundaries, showing transitions, and orienting topics. Furthermore, a phrase 'let's move on', which clearly states the transition verbally, is used after these discourse markers *OK*, *so*, and *now*, further emphasizing that the topic will be shifted to the next one. Thus, the transition is clearly marked with the multiple use of discourse markers and the explicit statement (see also, e.g. Björkman, 2014; Mauranen, 2012 for more detailed information on the importance of explicitness in ELF interactions), so that the pupils can follow the change of topics. Based on these results, Section 6.1.1.4 will briefly summarize Section 6.1.1.

6.1.1.4 Summary of Section 6.1.1

Section 6.1.1 has mainly analyzed the use of discourse markers *OK* and *alright*, and the combined use of more than two of these discourse markers by the ALTs. It is found that *OK* is used to show response, mark boundaries, get attention and signal openings, while

a discourse marker *alright* is used to mark transition and confirm the interlocutors' response. Thus, in the current research, the ALTs have often used *OK* and *alright* to signal transitions to the pupils and the HRTs in order to smoothly lead the classes. Secondly, the ALTs have used more than two discourse markers simultaneously in order to emphasize marking boundary/transition of activities during lessons and get attention from the pupils. In relation to conducting classes smoothly, scaffolding is another phenomenon often observed in English lessons in S Primary School. Scaffolding has been reviewed under sociocultural theory in Chapter 2. However, the present research will analyze how teachers and pupils achieve language learning, that is, for example, how the HRTs and the ALTs scaffold the pupils, utilizing classroom discourse analytic approach. By doing this, the status of the use of scaffolding would be revealed in the following section.

6.1.2 The Use of Scaffolding[30]

This section investigates scaffolding used among the HRT, ALT and pupils during English lessons in the current research. Regarding the definition of scaffolding, Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) define scaffolding as a 'process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his (sic) unassisted efforts' (p. 90). The present research has found that not only the ALTs, the HRTs and the pupils respectively use scaffolding in the classroom, but also the ALT and the HRT collaboratively scaffold the pupils during English lessons in order to deepen their understanding. Therefore, in addition to the scaffolding conducted by each party, the collaborative scaffolding by the ALT and the HRT will also be presented in the following section.

[30] Part of the section will be published as a paper in *The Bulletin of the Graduate School of Education of Waseda University* (see Shino, in press).

The section consists of five subsections. Section 6.1.2.1 investigates scaffolding used for step-by-step elicitation of the answer (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Michell & Sharpe, 2005) from a pupil by the HRT. Section 6.1.2.2 illustrates scaffolding used for marking important points (Vine, 2008; Wood, et al, 1976) by the ALT. Section 6.1.2.3 explains scaffolding used for the pupils' 'frustration control' (Wood, et al, 1976) by the ALT. Section 6.1.2.4 examines collaborative scaffolding used by the ALT and the HRT for marking critical features and frustration control (Vine, 2008; Wood, et al, 1976). Section 6.1.2.5 explains scaffolding used by translation by the advanced pupil. Finally, Section 6.1.2.6 summarizes this section.

6.1.2.1 Scaffolding Used for Step-by-step Elicitation of an Answer from the Pupils by the HRTs

It is observed that scaffolding is utilized by the HRTs to gradually elicit the answer from the pupils. This type of scaffolding is used by the teacher when he/she would like to elicit the answer from the pupils as much as possible and let them find the answer by themselves. To do so, here the HRT, H5, changes the forms or contents of questions, i.e. reformulates the questions, instead of directly giving answers to their questions. Extract 10 is a situation where the ALT, A4, introduces a Christmas drama in Ghana to the 6th graders.

[Extract 10] Scaffolding Used for Step-by-step Elicitation of an Answer from the Pupils by the HRTs

[A4-ALT, P6-2, 3-Pupil, Ps-Pupils, H5-HRT]

1 A4: So in Ghana, on Christmas day, we have Christmas drama yes drama about Christmas

((A4 puts some pictures on the blackboard))

2 Ps: 何？何？Drama[dráːmə]? (*What? What? Drama?*)

3 →H5: Drama [dráːmə]って何？(*What does drama mean?*)

4 P6-2: ドラマ[doramá]？ドラマ[doramá]？(*TV drama? TV drama?*)

5 →H5: 日本語で言って。(*Say it in Japanese.*)

6 P6-2: ドラマ[dórama] (*TV drama*)

7 →H5: 皆だったらああいうの何？何ていう？(*What do you say that in Japanese?* [H5 points to a picture on the blackboard.]

8 P6-2: マジックじゃない、何だっけ (*It is not a magic… let me see*)

9 →H5: 昼休みに練習したでしょ？ (*You practiced it [drama] during lunch time, didn't you?*)

10 P6-2: なわとび？(Rope skipping?)

11 →H5: 保健委員会で (*You practiced it during the lunchbreak for the health committee, didn't you?*)

12 P6-2&P6-3: 劇 (*Drama*)

13 H5: うん (*Yes*)

14 A4: Yes OK so we have Christmas drama

(Extract from Interaction 40)

In this extract, scaffolding is used by H5 in order to gradually elicit the answer from the pupils not directly giving the answers to them but letting them find the answers as much as possible with the use of repetition and clarification (Michell & Sharpe, 2005) in line 3, a high demand question (Michell & Sharpe, 2005), that is, '日本語で言って。(*Say it in Japanese.*)' in line 5, a cued question (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) when pointing at a

picture as indexical scaffolding (Michell & Sharpe, 2005)[31], that is, '皆だったらああいうの何？何ていう？(*What do you say that in Japanese?* [H5 points to a picture on the blackboard.])' in line 7, and linking to prior experience and pointing forward (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) and cued elicitation (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005), that is, '昼休みに練習したでしょ？ (*You practiced it [drama] during lunch time, didn't you?*)' in line 9, and '保健委員会で (*You practiced it during the lunchbreak for the health committee, didn't you?*)' in line 11 (for 'requesting and giving help' as mediation strategies, see Xu & Kou, 2017 in Section 2.1).

Related to linking to prior experience (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) in lines 9 and 11, H5 in this extract also seems to assist pupils by understanding their 'context of situation' (House, 2009, p. 13) and stimulating their 'schema', which is 'a construct of familiar knowledge' (Widdowson, 2007, p. 28) that people have in their minds on the basis of their experiences (Cook, 1997, p. 86) to let the pupils find out the English meaning of 'drama' by themselves.

On the whole, in line 1, A4 introduces a Christmas drama in Ghana, putting some pictures on the blackboard. The pupils wonder what the pictures are about in line 2 '何？何？Drama? (*What? What? Drama?*)', picking up the word 'drama' as they understand the word 'drama' not as a 'theatrical play' but as 'TV drama'. H5 realizes the pupils' confusion and asks the pupils what drama means here by repeating the relevant word 'drama' to clarify the meaning of it in English in line 3 'Drama って何？(*What does drama mean?*)'. In line 5 '日本語で言って (*Say it in Japanese.*)', H5 asks a high

[31] Michell and Sharpe (2005) propose indexical scaffolding in which learners are supported by teachers' 'pointing at and underlining of' their writing on specific information, for example, mathematical rules written on the blackboard. The situation where H5 points at a picture of drama on the blackboard in this extract is not exactly the same situation with the mathematic lesson proposed by Michell and Sharpe (2005), however, I will regard that indexical scaffolding also happens in line 7.

demand question (Michell & Sharpe, 2005) to let the pupils again think about its meaning. However, one of the pupils (P6-2) keeps acknowledging drama as TV drama in lines 4 ‘ドラマ[doramá]？ドラマ[doramá]？ (*TV drama? TV drama?*)’ and 6 ‘ドラマ[dórama] (*TV drama*)’, so H5 again asks the pupils how they say it in Japanese, pointing out the pictures of drama on the blackboard. Furthermore, H5 adds a hint ‘昼休みに練習したでしょ？ (*You practiced it during your lunchbreak for the health committee, didn't you*)’ in lines 9 and 11 ‘保健委員会で (*for the health committee*)’. Eventually, P6-2 and P6-3 recognize the meaning of drama ‘劇 (*Drama*)’ in line 12. Thus, H5 scaffolds the pupils in order to let them realize the meaning of the word ‘drama’ step by step with the use of various scaffolding way.

To sum up, H5 tries to scaffold the pupils’ understanding by step-by-step elicitation of the answers from them with the use of various strategies such as repetition, clarification, cued elicitation, and linking to their prior experience, considering the context of the situation and stimulating their schema. The second type of scaffolding is used for marking important features.

6.1.2.2 Scaffolding Used for Marking Critical Features by the ALTs

Scaffolding is used by the ALT to ‘mark critical features’, by which learners are shown important points of tasks by an expert (Vine, 2008; Wood, et al, 1976, see also Chapter 2). Extract 11 is a situation where the class does Bingo game and some pupils are close to have ‘Bingo’ in the 1st grade class.

[Extract 11] Scaffolding Used for Marking Critical Features by the ALTs

[A1-ALT, P1-1, 2, 3-Pupil]

1 A1: Any reach reach reach? Oh reach? OK

2 P1-1: リーチって？ (*What is 'reach'?*)

3 →A1: OK OK reach four four reach. No bingo but four. Four reach four.

4 P1-2: あと一個でビンゴ (*I have one more to have Bingo.*)

5 P1-3: あと一個でビンゴ (*I have one more to have Bingo.*)

6 A1: OK here we go

(Extract from Interaction 2)

In this extract, scaffolding is used by A1 in order to mark critical features (Wood, et al, 1976), i.e. by repeating keywords 'reach' and 'four', in line 3. In line 1, A1 asks whether there is a pupil who has one more to have 'Bingo' in line 1. P1-1 does not know the meaning of 'reach' and asks about it in Japanese in line 2. Therefore, A1 explains what 'reach' means in order to mark critical features (Wood, et al, 1976) by repeating the key word 'reach' three times and 'four' five times and clarifying what 'reach' is by stating 'No bingo but four' in line 3. Furthermore, it seems that the explanation by A1 in line 3 assists not only P1-1's but also other pupils' understanding, and thus P1-2 assists P1-1's understanding by confirming it in Japanese, stating 'あと一個でビンゴ (*I have one more to have Bingo*)'.

Thus, Extract 11 has shown that A1 scaffolds the pupil by marking critical features, using various strategies such as repetition and clarification, when P1-1 does not understand what A1 says in the game activity. Additionally, A1's scaffolding eventually assists not only P1-1's but also other pupils' deep understanding. Thus, we have so far seen scaffolding used by HRTs and ALTs separately. Scaffolding, however, is not only used by the HRTs and the ALTs respectively but also collaboratively utilized by both the

ALT and the HRT, to which we will now turn.

6.1.2.3 Collaborative Scaffolding Used for Marking Critical Features and Frustration Control by the ALTs and the HRTs

In the present research, it is further observed that both the ALT and the HRT collaboratively use scaffolding to mark critical features (Vine, 2008; Wood, et al, 1976) and limit the pupils' frustration (Wood, et al, 1976). Extract 12 is a situation where A1 explains a rule of 'Simon says' game to the 6th graders.

[Extract 12] Collaborative Scaffolding Used for Marking Critical Features and Frustration Control by the ALTs and the HRTs

[A1-ALT, H8-HRT, P6-1-Pupil]

1 A1: Now Simon says one rule Simon says touch your head

2 H8: って言ったら触るんだよ (*If the ALT says 'Simon says touch your head', you touch your head.*)

3 A1: Simon says touch your knees. Simon says touch your toes. Touch your

4 head. Oh out

5 P6-1: は？どういう意味？なんで？ (*What? What does that mean? Why?*)

6 → A1: No Simon says. No touch

7 P6-1: 知らないよ。わかんないよ。(*I don't know. I don't understand.*)

8 → H8: Simon says って言わない時はやっちゃいけないんだよ (*If the ALT does not say 'Simon says', you mustn't do it.*)

9 P6-1: なんで？なんでやっちゃいけないの？ (*Why? Why mustn't I do it?*)

10 →H8: そういうゲーム (*Because it's that kind of game.*)

11 P6-1: ふむ (*I see.*) ((in a small voice))

12 A1: Not copy game not copy game, listen 'Simon says' alright

(Extract from Interaction 6)

Here, in lines 1 to 4, the ALT, A1, and the HRT, H8, explain the rules of the game both in English and Japanese. However, in line 5, P6-1 cannot understand the rules and becomes irritated 'は？どういう意味？なんで？(*What? What does it mean? Why is it out?*)', so A1 tries to explain the rules to the pupils again in line 6 by using simple English 'No Simon says. No touch', which seems scaffolding by the ALT to mark a critical feature (Wood, et al., 1976). However, P6-1 still cannot understand the rules and seems to get annoyed, saying in line 7 '知らないよ。わかんないよ。(*I don't know. I don't understand.*)'. In response to P6-1, who is irritated with the complex rules of the game, H8 explains the rules to him in Japanese, stating in line 8 'Simon says って言わない時はやっちゃいけないんだよ (*If the ALT does not say 'Simon says', you mustn't do any action.*)'. However, he cannot still understand why there is such a rule, saying in line 9 'なんで？なんでやっちゃいけないの？ (*Why? Why mustn't I do any action?*)', H8 therefore persuades him in line 10 by saying 'そういうゲーム (*Because it is the rule of this game.*)'. In response to this, P6-1 in line 11 shows his understanding, saying 'ふむ (*I see*)' in a small voice.

In this extract, P6-1 cannot understand not only the rules of the game but also why he has to follow them, so he gets irritated. Therefore, not only A1's scaffolding with simple English but also H8's scaffolding, using the pupil's L1 are helpful to control his frustration and tell him why he has to follow the rules. Thus, Extract 12 has revealed that there is a case that both the ALT and the HRT collaboratively scaffold pupils. If they are

irritated, not understanding the ALT's explanation, not only an explanation in simple English by the ALT but also an explanation/persuasion in Japanese by the HRT would be effective to control their frustration. Apart from this collaborative type of scaffolding, the final type of scaffolding is used by the advanced pupil to help a novice one by translation.

6.1.2.4 Scaffolding by the Pupils' Translation

Scaffolding is also used by an advanced pupil to help a novice one by translating what the ALT has said in English into the pupils' L1 (Japanese). Extract 13 shows scaffolding in a situation where A1 tells the pupils how to use *Ohajiki* [marbles] in an activity for the 5th graders.

[Extract 13] Scaffolding by the Pupils' Translation

[A1-ALT, P5-1, 6-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: Use five *ohajiki* (marbles) and put them on any five pictures ((with gestures))

2 →P5-6: どういうこと？(*What does it mean?*)

3 →P5-1: 絵を 5 枚選んでおはじきをのせるってことじゃない？(*Doesn't it mean we will choose five pictures and put ohajiki on each of them.*)

4 A1: Yes, that's right!

(Extract from Interaction 5)

Here in line 1, A1 explains how to use marbles with gestures, stating 'Use five *ohajiki* (marbles) and put them on any five pictures'. However, P5-6, in line 2, does not understand what A1 said and requests for help by saying 'どういうこと？(*What does it mean?*)' in Japanese. In response to this, P5-1 in line 3 answers '絵を 5 枚選んでおは

じきをのせるってことじゃない？(*Doesn't it mean we will choose five pictures and put ohajiki on each of them.*)', roughly translating what A1 said in English into Japanese. This interaction between P5-6 and P5-1 could be interpreted as 'collective scaffolding' (Donato, 1994) and show how the pupils cooperate with each other (see Ohta, 2000; Takahashi, 1998; Umino, 2008 in Chapter 2 for collective scaffolding among peers). In line 4, A1 confirms what P5-1 said by saying 'Yes, that's right!'. This is because A1 can understand Japanese to some degree, and his confirmation 'Yes, that's right' could give confidence to P5-1 who responded to P5-6's request for help with a modest answer which ends '－じゃない(*Doesn't it mean…*)' with rising intonation. 'じゃない(not…)' shows a polite negative question when it is used with rising intonation (Saegusa, 2004)[32]. The next section will summarize Section 6.2.

6.1.2.5 Summary of Section 6.1.2

To sum up, Section 6.1.2 has demonstrated that scaffolding is utilized by the three parties with various ways and functions mainly in order to achieve the pupils' clear and deep understanding and reduce their frustration in English lessons. More specifically, it has been found, first, the HRT tries to scaffold the pupils by gradually eliciting the answers from the pupils with the use of repetition, clarification, cued elicitation, and linking to their prior experience, considering the context of the situation and stimulating their schema. Second, the ALT scaffolds the pupil by 'marking critical features' (Wood et al., 1976) when a pupil does not know the word in the game activity, using repetition and clarification, and this eventually assists not only the pupil but also other pupils' deep understanding. Third, there is a case where both the ALT and the HRT collaboratively

[32] Saegusa (2004) regards 'じゃない[jyanai]' as a sentence-ending particle.

scaffold the pupils by not only explanations in simple English by the ALT but also translation into Japanese by the HRT to control the pupil's frustration when the pupil seems to get irritated during the lesson. Finally, there is a case where the advanced pupil helps the novice one by translation as scaffolding.

The pupils' frustration with English language learning needs to be reduced as much as possible since the MEXT (2010) proposes one of the goals of English education in Japanese primary schools is 'to experience the joy of communication in the foreign language' (p. 1). Therefore, the effective use of scaffolding in English lessons would be helpful to assist pupils' target language learning with joy and achieve mutual understanding among HRTs, ALTs and pupils in classrooms. Apart from scaffolding, the use of the interlocutors' first language appears to be effective for the same purposes, which we will investigate in the next section.

6.1.3 The Use of the Interlocutors' First Language in Deepening Understanding[33][34]

Fukatsu-Shino (2010) and Shino (2014), in which the current author investigated English education in a Japanese primary school, show that both HRTs and ALTs have little confidence when they use their interlocutors' first languages, that is to say, in this case English and Japanese respectively, in/out of English lessons, as they are keen to communicate with one another (and the pupils). It is also revealed in several studies that pupils tend to feel foreign language anxiety when they learn target languages (e.g., Trang

[33] Both discourse markers and the use of L1 could be observed in the process of scaffolding as we have already seen in the extracts above. However, the present research investigates these features respectively in order to specifically investigate each feature.

[34] Part of the section was published as papers in *Essays on English Language and Literature* and *The Bulletin of the Graduate School of Education of Waseda University,* and as a book chapter in M. Konakahara and K. Tsuchiya (eds.), *English as a lingua franca in Japan: Towards multilingual practices* (see Shino, 2014a; Shino, 2019; Shino, 2020).

et al., 2013; Tsui, 1996). In the present research, however, the three parties are frequently observed to actively try to use their interactants' first languages in/out of class hours for achieving the goal of the lesson or keeping the conversation topic going. The section, therefore, will examine how they positively make efforts to use their interlocutors' first languages with each another and how these efforts affect their language learning and teaching in S Primary School.

The section mainly consists of three parts. That is, Section 6.1.3.1 illustrates the use of Japanese by the ALTs. Section 6.1.3.2 examines the use of English by the HRTs. Section 6.1.3.3 reveals collaborative use of interlocutors' first languages by the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils. Finally, Section 6.1.3.4 summarizes Section 6.1.3. The section will start with the use of Japanese by the ALTs.

6.1.3.1 The Use of Japanese by the ALTs

In this section, efforts to use Japanese by the ALTs will be investigated. In the present research, the functions of using Japanese by the ALTs are found to be as follows: 1) getting attention, 2) elicitation, 3) encouragement, 4) clarification, 5) checking understanding, and 6) asking a favor. The ALTs' use of Japanese to get attention from the pupils will be firstly examined as shown in Extracts 14 and 15, which take place in the same situation where the ALT gets ready for the game activity for the 3rd graders.

[Extract 14] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Getting Attention from the Pupils

[A3-ALT]

((The pupils are noisy during the ALT's explanation of the game))

1 →A3: Listen shh 皆さん 皆さん (*everyone everyone*) shh shh

((The pupils become quitet))

(Extract from Interaction 25)

[Extract 15] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Getting Attention from the Pupils

[A3-ALT]

((The game proceeds but the pupils are excited and noisy))

1 →A3: はい, 皆さん (*OK, everyone*) Shh, OK

(Extract from Interaction 25)

Here in Extract 14, A3 tells the pupils to be quiet, repeating Japanese '皆さん (*everyone*)' to get attention from the pupils after failing to make them quiet, stating 'listen' in English while explaining the rules of the game. The pupils become quiet once, however, as the game starts and proceeds, they again get so excited and noisy that A3 again tells the pupils to be quiet in Extract 15, using Japanese 'はい, 皆さん (*OK, everyone*)' in line 1 in order to get attention from them. The next extract is also a situation where the ALT, A1, uses Japanese to get attention from pupils when 1st graders are very excited when playing the game of ABC bingo.

[Extract 16] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Getting Attention from the Pupils

[A1-ALT, P1-4, 5-Pupil]

1 →A1: OK here we go. Everyone, final final one ((pupils are too excited and noisy))

2 最後だよ (*This time is final*.)

3 P1-4: 最後だって (*He says this time is final.*)

4 P1-5: え、どうして？(*Eh? Why?*)

5 A1: Final, here we go

(Extract from Interaction 9)

Here in line 1, A1 tells the pupils that the next call of the number is the final one in English first, repeating the word 'final' twice. However, the pupils are too excited to listen to A1's announcement. Therefore, A1 in line 2 uses Japanese '最後だよ (*This time is final*.)' to get attention from them. Most pupils do not seem to listen to A1's utterance but P1-4 notices what A1 said in Japanese and tells it to the whole class in line 3 by repeating '最後([*this time is*] *final*)' in saying 'ーだって (*He says…*)'. Then, the pupils realize what P1-4 says and stop talking although P1-5 asks the question 'え、どうして？(*Eh? Why?*)' in line 4. Thus, in this extract, A1 uses Japanese to get attention from the pupils. The effort to use Japanese by A1 here seems to be effective to manage the pupils' behavior. Japanese is also utilized by the ALT for elicitation as shown in Extract 17, which is a situation where the ALT, A4, asks the pupils about their winter vacation at the beginning of a lesson for the 2nd graders.

[Extract 17] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Elicitation

[A4-ALT, H3-HRT, P2-2-Pupil]

1 A4: OK, who went skiing? Ski ski ski

((Some pupils raise their hands))

2 A4: Ski oh good

3 →A4: T 動物公園? (*T Zoo?* [the name of the zoo]) ((Raising his hand to ask if there is a pupil who went to T Zoo))

4 P2-2: ん? (*What?*)

5 H3: T 動物公園に行った人? (*Is there anyone who went to T Zoo?*)

((Some pupils raise their hands))

(Extract from Interaction 35)

Here in line 3, after talking about going skiing in English, A4 suddenly asks the pupils in Japanese if there is someone who went to T Zoo during the winter vacation, 'T 動物公園? (*T Zoo?*)'. A4 might have used Japanese because it is a Japanese place name and that he assumes that the pupils do not know the English word 'zoo'. However, most pupils do not seem to get what A4 has said and P2-2 clarifies A4's utterance, using a minimal response (Jefferson, 1974; 1984; Schegloff et al., 1977) 'ん? (*What?*)' in Japanese in line 4. Therefore, H3 in line 5 then asks the question in a slightly elaborated way by adding a phrase 'ーに行った人? (*Is there anyone who went to…*)' in Japanese on behalf of A4. Thus, A4's sudden use of Japanese for the sake of eliciting the pupils' answer is not directly understood by the pupils, but H3 helps A4 to elaborate the question and finally the pupils understand what A4 has asked. Extract 18 is another example of the use of Japanese by the ALT for elicitation where A3 introduces himself in the first lesson for the 2nd graders.

[Extract 18] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Elicitation

[A3-ALT, H9-HRT]

1 A3: Jamaica has three colors one same color two same color three same color

2 → three colors what are they?

3 → なになに? (*What are they? What are they?*) Challenge!

4 → Three colors, black purple なに? (*What are they?*) Challenge!

5 H9: 想像して言ってみなさい? 何でもいいの。間違ってもいいからね (*Imagine the colors and tell them. Any color is OK. Making a mistake is OK*)

(Extract from Interaction 23)

Here in lines 1 to 4, A3 asks the pupils about the national colors of Jamaica in English in lines 1 and 2 and then uses Japanese 'なになに? (*What are they? What are they?*)', repeating the final question he asked in the preceding line in in English 'what are they?' in Japanese in line 3, and further 'なに? (*What are they?*)' in line 4. The pupils do not seem to clearly understand what A3 has said. Therefore, in line 5, H9 in Japanese encourages them to guess and say colors without being afraid of making a mistake.

Thus, Extracts 17 and 18 have indicated that the ALTs use Japanese for elicitation of the answers from the pupils. Although they sometimes fail to directly elicit responses from the pupils as seen in Extract 17, the HRTs often follow up their elicitations in Japanese as seen in both Extracts 17 and 18. Even if ALTs' utterance in Japanese is not directly and clearly understood by the pupils, HRTs usually help him/her and ALTs' efforts to use interlocutors' first language would be appreciated by pupils and HRTs as they know how difficult it is to use a foreign language as they are also learners of English (e.g., Tsui, 1996; Trang, et al., 2013; Tum, 2015).

Japanese is also used by the ALTs to encourage the pupils to try to begin a new game activity and respond to a challenging question by themselves. Extract 19 is a situation where the ALT, A3, encourages the pupils to say a key phrase 'How is the weather?' in the beginning of the game activity in the 3rd graders' class.

[Extract 19] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Encouragement

[A3-ALT, H4-HRT, Ps-Pupils]

1 →A3: OK, let's go. OK, せーの (*Here we go!*)

2 H4&Ps: How is the weather?

3 →A3: せーの (*Here we go!*)

4 H4&Ps: How is the weather?

(Extract from Interaction 27)

Here in line 1, A3 encourages the pupils to say the key phrase 'How is the weather?', using an English phrase 'let's go' first, and then a Japanese phrase 'せーの (*Here we go*)' for the second time. That is, he code-switches English into Japanese in order to encourage the pupils to utter the target phrase 'How is the weather?'. In line 3, A3 again encourages the pupils to say the phrase, repeating 'せーの (*Here we go!*)' in Japanese. Thanks to A3's use of Japanese, the pupils and H4 smoothly say it after the encouragement of A3 in Japanese. Extract 20 also shows a situation where the same ALT, A3, encourages the pupils to answer the question 'Do you like~?' with the 5th graders when he wraps up the lesson at the end of the class.

[Extract 20] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Encouragement

[A3-ALT, Ps-Pupils]

1 →A3: Now, my questions to you are 皆さん, Do you like T-shirts?

2 はいせーの (*Everyone, do you like T-shirt? OK, here we go!*)

3 Ps: Yes, I do

(Extract from Interaction 30)

In line 1, A3 first states what his/her question is 'Now, my questions to you are' in English, followed by a Japanese address term '皆さん(*Everyone*)' to get attention from the pupils and then 'Do you like T-shirts?'. A3 then code-switches to Japanese, stating 'はいせーの(*OK, here we go!*)' in line 2 to encourage them to respond to his question. Although A3's question in line 1 'Do you like T-shirt?' seems a bit challenging to the pupils as they have just practiced the question and answer by repeating what A3 has said, and furthermore, it is the first time for them to answer the question without repeating A3's role model, the pupils answer the question without confusion as A3's encouragement in Japanese seems to have reduced the pupils' nervousness (Hall & Cook, 2012; House, 2009).

Thus, Extracts 19 and 20 has explained that the ALT effectively uses Japanese to encourage the pupils 1) when the pupils try to begin a new game activity and 2) when they try to respond to a challenging question by themselves. Japanese is also used by the ALT for clarification as shown in Extract 21, which is a situation where the ALT, A3, clarifies how to say 'How is the weather?' in Japanese to the HRT, H4, in the 3rd graders.

[Extract 21] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Clarification

[A3-ALT, H4-HRT]

1 A3: OK, today's phrase how today's phrase is 'How is the weather?'

2 H4: How is the weather?

3 A3: OK listen. How is the weather? How is the weather? How is the weather?

4 →A3: 日本語で言える？お天気… (*Can you say it in Japanese? Weather…*)

5 H4: お天気今日は何？ お天気何？ (*How is the weather today? How is the*

weather?)

6 →A3: そうそうそう(*Yes yes yes*) ((Laughter)) Yes ((Laughter)) How is the weather?

(Extract from Interaction 27)

Here in line 1, A3 introduces the day's topic phrase 'How is the weather?'. After repeating the phrase three times in line 3, he also asks the meaning of the phrase in Japanese to H4 in line 4, using Japanese '日本語で言える？お天気… (*Can say it in Japanese? Weather…*)' in order to clarify the meaning in Japanese for the sake of pupils (Liu et al., 2004). In line 5, H4 answers the question in Japanese 'お天気今日は何？ お天気何？ (*How is the weather today? How is the weather?*)' and A3 responds to it, using an informal confirmation in Japanese 'そうそうそう (*Yes yes yes*)' to acknowledge H4's answer.

Thus, Extract 21 has illustrated that A3 also uses Japanese when he wants to clarify the meaning of the target phrase in Japanese in order to achieve the pupils' clear understanding. It might be helpful for the pupils' better understanding to get to know what the target phrase means in their L1 as seen in Extract 21. Japanese is also used by the ALTs for checking the pupils' understanding. Extract 22 is a situation where the ALT, A3, lets the pupils answer the key question of the lesson at the end of the class in the 5th graders, using Japanese.

[Extract 22] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Checking Pupils' Understanding[35]

[35] Here, whether the teaching methods used by the ALTs in general are effective or not in teaching languages is a different matter as the thesis does not deal with the effectiveness of teaching methods.

[A3-ALT, H5-HRT, Ps-Pupils]

1 →A3: OK today's topic, today's topic is 'Do you have 何々?' (*blah blah?*)

2 H5: Mm hmm

3 →A3: はいそうです, 英語で? (*Yes, I do. What do you say in English?*)

4 H5&Ps: Yes, I do

5 A3: Yes, I do

6 →A3: いいえいいえ, 英語で? (*No, I don't. What do you say in English?*)

7 H5&Ps: No, I don't

8 A3: No, I don't.

(Extract from Interaction 30)

In this extract, A3, in explaining the structure 'Do you know...?', inserts '何々?' in Japanese instead of 'blah blah' in English in a slot in line 1 for the pupils' clear understanding. In addition, he also uses Japanese in line 3 'はいそうです, 英語で? (*Yes, I do. What do you say in English?*)' and line 6 'いいえいいえ, 英語で? (*No. No. What do you say in English?*)' to check the pupils' understanding of the question-answer pattern 'Do you like~?'-'Yes, I do./No, I don't.' and also to elicit the regular patterns of the answer.

Finally, it is also observed that the ALTs use Japanese in order to ask a favor from the pupils. Extract 23 is a situation where the ALT, A3, asks the 2nd graders to return their desks to the original position after a game activity.

[Extract 23] Use of Japanese by the ALT for Asking a Favor

[A3-ALT, H3-HRT, P2-3, 4-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 →A3: 机をお願いします (*Please* [*return*] *your desks* [*to their original position*])

2 Some Ps: 机をお願いします (*Please return your desks to the original position*)

((Everyone returns his/her desk to the original position))

(Extract from Interaction 35)

Here in line 1, A3 asks the pupils to return their desks to their original position in Japanese after the game activity. He uses Japanese at a shortened whole sentence level because he would like the pupils to quickly return their desks to their original position by directly asking in their L1 (Japanese) as it is time to finish the lesson and judges that it would be more effective to use Japanese in this situation, omitting the verb '元に(return)', the particle 'to', and the phrase 'their original position' by saying '机をお願いします (*Please* [*return*] *your desks* [*to the original position*])'. Thanks to A3's use of Japanese in direct instruction in Japanese, some pupils also repeat what A3 said, i.e. '机をお願いします (*Please return your desks to their original position*)', to the class and all the pupils start to move their desks quickly to the original position. Thus, the ALT also uses Japanese in order to directly ask the pupils to effectively and efficiently do something, especially when he has to finish the lesson quickly due to the limited lesson time available.

In this way, the ALTs use Japanese during the English lessons for various purposes. However, the main purpose of using Japanese is to achieve the pupils' clear and deep understanding, simultaneously getting rid of their nervousness when using English. Furthermore, the ALT's efforts to use his/her foreign language (Japanese) in front of the pupils and the HRTs would show them a good role model as a language learner and user since the pupils and HRTs are also learning and using English in the classroom (Medgyes, 1994). On the other hand, the HRTs in their own way also make efforts to use English in

English classes, to which we will now turn.

6.1.3.2 The Use of English by the HRTs

In this section, efforts to use English as a lingua franca by the HRT will be investigated. In the present research, the functions of English used by the HRTs are categorized as follows: 1) classroom instructions, 2) managing pupils' behavior, 3) repetition-oriented instruction, 4) encouragement, and 5) praising. The section will start with using English by the HRT for classroom instructions as shown in Extract 24, which is a situation where the HRT, H4, starts an English lesson in the 3rd graders' class.

[Extract 24] Use of English by the HRTs for Classroom Instructions

[H4-HRT, Ps-Pupils]

1 →H4: はい stand up please.

((The pupils stand up))

2 H4: これから Kevin の英語の勉強を始めます

3 Ps: はい

(Extract from Interaction 27)

Here in line 1, H4 starts an English lesson using English 'stand up please' in order to give direction to the pupils and make them stand up. The pupils seem to understand H4's direction in English well since the sentence is a routine one used by the HRT and they are used to it (Nagy & Robertson, 2009).

It is also observed that English is used by the HRTs for the pupils' behavior management. Extract 25 is a situation where the ALT, A3, hands out Bingo sheets to each

pupil in the 3rd graders' class.

[Extract 25] Use of English by the HRTs for Managing the Pupils' Behavior

[A3-ALT, H9-HRT, Ps-Pupils]

((A3 hands out Bingo sheets to each pupil))

1 →H9: Thank you は? ([*Don't you say*] *'Thank you'?*)

2 Ps: Thank you ((The pupils say 'thank you' to A3 respectively))

(Extract from Interaction 31)

Here in line 1, H9 urges the pupils to say 'thank you' to A3 who gives Bingo sheets, using the combination of an English phrase 'thank you' and a Japanese particle 'は?' which means 'Don't you say~?' although the part 'Don't you say~?' is literally omitted. In response to this, each pupil says 'thank you' to A3 when he/she gets a Bingo sheet. Extract 26 also shows the use of English by the HRT for the pupils' behavior management in a situation where the ALT, A1, and the HRT, H2, tell the 2nd grade pupils to listen to A1's instruction.

[Extract 26] Use of English by the HRTs for Managing the Pupils' Behavior

[A1-ALT, H2-HRT]

1 A1: O.K. everyone, please listen!

((The pupils are still noisy))

2 →H2: はい、シーッ！Listen だよ listen (*OK, Shh! Listen listen*)

(Extract from Interaction 1)

Here in line 1, A1 tells the pupils to be quiet and listen to his instructions. However, the pupils are still noisy. Therefore, in line 2, H2 also tells the pupils to listen to A1's instructions by saying 'はい、シーッ！Listen だよ listen (*OK, Shhh! Listen listen*)' by using Japanese discourse marker 'はい[hai] (OK)', which indicates transition to an instruction, and onomatopoeia '*shi::* (Shh)' to tell the pupils to be quiet. He then uses an English word 'listen' twice as an imperative form; combined first with a Japanese auxiliary verb 'だ [*da*]' and a Japanese sentence-ending particle 'よ [*yo*]' which is used to strengthen the imperative form 'Listen', 'Listen だよ', and next, only repeating the English imperative form 'listen'. Thus, in this extract, H2 partially uses English combined with Japanese during the lessons in order to manage the pupils' behavior. The HRTs are also observed using English in order to give repetition-oriented instruction. One example is Extract 27, which is a situation where the ALT, A1, asks the pupils about lunch on the day.

[Extract 27] Use of English by the HRTs for Repetition-oriented Instruction

[A1-ALT, H7-HRT, P6-4, 5-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: What's today's <u>lunch?</u>

2 → H7: <u>Lunch?</u>

3 P6-4: 麺類 (*noodles*)

4 H7: 麺類 (*noodles*)((Laughter))

5 A1: <u>Noodle? Noodle?</u>

6 → H7: <u>Noodle? Noodle?</u>

7 A1: It's Wednesday, noodle day. OK, everyone, <u>sit down</u>.

8 → H7: <u>Sit down</u>.

((The pupils sit down))

9 P6-4: ( ) 腹減った(( ) *I am hungry.*)

10 H7: 頑張れ、40 分経ったらご飯 (*Come on, we will have lunch in 40 minutes.*)

11 A1: OK, cool. Everyone, what day is it?

12 → H7: What day?

13 Ps: ((Individually)) Wednesday

14 A1: Yeah, Wednesday

15 →Ps&H7: Wednesday

16 A1: It's Wednesday today.

17 →Ps&H7: It's Wednesday today.

18 A1: Cool. Everyone, is it snowy today?

19 →H7: Snowy?

20 P6-5: No, it's sunny.

21 A1: Sunny?

22 →H7: Sunny

23 A1: Alright very good. Everyone, it's sunny today.

24 →Ps&H7: It's sunny today.

25 A1: OK, today, let's do a short warm-up.

26 →H7: Short warm-up

(Extract from Interaction 10)

In this extract, efforts to use English by H7 are seen, in his repeating what A1 has said in English entirely or partially, in lines2, 6, 8, 12, 15, 17, 19, 22, 24, and 26. These are

repetition-oriented instructions, just repeating what A1 has said in the preceding utterance, and they might be useful for the pupils to understand what A1 has said in English if they fail to listen to or understand it for the first time since they can listen to the same phrase twice in total. Moreover, the pupils are used to H7's voice and pitch of talking even when he speaks in English, so it could be helpful for the pupils to understand what A1 has said through H7's repetition. Thus, repetition here is used for securing pupils' clear understanding (see also 7.1 on the use of repetition).

English is also found to be used by the HRT to encourage the pupils to try to do an activity in front of the others. As an example, Extract 28 is a situation where the HRT, H7, asks the pupils to try an activity in front of their classmates, using English and Japanese in the 6th grader.

[Extract 28] Use of English by the HRTs for Encouragement

[A1-ALT, H7-HRT]

1 →H7: New person おらんの？New person? New person おらんの?

(*Isn't there a new person? New person? Isn't there a new person?*)

2 →A1: Come on! New person, try! Come on! You can do it! Come on!

(Extract from Interaction 10)

Here in line 1, H7 asks the pupils who have not tried the activity in front of their classmates yet to raise their hands 'New person おらんの? New person おらんの? (*Isn't there a new person? New person? Isn't there a new person?*)', using the English words 'new person' twice combined with the negative form of the Japanese verb 'oru', i.e. 'oran', which means 'there is no one', and the Japanese sentence-ending particle 'no' at the end

of a sentence with rising intonation, which functions as a question, meaning ‘Isn’t there a new person to answer the question?’ in order to encourage the pupils to try the activity in front of the class.

The HRT also uses English when praising pupils. Extract 29 is a situation where the ALT, A1, asks the pupils warm-up questions in the beginning of the lesson.

[Extract 29] Use of English by the HRTs for Praising

[A1-ALT, H7-HRT, P6-6, 7-Pupil]

1 A1: What’s this?

2 P6-6: シーディー[ʃi:di]? (*CD?*)

3 A1: Alright

4 →H7: Very good

5 A1: Who’s your friend? Who’s your friend?

((A1 asks P6-7 the name of her friend as there is a rule that a pupil who answers a question can sit down with his/her friend))

6 P6-7: ( ) [A pupil’s name]

7 H7: ( ) [A pupil’s name].

8 →H7: OK, good job

((Everyone in the classroom claps his/her hands))

(Extract from Interaction 10)

In this extract, H7 uses English ‘Very good’ in line 4 and in line 8 ‘OK, good job’ in order to praise the pupil. The warm-up question and answer session continue after line 8 and H7 continues to praise the pupils in English when they answer the questions. H7’s praising

encourages the pupils to raise their hands and answer the questions positively. Also, the use of English by H7 should show his/her active participation and could make a comfortable atmosphere in the English lessons, and A1 might feel a sense of teamwork.

Section 6.1.3.2 has found that the HRTs try to use English in order to give classroom instructions, manage behavior, do repetition-oriented instruction, encourage the pupils, and praise the pupils. Moreover, the use of English by the HRT would have an effect to show solidarity with the ALT by adjusting his/her 'language behavior in the interests of communicative effectiveness' (Widdowson, 1979, p. 196) and show the active attitude towards learning and using English as a learner (and also user) model of the pupils. The HRTs try to use English by using English combined with Japanese such as 'はい stand up please' / 'Thank you は?', using short English phrases such as 'Very good'/ 'OK, good job', and using repetition (repetition-oriented instructions). These attitudes should show the pupils that communication can be achieved by using whatever linguistic resources available to them even if their English proficiency is limited (Seidlhofer, 2011; Widdowson, 1994; 2003).

In relation to the HRTs' active attitude in English lessons, Butler (2004) examines primary school teachers' self-evaluation of their own English proficiency in Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. The result shows that 91.1% of primary school (NNS) teachers in Korea, 80.1 % in Taiwan, and 85.3 % in Japan feel their English proficiency is insufficient compared to 'the necessary minimum levels', especially as to oral production (Butler, 2004, p. 258, see also Butler, 2015). Fukatsu-Shino (2010) also administered a questionnaire to the HRTs in S Primary School in H City as part of her investigation into English education in a Japanese primary school. The result has revealed that 76.4% of the HRTs feel anxious about their English competence when team teaching with the ALT.

Based on the above results of the studies by Butler (2004; 2015) and Fukatsu-Shino (2010), it could be said that the HRTs reported in this section make efforts to use English although they have presumably little confidence in their English proficiency. The attitude of the HRTs should encourage the pupils to use English actively even if their English proficiency is limited and they have little confidence in using English. Furthermore, the HRTs' and pupils' positive attitude should also give the ALTs a sense of teamwork in team teaching. Accordingly, the HRTs' efforts to use English should motivate both the pupils and the ALT, and they would promote language learning and teaching as result. The three parties, in fact, sometimes use English and Japanese collaboratively as we will see in the following section.

6.1.3.3 Collaborative Use of English and Japanese by the Three Parties

This section will examine collaborative efforts to use English especially by the HRTs and pupils and Japanese by the ALTs to communicate with each other, starting with collaborative efforts to utilize English and Japanese by an HRT and an ALT. The ALT and the HRT are observed to collaboratively utilize their interactant's L1, in this case, English and Japanese respectively. Extract 30 shows a situation where the ALT, A2, introduces her favorite story to the 5th graders.

[Extract 30] Collaborative Use of Interactants' L1 (English and Japanese) by the HRT and the ALT

[A2-ALT, H9-HRT, P5-2, 3-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 A2: OK, my favorite story story my favorite story is 'Spirited away'

2 P5-2: は？もう一回言って (*What? Say that again*)

3 A2: ‘Spirited away’

4 H9: 分かった？ (*Did you get it?*)

5 P5-2: 分かんない (*No, I didn't*)

6 →A2: 千と千尋の神隠し (*Sen to Chihiro no Kamikakushi* [= the Japanese title of ‘Spirited away’])

7 Ps: あ:: (*Ah*::)

8 →H9: English say

9 A2: ‘Spirited away’

10 →H9: How meaning?

11 A2: Like taken somewhere, taken

12 H9: 神様？(*God?*)

13 A2: Taken the spirit

14 →H9: Spirit だから精神。気持ちの上で。神隠しってわかるみんな？神様が子どもをね、hide 子どもをね、隠しちゃうの。人さらいとか、可愛い子どもが歩いてると時々いなくなっちゃうの。それは誘拐だったんだけど、神様が隠した神隠しって言うの。そのことが物語になったの。(*Spirit means Seishin in Japanese. That is, spiritually. Do you know Kamikakushi [= spirited away]? It is said that God hides a child. It is also called kidnapping. It is a phenomenon that an adorable child is sometimes spirited away when s/he is walking. It was actually kidnapping, however, it is called ‘Kamikakushi’ [= spirited away]. This phenomenon becomes the story of the movie ‘Spirited Away’.*)

15 A2: OK, what’s your favorite story?

16 →H9: お気に入りの物語はなんですか？日本語でいいよ。Volunteer?

(*What is your favorite story? In Japanese is OK.* Volunteer?)

((The pupils answer their favorite stories in Japanese))

17 P5-3: 3 匹の子豚 (*Sanbiki no Kobuta* [= the Japanese title of 'Three little pigs'])

18 →H9: Three pigs

19 A2: Three little pigs? OK, what else?

(Extract from Interaction 21)

In line 1 in the above extract, A2 introduces her favorite story 'OK, my favorite story story my favorite story is "Spirited away"' , saying the title in English. The pupils do not seem to understand it and one of them (P5-2) asks A2 to say that again 'は？もう一回言って (*What? Say that again*)' in line 2. In line 3, therefore, A2 repeats the title 'Spirited away'. H9 in line 4 also checks if the pupil has understood by stating '分かった？(*Did you get it?*)' in Japanese. The pupils including P5-2, however, still do not get it, saying '分かんない (*No, I didn't*)' in line 5. Thus, A2 changes the title into the Japanese one '千と千尋の神隠し' in line 6. In response to this, the pupils in line 7 show their understanding, saying 'あ:: (Ah::)', which shows acceptance. In order to deepen the pupils' and her own understanding, H9 again tries to clarify the English title of A2's favorite story and its meaning, asking A2 'English say' in line 8 and 'How meaning?' in line10. The phrase 'English say' in line 8 is uncompleted and some words could be added, for instance, 'In English, you say'. Also, some words could be added to 'How meaning' in line 10 or replaced by 'How about the meaning?' or 'What is the meaning?'. What H9 wanted to say, however, was understood by A2 because she answers the questions without hesitation in lines 9 and 11 respectively. Thus, H9's efforts to communicate with A2 in

English to deepen the pupils' and her own understanding seem to be achieved.

H9 in line 14 further explains what 'taken the spirit', A2 explained in line 13, means in Japanese, showing the English key words 'spirit' and 'hide' in her explanation to deepen the pupils' understanding. After the explanation, A2 in turn asks the pupils their favorite stories in line 15 by saying 'OK, what's your favorite story?'. Then, in line 16, H9 translates A2's question into Japanese and tells the pupils they could answer the question in Japanese, encouraging them to raise their hands, using an English word 'Volunteer?'. In line 17, one of the pupils (P5-3) answers the question, stating '3 匹の子豚.' However, A2 does not seem to understand the Japanese title of the story. H9 therefore translates it into English as 'Three Pigs'. A2 understood it and offered the formal title 'Three Little Pigs'. H9's effort of translation helped A2's understanding and also showed her participation in the lesson by using English.

In this way, in this extract, an effort to use Japanese by A2 to achieve the pupils' clear understanding is observed. At the same time, efforts to use English by H9 are also found to achieve the following four roles: first, to clarify the English title and its meaning; second, to deepen the pupils' understanding; third, to encourage the pupils to answer A2's question by utilizing an English word; finally, to translate what the pupils have said in Japanese into English for A2's clear understanding.

Thus, in order to build mutual understanding and collaboratively promote the pupils' deep and clear understanding, both the ALT and the HRT collaboratively utilize each other's L1. Whereas, the ALT also actively tries to utilize Japanese in order to achieve the HRT's clear understanding between the ALT and the HRT outside of class hours as shown in Extract 31. The extract is a situation where the ALT, A1, explains an activity in the next lesson for the sixth-grade pupils to the HRT, H8, in a pre-lesson meeting.

[Extract 31] Collaborative Use of Interactants' L1 (Japanese) by the ALT

[A1-ALT, H8-HRT]

1 →A1: だからこの lesson は go straight ((half block [whispered voice]))
(*So in this lesson, 'go straight' means 'go straight half block'*)

2 H8: 半分ね、はい (*Half block, OK*)

3 →A1: そう。例えばこっちで turn left go straight ((half block [whispered voice])) and stop yeah これも大事 (*Yeah, for example, on this page, we will turn left go straight 'half block' and stop, yeah. This is also important.*)

4 →H8: うん I see (*Yeah, I see*)

(Extract from Interaction 3)

Here, in line 1, A1 explains to H8 how to use a phrase 'go straight' in an activity about directions in the next lesson, utilizing both Japanese such as a conjunction 'だから(*So*)', a demonstrative pronoun 'この(*this*)', a particle 'は(*means*)', and English at a word level 'lesson' and phrase level 'go straight'. A1, in line 3, also uses both Japanese and English in order to give an example by using Japanese such as 1) an informal confirmation 'そう(*Yeah*)', 2) a phrase to show an example '例えば(*for example*)', 3) a pronoun and case particle 'こっちで(*on this page*)', and 4) a phrase 'これも大事(*This is also important*)' and English to introduce an example. In response to A1, H8 in line 2 shows her understanding in Japanese, stating '半分ね、はい (*Half block, OK*)' by utilizing a key word '半分(*half block*)' at the outset, followed by a Japanese sentence-ending particle 'ね (ne)' and a confirmation 'はい (*OK*)'. In line 4, however, she uses both Japanese

and English, that is, a Japanese informal confirmation ‘うん(*Yeah*)’ and an English phrase ‘I see’ in order to show her understanding.

Thus, in the pre-lesson meeting outside of class hours, both A1 and H8 collaboratively make efforts to use the other’s first language to adjust his/her language attitude for the interlocutor. That is to say, A1 tries to use Japanese as much as he can, combining English key words and phrases with some Japanese to maintain H8’s clear understanding. This is because one of the roles of A1 is explaining to H8 how to do the activity in the next lesson in detail. On the other hand, H8 also tries to use English in response to A1 to accommodate to his/her language as an information receiver. H8 uses English to show her willingness to use the other’s L1, showing solidarity to A1, although A1 is good at speaking and listening to Japanese. Thus, here both A1 and H8 collaboratively use each other’s language to achieve their understanding and accommodating to each other’s language. Extract 32 also shows how cooperatively the ALT and the HRT use their interlocutors’ L1. The extract is a situation where the ALT, A4, asks the HRT, H3, during an English lesson for the 1st graders to give a demonstration of the game activity with him in front of the pupils.

[Extract 32] Collaborative Use of Interactants’ L1 (English and Japanese) by the HRT and the ALT

[A4-ALT, H3-HRT]

1 A4: This is what you will do, for example,

2 →A4: あ, 安達先生いいですか？

(*Oh Ms. Adachi, could you do a demonstration with me?*)

3 →H3: はい, OK (*Yes, OK*)

4 A4: For example, … ((the ALT and the HRT start a demonstration))

(Extract from Interaction 35)

Here in line 2, A4 asks H3, using Japanese 'あ，安達先生いいですか？(*Oh Ms. Adachi, could you do a demonstration with me?*)', to join the demonstration with him. In line 3, H3 responds to him smoothly both in Japanese 'はい(Yes)' and English 'OK' and shows her agreement with him to do it.

Before the English class, A4 and H3 had a pre-lesson meeting and A4 asked H3 to give a demonstration with him before starting the game activity. Furthermore, A4's way of asking a favor from H3 is polite as he uses H3's L1 (Japanese) when asking a favor and utilizes it in a polite manner by using an address term '先生(*Ms.*)' after H3's surname and a polite request 'いいですか? (*could you…?*)' at the end of the sentence. Accordingly, H3 does not get confused by A4's asking a favor to do a demonstration in front of the pupils in the actual lesson. Furthermore, H3 in line 3 shows her solidarity with A4, responding to his request by partially utilizing English 'OK'. H3 thus had a demonstration in English without any fear, thanks to the pre-lesson meeting and A4's polite request to start the demonstration in Japanese.

Thus, the pre-lesson meeting before the lesson and the ALT's efforts to use Japanese to maintain the HRT's understanding and politeness to the HRT would reduce the HRT's fear of using English during the class. The HRT also shows her solidarity with the ALT by partially using English when she responds to him and gives a demonstration with him. In this way, both of them collaboratively use each other's L1 positively and effectively and keep a good relationship while team teaching. Thus, using each other's L1 both in pre-lesson meetings and in actual classes to smoothly conduct team teaching between

HRTs and ALTs is useful.

Furthermore, as seen in Extract 33, the present research has also found that the HRT, the ALT, and the pupils, collaboratively make efforts to use English and Japanese respectively. Extract 33 is a situation where the ALT, A2, asks titles and contents of some traditional Japanese stories in a textbook for the 5th graders.

[Extract 33] Collaborative Use of Interactants' L1 (English and Japanese) by the HRT, the ALT, and the Pupils

[A2-ALT, H9-HRT, P5-2, 3-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 A2: OK if you look at page 50, what story is this?

2 H9: 日本語で。さんはい (*Let's say the title in Japanese. Here we go*)

3 Ps: もも太郎 (*Momo Taro= Peach Boy*)

4 A2: What about English title, English title?

5 →P5-2: わかった Peach Boy (*I know. Peach Boy*)

6 A2: Oh

7 P5-2: あたってたの？ (*Is it correct?*)

8 →A2: うん Peach Boy (*Yeah, Peach Boy*)

9 →P5-2: 本当に Peach Boy (*It is really called Peach Boy*)

10 A2: Peach Boy good. What about, OK, what story is the Peach Boy?

11 H9: どんな物語？(*What about the story of Peach Boy?*)

12 →P5-3: Peach どんぶらこどんぶらこパカン ((possibly with gestures))[36]

(Peach, *donburako donburako* [=the Japanese sound which describes the

[36] Unfortunately, the data is not video-recorded, however, judging from the onomatopoeia 'パカーン' (paka:n), which is usually accompanied with a hand-movement, indicating the opening of the fruit, this is most probably stated with gestures.

sound the peach makes when floating down the river], *pakan* [=the Japanese sound which the peach makes when cutting itself apart])

13 →A2: パカン? Open? (*Pakan? Does it mean 'open'?*)

14 P5-3: うん、で鬼鬼鬼ぼこぼこ ((possibly with gestures)) [boko bóʊko= mimicking English sound, although it is an original Japanese onomatopoeia describing hitting somebody with the hand] (*Yeah, then demon demon demon boko boko* [=the Japanese sound which the peach boy makes when conquesting demons])

15 →A2: おに? (*Demon?*)

16 P5-3: うん (*Yeah*)

17 A2: Ah:: ah:: OK

18 P5-3: おにがしま (*Onigashima*= mythological island of demons)

19 →H9: Sorry what is おに(demon) in English?

20 A2: Demon?

21 →H9: Demon?

22 A2: Or monster?

23 →H9: どっち？(*Which?*) Which better? Which better?

24 A2: Umm demon

25 H9: はい書きなさい。鬼書く。スペル。ねえみんな (*OK write down the spell of demon. Write down 'demon'. Spell. OK, everyone?*)

((The HRT tries to write down the spelling of 'demon' in English on the blackboard for the pupils))

26 →H9: Demonster?

27 A2: Demon

(Extract from Interaction 21)

Here, in line 1, A2 asks the pupils the title of a story in the textbook. In line 2, H9 encourages the pupils to answer the question in Japanese, stating '日本語で。さんはい (*Let's say the title in Japanese. Here we go*)' and the pupils answer 'もも太郎 (*Momo Taro= Peach Boy*)' in line 3. A2 then asks the pupils to tell her the English title of the story by saying 'What about English title, English title?' in line 4. In line 5, P5-2 guesses that the English title is 'Peach Boy' and answers A2's question in line 4. This is correct and thus A2 in turn uses a Japanese informal confirmation 'うん(Yeah)' in line 8. P5-2 in line 9 repeats the English title 'Peach boy' again, showing his surprise by saying '本当に－(It is really…)' at the beginning of line 6. In line 10, A2 asks the pupils to tell the story in English, saying 'What about, OK, what story is the Peach boy?', and H9 in line 11 helps the pupils by translating what A2 has asked by saying 'どんな物語? (*What about the story of Peach boy?*)'.

One of the pupils (P5-3) tries to answer A2's question in line 12 by saying, 'Peach どんぶらこどんぶらこパカン(Peach, <u>*donburako donburako*</u> [=the Japanese sound when the peach comes floating down the river], <u>*pakan*</u> [=the Japanese sound when the peach cuts a part of itself])', utilizing a simple English word 'peach' followed by onomatopoeia '*donburako donburako*' which is the Japanese sound used to show the situation where the peach comes floating down the river and also '*pakan*' used to show the situation where the peach cuts a part of itself. A2 then, in line 13, guesses the meaning of onomatopoeia uttered by P5-3 as 'open', stating '*パカン?* Open? (*Pakan? Does it mean 'open'?*).' After confirming A2's guessing by saying 'うん(*Yes*)' in the beginning

of line 14, P5-3 continues his explanation of the story by another onomatopoeia, this time ‘ぼこぼこ (*boko boko*), which is the Japanese sound the peach boy makes when conquesting demons by hitting them])’ in line 14 to tell A2 that the peach boy conquests demons.

With regard to the onomatopoeia in line 12 ‘どんぶらこどんぶらこパカン (*donburako donburako pakan*)’, P5-3 might have used these sounds since they are described in a picture book of *Peach Boy* (for example, see Hirata and Ohno, 1988, pp. 4-8)[37] and it is possible that P5-3 remembers the sounds as his guardian read the book to him. Regarding the onomatopoeia in line 14 ‘ぼこぼこ (*boko boko*)’, in order to make it sound like English, P5-3 changes the original intonation of [boko boko] in Japanese into [boko bóʊko], although there is no English onomatopoeia like this. P5-3 might have thought that it is easier for A2, whose Japanese ability is limited, to understand the story by sound (and possibly with gestures) rather than by a sentence such as ‘The peach boy conquers the demon’ in Japanese. Moreover, although the data is unfortunately not video-recorded, P5-3 most probably also expressed these sounds by utilizing gestures in order to explicitly explain the story. A2 gets to know the meaning of ‘パカン(*pakan* [=the Japanese sound which the peach makes when cutting itself apart])’ as ‘open’ in line 13 as a result of P5-3’s efforts.

The above interaction between the ALT and the pupils could be interpreted as ‘lingua franca communication’ (see, for example, Hua, 2015), where interactants accommodate to each other to make communication successful. Hence , pupils can be said to also make efforts to convey their messages to the ALT despite their limited English language abilities,

[37] Although the sound ‘パカン(pakan)’ is describes as ‘パックリ (pakkuri)’ in this picture book, the meaning of the sound is same.

utilizing the linguistic resources available (e.g., Seidlhofer, 2011; Widdowson, 1994; 2003), that is, we could say that they are here using English as a lingua franca, also using other communicative resources including their own L1.

Furthermore, the HRT, H9, in her part also tries to ask questions in English to A2, that is, in line 19 by saying 'Sorry what is *おに(demon)* in English?', in line 21 by repeating 'Demon?' in response to A2's answer in line 20 with rising intonation, and in line 23 by asking 'どっち？(*Which?*) *Which better? Which better?*' in response to A2's displaying two choices, i.e. 'Demon?' or 'Or monster?' regarding how to say 'demon' in English. In order to clarify and confirm a keyword of the story, 'demon', in English, H9 asks A2 questions in English. Upon hearing A2's answer 'Umm demon' (line 24), in line 25, H9 shares the knowledge with the pupils and tells them to write down 'おに(*demon*)' in English. However, H9 mixes 'demon' with 'monster' and coins the term 'demonster', confirming it in line 26. In response to this, A2 in line 27 restates the term 'demon' but not 'demonster'. In this way, the HRT and the ALT collaboratively make sure that the pupils learn the key word of the story in English.

Accordingly, in this extract, efforts to use linguistic resources available, including their interactants' L1 by the three parties, are observed. Namely, efforts to use English by the pupils to answer the ALT's English question in English as well as their efforts to use Japanese onomatopoeia to achieve the ALT's easier understanding are observed. In addition, efforts to use Japanese by the ALT to clarify what the pupil has said and show her solidarity with the pupils, utilizing the response-oriented utterance, are also observed. The HRT is also seen to make efforts to use English in order to clarify English words which are directly related to the topic.

We can thus see the ways in which the three parties make efforts to achieve their

goal of describing the story of 'Peach Boy' together in English, building mutual understanding by the use of the various linguistic resources available (e.g., Seidlhofer, 2011; Widdowson, 1994; 2003) such as English, Japanese, and Japanese onomatopoeia. Thus, the topic of the conversation seems also important when using target languages.

Section 6.1.3.3 has demonstrated that the three parties collaboratively make efforts to use various linguistic resources, including their interlocutors' L1. In the interaction between the HRT and the ALT, both of them positively use their interactant's L1 during English lessons in order to achieve the pupils' deep and clear understanding. For example, the ALTs use confirmation by translation (from English to Japanese), while the HRTs use English for clarification, detailed explanation, and encouragement. I will now briefly summarize 6.3.

6.1.3.4 Summary of the Section

Section 6.1.3 has investigated how the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils make efforts to use interlocutors' first languages inside/outside of class hours in order to achieve the goal of the lesson or keep the conversation topic, constructing mutual understanding. The ALTs use Japanese for getting attention, elicitation, encouragement, clarification, checking understanding, and asking a favor. On the other hand, the HRTs use English various purposes such as for classroom instructions, behavior management, repetition-oriented instructions, encouragement, and praising. In addition, the three parties collaboratively make efforts to use the interlocutors' L1 in order to achieve the goal of the lesson or manage the conversation topic, constructing mutual understanding inside/outside of the English lessons.

The three parties' efforts to use the other parties' L1 in a limited language ability

show us that each member in the classroom is, in a sense, simultaneously a language learner and user. Although sometimes misunderstanding occurs with the use of the interlocutors' L1, their positive attitudes toward utilizing their interactants' L1 to somehow achieve mutual understanding and the goal of the lesson should be effective for the pupils' language learning and collaborative communication among the three parties. In addition to the three parties' efforts to use their interlocutors' first language, the next section will discuss the importance of the cultural sensitivity of the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils to further deepen communication with the ALTs who have different cultural backgrounds.

6.2 Cultural Sensitivity and Awareness

In this section, I will mainly discuss need for raising cultural sensitivity of the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils especially in English classes. A lack of cultural sensitivity or awareness about cultural differences especially by the HRTs is sometimes observed in their interactions with the ALTs. Although the HRTs would not intend to interact with the ALTs in a discriminatory fashion, their opinions sometimes seem to be unconsciously based on certain stereotyped cultural assumptions (Rymes, 2009, see also Section 3.8 for the discussion of cultural assumption). To heighten the awareness of cultural sensitivity for more effective communication among the three parties within their limited English/Japanese language abilities and for the pupils' fruitful language learning from the perspective of understanding cultural differences, it is meaningful to investigate interactions among the three parties from the perspective of cultural understanding. Furthermore, if the pupils appropriately understand cultural differences, it is also helpful when they communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds in the future.

According to Kramsch (1998), culture is defined as 'membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and a common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating, and acting' (p. 127). On the other hand, Kecskes (2015) regards culture as 'a system of shared beliefs, norms, values, customs, behaviors, and artefacts that the members of society use to cope with their world and with one another' (p. 114). Thus, Kramsch's (1998) definition is broader, defining 'culture' as 'membership' in a specific 'discourse community' (p. 127), which I will adopt as the present research investigates how members (the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils) in a discourse community of primary school English lessons in Japan teach, learn, and use English. Based on this definition of culture, this section will examine the importance of cultural sensitivity in intercultural communication between the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils.

According to Kramsch (ibid), the term 'intercultural' is referred to as 'the meeting between people from different cultures and languages across the political boundaries of nation-states' and 'communication between people from different ethnic, social, gendered cultures within the boundaries of the same nation'.[38] Thus, intercultural communication takes place not only when people from different countries communicate with each other but also when people within the same country but from various backgrounds such as 'different ethnic, social, gendered cultures' (p. 81) communicate with each other.

In the present research, 'intercultural' is mainly regarded as the former definition by Kramsch (1998), that is, 'the meeting between people from different cultures and languages across the political boundaries of nation-states' (p. 81) as the HRTs are Japanese who have lived in Japan since they were born and the ALTs are from various

[38] Recently, the term 'transculture' has also been introduced (e.g., Vettorel, 2013).

countries such as America, Australia, Ghana, Jamaica, and the Philippines. Furthermore, the pupils in S Primary School are mostly Japanese, however, some of them are from different countries, for example, Brazil and the Philippines for their guardian's job. That is, the situation is where people from different cultures and languages communicate with each other in the context of Japanese primary school inside/outside of English lessons. Thus, intercultural communication among the participants from different countries, the first definition by Kramsch, is applicable to the present research data. In addition, the latter definition by Kramsch (ibid) is also used where necessary in the data analysis, since, even if the members create the same community in the classroom, they have different cultural backgrounds in that the ALTs are from different countries and teach English in Japan and some pupils are from other countries and live in Japan. As an example, Extract 34 is a situation where the ALT, A5, tells the pupils whether Santa Claus comes to Ghana to the 5th graders.

[Extract 34]

[A5-ALT, H6-HRT, Ps-Pupils]

((The ALT, A5, asks the pupils if they have questions about Christmas in Ghana, but no one raises his/her hand. Therefore, H6 raises her hand to ask a question to A5))

1 A5: OK, Tanabe-sensei.
2 H6: Santa Claus?
3 A5: In Ghana, we have no Santa Claus.
⋮
16 A5: Oh, I see yes Ghana no Santa Claus no Santa Claus no Santa Claus maybe
17 for now Santa Claus I don't know

18 →H6: え一知らない？ (*Eh, you do not know Santa Claus?*)

19 A5: But when I was when I was a kid, there was no Santa Claus

20 →H6: かわいそうだね、サンタクロース知らないってよ。知ってるでしょ

21 本物見たことないけどね。他には？質問 (*Poor her* [A5]. *She does not know Santa Claus.* [To the pupils] *You know Santa Claus, don't you?, although I have never seen the real Santa Claus. Any other question?*)

(Extract from Interaction 38)

Here, A5 talks about Christmas in Ghana and asks the pupils if they have questions on it. However, they remain silent. H6, in line 1, therefore raises her hand and asks a question regarding whether or not Santa Claus comes to deliver gifts to children in Ghana, stating 'Santa Claus?' in line 2. A5 answers the question in line 3, stating 'In Ghana, we have no Santa Claus' and 'Ghana no Santa Claus no Santa Claus no Santa Claus' in line 16 as people in Ghana do not have a custom, in which Santa Claus delivers Christmas gifts to children. However, from the end of line 16 to line 17, A5 adds that she does not know the current situation on Santa Claus in Ghana by saying 'maybe for now Santa Claus I don't know'. However, H6, in line 18, misunderstands what A5 said and misinterprets that people in Ghana do not know Santa Claus, despite the fact that A5 meant that she knows Santa Claus but there is just no custom to celebrate Christmas with gifts from Santa Claus. H6's reaction is not appropriate from the perspective of cultural awareness in that she stereotypically thinks that unfortunately children in Ghana do not receive presents from Santa Claus despite the fact that Santa Claus does not exist.

In line 20, H6 further mentions that she feels pity for the fact that people in Ghana do not know Santa Claus by stating 'かわいそうだね、サンタクロース知らないって

よ。(*Poor her* [A5]. *She does not know Santa Claus.*)'. The phrase 'かわいそう(*Poor her* [A5])', according to a dictionary definition, is often used to show one's pity and used when the speaker feels that the interlocutor is socially vulnerable '弱い立場にあるものに対して同情を寄せ, その不幸な状況から救ってやりたいと思うさま' (Sanseido, 2019). In fact, the story of Santa Claus originated in Northern Europe and it has been imported and adjusted in other countries (Forbes, 2015, pp. 13-44). In Japan, the notion of Santa Claus is also imported and there are various pictures, goods, events of Santa Claus mainly for commercial purposes. However, it is commercialized and adjusted to the concept of Japan, so the story of Santa Claus itself would be different from the original one, and above all, he does not exist. In Ghana, Christmas is also imported but adjusted differently to the country, therefore, there is an event such as a gift exchange among the family members, which is also actually what happens in Japan in reality, although it has been told and believed that Santa Claus exists to children up to a certain age during the Christmas season. That is to say, the differences regarding Santa Claus or Christmas between Ghana and Japan are how they are imported and adjusted to each country, namely, a cultural difference between the two countries. In fact, this was a valuable opportunity to heighten awareness of cultural differences by letting the pupils notice the difference and discuss the different realization of culture. However, the HRT failed to exploit the opportunity and just superficially dealt with the difference and displayed her lack of sensitivity regarding cultural differences by commenting on it 'かわいそう(*Poor her* [A5])'.

With regard to descriptions of cultural differences, Scollon and Scollon (2001) point out the following:

> …a balanced cultural description must take into consideration the full complexity of cultural themes. When one of those theme is singled out for emphasis and given a positive or negative value or is treated as the full description, then we would want to call that ideology rather than description. A much more common term for such cultural ideological statement is “stereotyping”. (pp. 167-8)

Thus, in Extract 34, when H6 showed her surprise in reaction to A5’s statement that there is no Santa Claus in Ghana and told that she felt pity about it, she demonstrated her ‘unconsciousness’ cultural superiority that one’s culture is superior to the other’s, which is a negative and unbalanced cultural assumption, to the pupils and A5. In addition, her cultural assumption would not only hurt A5 and her culture but also influences the pupils’ cultural knowledge, enhancing their stereotyping.

There is a similar extract which is a situation where the ALT, A5, introduces eating goats’ meat on Christmas day in Ghana, and the HRT, H5, this time explains it in Japanese to the 6th graders.

[Extract 35]

[A5-ALT, H5-HRT, P6-8-Pupil]

1 A5: …and this is ヤギ (*goat*) meats goat’s meat

2 P6-8: Goat’s meat?

3 H5: ヤギの肉だって。(*Goat’s meat*) ((with intonation expressing surprise))

4 A5: Yes, ヤギ (*goat*) meat

5 →H5: 皆チキン食べない？皆チキン食べるでしょ？(*You eat chicken on Christmas day, don’t you?*)

(Extract from Interaction 40)

Here in line 1 '…and this is ヤギ meats goat's meat', A5 introduces goat's meat which people in Ghana eat on Christmas day, using both English and Japanese. When the pupil responds to it by repeating 'Goat's meat?' in line 2, H5 reconfirms it in Japanese in lines 3 'ヤギの肉だって (*Goat's meat*)' and then continues in line 5 '皆チキン食べない？皆チキン食べるでしょ？ (*You eat chicken on Christmas day, don't you?*)', confirming and asking pupils that people in Japan tend to eat chicken on Christmas day. It seems that H5 gives an example of chicken as the pupils' schematic knowledge in order to scaffold their understanding of the different cultural practice in Ghana. However, the utterance by H5 is based on a cultural or personal assumption that all of the pupils eat chicken at Christmas (Knapp, 2015).

In H City, there are pupils whose guardians come from other countries for their jobs and the number of these pupils has been increasing these days. It means that there would be various customs, for example, for events such as Christmas. That is, there could be cultural differences even among the pupils in the classroom. As discussed, Kramsch (1998) states that intercultural communication takes place not only when people from different countries communicate with each other, but also when people with various backgrounds such as 'different ethnic, social, gendered cultures' (p. 81) in a same country communicate with each other. Therefore, we need to consider varieties of pupils' backgrounds even in the same classroom. The way H5 asked the questions in line 5 '皆チキン食べない？皆チキン食べるでしょ？ (*You eat chicken on Christmas day, don't you?*)' is based on her one-sided assumption of certain cultural practice, assuming that all the pupils and their families conduct the same practice. The question could be

changed from ‘You eat chicken on Christmas day, don’t you?’ to ‘What do you eat on Christmas day?’ to elicit ‘chicken’ or other food here and secure a valuable opportunity for discussing cultural diversity or individual differences (see also Sections 3.3 and 3.5 for the details of open-ended question and non-traditional classroom interaction).

Furthermore, the way H5 stated ‘ヤギの肉だって。(*Goat’s meat*)’ in line 3 calls attention. A sentence-ending particle ‘だって[datte]’ is basically used being added to a quotation and emphasizes the speaker’s intention of criticizing and/or surprise ‘ある人の言葉を受けて、それが意外であると、驚きや非難の気持ちをこめて述べる場合に用いられる’ (Sanseido, 2019) when used with intonation expressing surprise. Here, H5’s use of ‘だって’ might lead A5 to interpret that H5 is implying that Japanese people do not eat such strange meat like goats’ meat. On the other hand, H5 might not have intended to criticize the eating habits of Ghana. However, the use of the sentence-ending particle ‘だって[date]’ might have originated from H5’s unconscious thoughts or feelings. A5 could be offended by this statement and the pupils could indirectly be influenced by the evaluation. Accordingly, we need to be particularly sensitive to cultural differences such as religious, economic, and eating habitual issues.

In addition to the above extracts, the following extract from the same lesson also shows a cultural assumption by the HRT. Extract 36 is a situation where a pupil asks a question about Christmas cake in Ghana and the ALT, A5, answers the question in the 6th graders which is the same class as Extract 35.

[Extract 36]

[A5-ALT, H5-HRT, P6-9, 10, 11, 12-Pupil]

1 P6-9: ケーキは食べるんですか？ (*Do you eat a Christmas cake in Ghana?*)

2 A5: OK in Ghana, we eat like an ordinary cake but without cream and strawberry no

3 P6-10: It's a small small cake small small

4 P6-11: 小さいケーキ？(*Small cake?*)

5 P6-12: 小さいケーキってどのくらいですか？(*How small is the cake?*)

6 A5: Yes yes mini cakes…

7 →H5: 皆はこういうの食べるでしょ？だいたいこういうねえ白くてイチゴがのっててサンタさんがのってる。そういうんじゃない？(*You eat a Christmas cake like this* ((perhaps obviously indicating the size[39])*, don't you? Cakes with white cream, strawberries and a decoration of Santa Claus, right?*)

(Extract from Interaction 40)

Here in line 1, P6-9 asks a question about a Christmas cake in Ghana and A5 answers the question in line 2 'OK in Ghana, we eat like an ordinary cake but without cream and strawberry no'. P6-10, who might have a sister or brother in other grades and has heard about Christmas in Ghana in an English class conducted also by the same ALT (A5), mentions that the cake is small in line 3 'It's a small small cake small small'. After that, P6-11 and P6-13 respond to what P6-10 has said and wonder how small the cake is in lines 4 '小さいケーキ？(*Small cake?*)' and 5 '小さいケーキってどのくらいです

[39] Unfortunately, it is not sure whether the HRT showed the size of the Christmas cake by her hands which shows a bigger size than that of Ghana as the current data is not video-recorded but just audio-recorded. The HRT here said 'こういうの (like this)' which consists of an adnominal adjective 'こういう (like this)' and a noun '(も)の (thing) [/(mo)no/]' without 'も[/mo/]'. However, there was no picture regarding Christmas cakes in Japan in the lesson. Therefore, there is a high possibility that the HRT showed this to the pupils.

か？(*How small is the cake?*)'. A5 admits what P6-10 has said in line 6 'Yes yes mini cakes…' in response to P6-10, P6-11 and P6-12. In addition to the interaction among A5 and the pupils, H5 adds explanation and compares the difference between Ghana and Japan with regard to Christmas cakes by giving what she thinks her pupils eat and confirming what she says, in line 7 '皆はこういうの食べるでしょ？だいたいこういうねえ白くてイチゴがのっててサンタさんがのってる。そういうんじゃない？(*You eat a Christmas cake like this* ((perhaps obviously indicating the size))*, don't you? Cakes which are white and have strawberries and a decoration of Santa Claus, right?*)'.

The utterance by H5 in line 7 seems to just compare the differences of Christmas cakes in Ghana and Japan, confirming what kind of cakes the pupils eat at Christmas. However, just as we discussed in Extract 35 regarding 'goat meat', the utterance by H5 here again seems to be based on her assumption that all the pupils eat cakes which are white and have strawberries and decoration of Santa Claus without considering there could be differences among the pupils, thus enhancing a stereotypical assumption of the pupils on Christmas habits (Scollon & Scollon, 2001).

According to Scollon and Scollon (2001), stereotyping is 'a way of thinking that does not acknowledge internal differences within a group, and does not acknowledge exceptions to its general rules or principles' (p. 169). Thus, if there are pupils who do not eat cakes on Christmas due to religious reasons, food allergy, or economic difficulties, internal differences of pupils in a classroom could not be respected and their feelings could get hurt because of teachers' insensitivity and stereotypical assumptions.

Furthermore, there is again another possibility of cultural insensitivity towards the ALT. That is, H5's utterance in line 7 seem to unconsciously compare the eating habits in Ghana with those in Japan, evaluating them unintentionally by describing the size of the

Christmas cake in Japan as ‘こういうの (like this)’ perhaps with a gesture which shows a bigger size than that of Ghana described by the ALT as ‘mini cakes’ in line 6. As for the decoration of the cake, H5 describes it as ‘with white cream, strawberries and a decoration of Santa Claus’ compared with that of Ghana described by A5 in line 2 as ‘without cream and strawberry’ and ‘ordinary cakes’ which means no decoration is put on. H5 seems to just compare the differences of Christmas cakes in Ghana and Japan. It is possible that H5 sent a message that people in Ghana cannot afford to buy cake with cream, strawberry, and a decoration such as Santa Claus because they are expensive and the economic condition of Ghana is reported to be less developed compared with that of Japan (The World Bank, 2018)[40]. H5’s statement based on cultural stereotyping could in fact hurt A5’s feelings and have a bad influence upon the pupils’ awareness about cultural sensitivity in that they would unconsciously assume that Ghana is an economically poor country, thus unconsciously leading to discriminatory feeling that their culture is more advanced or superior.

The reality is, as touched on briefly, eating cakes and chicken on Christmas is promoted commercially in Japan. That is, celebrating Christmas is not originally part of Japanese traditional culture. Also, whether pupils celebrate Christmas or not on that day is different in each family, depending on the home environment in terms of their religions, economic conditions, and so on. It means that the HRTs could pay more attention to the different customs of each pupil in terms of his/her home environment even if he/she is Japanese and seems to share the same cultural tradition with the HRTs. Furthermore, there are more and more pupils who come from other countries such as Portugal, the Philippines, and so on for their guardians’ job and also from other parts of Japan in S Primary School.

[40] According to Gross domestic product 2018, Japan got the third place, whereas Ghana got the 73rd place.

That is, the HRTs in Extracts 35 and 36 seem not to consider the variety of the pupils' backgrounds and the fact that there could be differences among the pupils as to their home environments even if they are in the same school (Hagiwara & Reynolds, 2015). Thus, there is a possibility that the HRTs unwittingly force their fixed values on the pupils and hurt their feelings. The HRTs therefore need to pay more attention not only to the ALTs' cultural background but also to each pupil's increasingly different home backgrounds in this globalizing world.

Primary education is an important period for pupils to understand different cultural backgrounds around them. With regard to the instruction of culture in primary English lessons, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (2010) in Japan clearly states in its Course of Study as follows:

> 2. Instruction should be given on the following items in order to deepen the experiential understanding of the languages and cultures of Japan and foreign countries:
> (2) To learn the differences in ways of living, customs and events between Japan and foreign countries and to be aware of various points of view and ways of thinking.
> (3) To experience communication with people of different cultures and to deepen the understanding of culture. (MEXT, 2010, p. 1),

Thus, MEXT (2010) aims to teach pupils to be more sensitive about different cultures from various perspectives through communicating with people who have different backgrounds. If HRTs are not aware of cultural diversity and push their opinions based on cultural assumptions to the pupils, they could restrict chances for the pupils 'to be

aware of various points of views and ways of thinking' (MEXT, 2010), forcing certain values on pupils. Language education could provide ample opportunities for pupils to learn about various cultural values and HRTs could maximize them by benefiting from interactions with ALTs.

The issue stated above is not only the case of the HRT in the present research. Each HRT needs to raise sensitivity and awareness of cultural differences since there are many ALTs who are from various countries and they have their own cultures and different values. There are also cultural differences among pupils even if they are in a same classroom (Kramsch, 1998). Thus, HRTs should consider diversity of cultural backgrounds and values in classrooms, raising awareness among pupils of different cultures. In relation to the importance of heightening sensitivity of cultural differences, it is also important for HRTs to appropriately translate issues of different cultures into Japanese for the pupils. This is because the HRTs in the present research are sometimes observed playing roles of translators in class due to the pupils' limited English abilities. Translation here means not only literally translating the ALT's English into Japanese, but also translating different cultural ideas into Japanese for the pupils. House (2009) refers to the relationship between culture and translation as follows:

> The more the source and target cultural frameworks differ, the more important is the cultural work translators have to do… The translator may have to add a brief explanatory note or, if relevant, point to a comparable custom in the target culture (pp. 12-3)

That is to say, HRTs, who often also play the role of translator during English lessons in

Japanese primary schools, would also play an important role in bridging not only language but also cultural gap between ALTs and pupils and also among pupils by considering different cultures when using translation. In order to appropriately take into account different cultures appropriately, translators (here, HRTs) need to have awareness of cultural differences since language permeates pupils' 'very thinking and way of viewing the world' (Kramsch, 1998, p. 77). This has direct implications for teacher education. That is, a curriculum which raises awareness of cultural differences would be needed for both initial and in-service teacher training.

Chapter 6 has examined what is actually happening in classroom interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs and the pupils from a classroom discourse analytic perspective, and has found that the three parties use various ways such as 1) the use of discourse markers, 2) the use of scaffolding, and 3) the use of participants' own language in order to enhance the interlocutors' understanding. It has also been revealed that the HRTs need to be sensitive to the different cultural backgrounds of the ALTs and the pupils in English lessons. However, there are cases where individual interactions should be examined in a more detailed manner to reveal what is happening in specific situations. In such situations, conversation analysis is useful as it examines how the next speaker interprets what the previous speaker has said and how these sequences have an effect on interactions or interactants as a result (Levinson, 1983, p. 287). The next chapter (Chapter 7) therefore will examine individual interactions in a more detailed manner from a conversation analytical perspective.

Chapter 7

Discussion of the Data from a Conversation Analytic Perspective: Repetition and Silence

7.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils have been analyzed from the perspective of classroom discourse analysis in order to reveal 'what is said and done' among these parties in the classroom (Mercer, 1999, p. 318). That is, how and for what purposes features such as discourse markers, scaffolding, and participants' L1 are utilized by the three parties in primary school English lessons are explained. There are, however, cases where individual interactions should be examined in a more detailed manner to reveal what is happening in specific situations. In such situations, conversation analysis is useful as it examines the system of 'the sequential organization of talk' and how 'utterances are designed to manage such sequences' (Levinson, 1983, p. 287). In other words, CA analyzes how the next speaker interprets what the previous speaker has said, how these utterances and interpretation construct conversational sequences, and how these sequences have an effect on interactions or interactants as a result (p. 287). On the other hand, classroom DA tends to focus on 'what is said and done' (Mercer, 1999, p. 318) in classrooms by systematically coding and categorizing interactions between teachers and learners (Seedhouse, 2004, pp. 56-67), which is not sufficient to investigate individual interactions in detail (Levinson, 1983, p. 287). This is because the interactions among the three parties are complicated in that they communicate with each other in their limited English/Japanese language ability. This chapter therefore will use a conversation analytic approach and investigate how

sequences of individual interactions are constructed and how they affect language learning and teaching, focusing specifically on two features of conversation, namely, repetition and silence, which are frequently observed in the current classroom interactions.

The chapter consists of two sections. Section 7.1 examines the use of repetition and 7.2 investigates silence. I will now start with the analysis of repetition in the following section.

7.1 Repetition

In the present research, repetition is often used and plays an important role in the classroom interaction with several functions such as securing the pupils' understanding (7.1.1), encouraging the pupils to answer questions (7.1.2), and confirming what the pupils said (7.1.3). In the following, each function of repetition will be discussed in this order.

7.1.1 Repetition for Securing Understanding by the ALTs

Repetition is frequently utilized during English lessons in S Primary School to secure the pupils' clear understanding by the ALTs as seen in Extract 1. Here, the ALT (A1) conducts a direction activity and asks the pupils to guide Ken (one of the characters in a textbook) to the park in English in the 6th graders' class.

[Extract 1] Repetition for Securing the Pupils' Understanding by the ALT

[A1-ALT, H8-HRT, P2-5-Pupil]

1 →A1: Now, I don't know I don't know. Help me help me. Umm, I am Ken. I am
2 → Ken. Where is the park? Where is the park? With Ken. Everyone look in a

3 → book. So Ken goes to the park. Please tell me tell me.

4 H8: 教えてって。ダニエル先生が Ken だと思って教えてあげて。

(*Daniel asks you [the way to the park]. Assume that Daniel-sensei is Ken, and tell him the way.*)

(Extract from Interaction 6)

In this extract, the ALT, A1, uses repetition in order to achieve the pupils' clear understanding (Kaur, 2012) by repeating 'I don't know' , 'help me', and, 'I am Ken' in line 1, 'Where is the park?' in line 2 , 'tell me' in line 3. The use of repetition by A1 seems to enhance H8's clear understanding, which would also enhance the pupils' understanding. Thus, in response to A1's repetition, H8 tells what A1 has said to the pupils in simple Japanese in line 4. Extract 2 is another example of repetition for securing understanding. Here, the ALT (A4) tries to explain a rule of a game activity in the 2nd graders' class.

[Extract 2] Repetition for Securing the Pupils' Understanding by the ALT

[A4-ALT, P2-3-Pupil]

1 → A4: OK? Each group each group one magnet. OK, one.

2 ((The ALT explains the rule, pointing out each group and showing a magnet.))

3 P2-3: Group 3 だ four おれたち five six (That is Group 3, four, we are Group five, six)

(Interaction from Interaction 35)

A4 in line 1 starts his explanation by saying 'OK? Each group each group one magnet. OK, one', repeating the phrase 'each group' and the number 'one' twice respectively in

order to secure the pupils' understanding. The pupils seem to understand what A4 has said and P2-3 in line 3 confirms which group he is in, pointing out each group with his finger. Thus, repetition for securing the pupils' understanding is utilized by A4 when he explains how to do a game activity. Another function of repetition is to encourage the pupils to use English in answering questions in front of others, to which we now turn.

7.1.2 Repetition for Encouraging the pupils to answer by the ALT and the HRT

Repetition for encouragement is also frequently used when the teachers encourage the pupils to speak out in English in class. Extract 3 is a situation where the ALT (A1) asks the pupils where the school is in the activity in the 6th grade.

[Extract 3] Repetition for Encouragement by the ALT and the HRT

[A1-ALT, H7-HRT]

1 A1: Where is the school?

2 →H7: 英語で英語で、行けるぜ (*In English. In English. You can do it*.)

3 →A1: Come on! Come on!

(Extract from Interaction 10)

Here, H7 in line 2 first repeats the phrase '英語で(in English)' twice in order to encourage the pupils to answer in English. A1 then also encourages them to answer the question in English, stating 'Come on! Come on!' in line 3. Thus, both the HRT and the ALT collaborate in encouraging the pupils to answer in English, using both Japanese and English respectively.

Repetition for encouragement is also conducted by way of praising pupils in order

to enhance their motivation. Extracts 4 is a situation where the ALT (A1) praises the pupils in the 6th grade as they can do the activity of direction-giving correctly in the same class as shown in Extract 1.

[Extract 4] Repetition for Encouragement by the ALT's Praising

[A1-ALT, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: What is it?

2 Ps: School

3 →A1: Very good. You guys you guys are perfect. You got it! You got it!

4 →A1: Very nice very good cool.

5 ((The ALT claps his hands while saying 'Very nice very good cool' and starts another direction activity.))

(Extract from Interaction 6)

In the above extracts, A1 uses repetition to encourage the pupils to try another direction activity by praising as he continues the activity after line 5. Here, the effectiveness of encouragement is doubled by the repetition of the praising words 'very good!' and 'You got it!' twice in lines 3 and 4. A1 also repeats 'you guys' twice in line 3 in order to emphasize who are perfect (Björkman, 2011 for the use of repetition for the sake of emphasis).

Oxford and Shearin (1994) regard praising as 'teacher-provided rewards' in order to raise learners' motivation and further point out that teachers use praising as a strategy to decrease learners' language learning anxieties, which could be applicable to the situation in Extract 4. That is, by listening to praising words, pupils are encouraged and motivated,

and as a result, anxiety level could become lower.

In addition to the use of repetition of praising words, A1 also praises the pupils with body language, that is, in this case, clapping his hands (see line 5). His action would have a good effect on the pupils and also be a good way to make a comfortable atmosphere for language learning, especially for the sixth graders since many of them are likely to become shy compared with when they were lower graders.

There is also a case where repetition of encouragement (see Extracts 3 and 4) is combined with securing understanding (see Section 7.1.1), collaboratively utilized by both the ALT and the HRT, creating co-instruction between them. Extract 5 is a situation where a pupil tells the way to a place to the ALT (A1), using a map on the blackboard in front of his/her classmates in a lesson on direction-giving in the 6th graders' class, which occurs in the same class as the one in Extract 3.

[Extract 5] Collaborative Use of Repetition for Encouragement and Securing Understanding between the HRT and the ALT

[A1-ALT, H7-HRT, P6-9-Pupil]

1 A1: Mmm start with Julia face south (..) where is the department store?

2 H7: デパート (*department store*)

3 →A1: Where is the department store? Where is the department store?

4 →H7: New person おらんの？New person? New person おらんの?

(*Isn't there a new person? New person? Isn't there a new person?*)

5 →A1: Come on! New person, try! Come on! You can do it! Come on!

6 H7: なんか誰でもできそうな気がするんだけど[な。　　誰かやんね？

(*I think anyone can do it. Any volunteer?*)

7 →A1: [Come on

8 →A1: You can do it you can do it [come on

9 →P6-9: [You can do it

10 →A1&P6-9: You can do it

11 H7: ((Laughter))

12 A1: I know you can do it. How about how about you (H7) choose a new

13 person?

14 ((H7 chooses a pupil and she answers A1's question))

(Extract from Interaction 10)

Here in lines 1 and 3, A1 repeats the question 'Where is the department store?' three times for the pupils' clear understanding (see also Kaur, 2012 and Section 7.1.1). In response to this, H7 in line 2 says 'デパート(department store)' after A1's first mention of 'where is the department store?' in order to aid pupils' understanding, picking up a key word of A1's question 'department store' and translating it into Japanese 'デパート (department store)' (see Aline & Hosoda, 2006 in Chapter 3 for HRTs' use of translation for pupils' clear understanding). Furthermore, H7 in line 4, stating 'New person *oran no*? New person? New person *oran no*? (Isn't there a new person [to answer the question?] New person? Isn't there a new person?)', encourages the pupils who have not volunteered to do the activity to raise their hands, mixing English and Japanese, repeating the English words 'new person' three times combined with the negative form of the Japanese verb 'oru', i.e. 'oran', which means 'there is no one', and the Japanese sentence-ending particle 'no' at the end of a sentence with rising intonation, which functions as a question, meaning 'Isn't there a new person to answer the question?' to encourage the pupils. The ALT then

also uses ‘come on’ five times in lines 5, 7, and 8 to encourage the pupils to answer the question.

Furthermore, what the ALT (A1) has said at the end of line 8, ‘You can do it’, is repeated twice by himself in line 8, immediately followed by a pupil’s (P6-9) repetition, overlapping with his second ‘come on’ in line 10. The ALT and P6-9 then repeat ‘You can do it!’ simultaneously in line 10. The repetition by the pupil (P6-9) shows his positive attitude toward using English and participation (Duff, 2000) in the lesson by repeating what the ALT said.

Thus, Extract 5 shows that the three parties utilize repetition with one another. That is, the ALT cooperates with the HRT, utilizing other-repetition of what the HRT uttered as a form of encouragement as well as using self-repetition for the pupils’ clear understanding and also for encouraging them to answer the question in English (see also Kaur, 2012; Murata, 1995). The HRT, on the other hand, utilizes repetition, switching his code partially to English at a word level combined with Japanese in order to encourage the pupils to try the activity in front of the class. Furthermore, their co-instruction leads to the pupil’s active use of English, repeating what the ALT said in English, which is the pragmatic feature also observed in ELF academic interaction (Björkman, 2011). Thus, the cooperative team teaching between the HRT and the ALT, using repetition, could be effective for the pupils’ language learning (e.g., Tsui, 2001) and using. Apart from the purpose of encouragement and securing understanding, repetition is also utilized in the current data to show confirmation, to which we now turn.

7.1.3 Repetition for Confirmation

In this section, I will explain repetition for confirmation, which is used when the ALTs

confirm what the pupils said. Extract 6 is a situation where the ALT (A3) asks the pupils how many points they got in the game activity in the 2nd grade.

[Extract 6] Repetition for Confirmation

[A3-ALT, H3-HRT, P2-3, 4, 6-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

((The ALT, A3, asks how many points each group got in a game activity in order from Groups 1 to 4))

1 A3: はい No. 5 ([How many points did you get,][41] Group No.5?)

2 P2-3: Eighteen

3 →A3: Eighteen

4 Ps: えー！ (Eh::!) ((The pupils seem to be surprised with the high score of Group No. 5))

5 A3: はい No. 6 (How about you, Group No. 6?)

6 P2-6: Fourteen

7 →A3: Fourteen. はい Champion No. 5! (Fourteen. Well, Group No. 5 is a champion!)

8 H3: 拍手！ (Let's clap your hands!)

9 ((Everyone in the classroom clap his/her hands.))

10 A3: Very good

11 P2-3: え？(Eh?)

[41] Regarding a question 'How many points did you get?', the ALT did not explicitly ask the question to the pupils in this lesson. Instead, he asked each group to count how many points it got at the end of a game activity by saying 'はい Total A, B, C, D, E. はい Total. (Let's count total points of your group based on questions A, B, C, D, and E. Let's count the total points.), followed by the HRT's simple Japanese '全部で何点? 何点? 数えて (How many points did you get? How many? Let's count the points.)'.

12 P2-4: え？5 班ってこと？(Eh? Does it mean that Group No. 5 is a winner?)

13 →H3: そう 5 班だよ (Yes, Group No. 5 won.)

14 A3: うん good (group No. 5 got) eighteen yes. (Yes, good. Group No. 5 got eighteen points, yes)

15 A3: Yes はい、机をお願いします (Now, please put your desks back where they were.)

16 Some Ps: →机をお願いします (Please put your desks back where they were.)

(Extract from Interaction 32)

Here in line 1, A3 asks Group 5 how many points it got in the game activity, stating only 'はい No. 5 (Group No.5?)', but omitting explicitly stating 'How many points did you get' to make his/her request simple for the 3rd graders, who are not used to listening and answering English yet. P2-3 in line 2 answers by saying 'Eighteen', which is repeated by A3 in line 3 'Eighteen' as a confirmation. The pupils are surprised with the high score of Group No. 5, stating 'えー！ (Eh::!)' in line 4. A3 in line 5 continues asking Group 6 how many points it got by saying 'はい No. 6 (How about you, Group No. 6?)'. One of the pupils (P2-6) in the group answers 'Fourteen' in line 6, which is also repeated by A3 in order to confirm what he said, stating 'Fourteen', followed by 'はい Champion No. 5! (Well, Group No. 5 is a champion!)' in line 7. H3 in line 8 tells the pupils to clap their hands to admire Group 5. Everyone in the classroom claps his/her hands in line 9, however, P2-3 and P2-4 did not understand which group had won the game activity, saying 'え？ (Eh?)' in line 11 and 'え？5 班ってこと？(Eh? Does it mean that Group No. 5 is a winner?)' in line 12. In response to these questions, H3 in line 13 confirms what they said by stating 'そう 5 班だよ (Yes, Group No. 5 won.)' in Japanese by partially repeating

the word ‘5 班 (Group No. 5)’, which was uttered by P2-4. A3 in line 14 also confirms what P2-4 said, stating ‘うん good (group No. 5 got) eighteen yes. (Yes, good. Group No. 5 got eighteen points, yes)’, partially using a Japanese casual confirmation ‘うん (Yes)’ at the beginning of the sentence. After that, A3 in line 15 asks the pupils to put their desks back in Japanese, which is repeated by some pupils in line 16 ‘机をお願いします (Please put your desks back where they were.)’ as a confirmation of what A3 said and also for telling other pupils to do what A3 said. Thus, in this extract, repetition for confirmation (Lee, 2016) of what interlocutors said by the ALT in lines 3 and 7, the HRT in line 13, and the pupils in line 16 has been observed both in English and Japanese. This type of repetition is important especially for the second and lower graders because they do not still get used to using English as they have English lessons only once or twice a month, but they need to listen to and understand what the ALT said and speak English during lessons. Therefore, confirmation of what the pupils said by the ALT and the HRT would give them a sense of security and accomplishment on learning and using English in that the pupils feel they could answer questions in English and understand what the ALT said (see Walqui & van Lier, 2010 in Section 2.3 for the importance of contingent reaction by teachers and a sense of security in the learning environment).

To sum up, Section 7.1 has found that repetitions with various functions, such as securing the pupils’ understanding, encouraging the pupils to answer, and confirming what the pupils and the ALTs said, are frequently and effectively used in primary English lessons not only by the ALTs and the HRTs but also by the pupils. The use of these types of repetition is important in English lessons because it would lead to the pupils’ clear understanding and positive attitude toward using English. Also, the ALT in Section 7.1.3 was observed to use not only repetition in English, but also Japanese to confirm what the

pupils said and ask a favor to them (see Extract 6), showing his solidarity to the pupils (see Carless, 2006 in Chapter 3 for ALTs' use of pupils' and HRTs' L1 for building a good relationship). On the other hand, the HRTs in this section also used English by the use of repetition and Japanese to encourage the pupils to speak English (Extract 3) and confirm what the pupils said (Extract 5). That is, the ALTs and the HRTs collaboratively try to conduct smooth team teaching by the use of repetition, utilizing linguistic resources available such as Japanese and English as well as non-linguistic resources such as the ALT's clapping hands and pointing out each group. The next section will discuss silence which is an issue also often raised in language learning/teaching classrooms in Japan and is also observed in the current research data.

7.2 Silence

The phenomenon of silence is frequently observed in class in S Primary School, and it is also often regarded as one of the distinct features in Japanese language learning classroom contexts (e.g., Harumi, 2011; Murata, 2011). Thus, the section will examine when, how, and in what kind of context silence is observed, and what silence means in interactions among the ALTs, the HRTs, and the pupils in the current data.

Four functions of silence are identified in the current data: 1) showing non-understanding, 2) showing non-confidence, 3) saving interlocutors' face, and 4) showing understanding with nodding. The last one, showing understanding with nodding, is a slightly different kind of silence observed in the present research because it occurs with the use of an alternative means of communication, i.e., nodding. First, silence for showing non-understanding will be illustrated in Extract 7, which is a situation where the ALT (A1) explains the meaning of 'go straight' in the activity with the HRT (H8) to the 6th

graders.

[Extract 7] Silence for Non-understanding

[A1-ALT, H8-HRT, P6-10-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: So everyone, go straight

2 Ps&H8: Go straight

3 A1: When you say go straight it means go straight

4 A1:（one block) ((whispering))=

5 P6-10: =One block ((whispering))

6 A1: go straight one block

7 H8: (one block) ((whispering)) (one block) ((whispering))

8 A1: So, go straight (one block) ((whispering))=

9 P6-10: =One block ((whispering))

10 A1: go straight (one block) ((whispering)) OK?

11 H8: 分かった？

12 →Ps: (2.5)

13 A1: Go straight equal go straight (one block) ((whispering)). So, everyone

14 please say go straight

15 Ps: Go straight

16 A1: (one block) ((whispering)) go straight

17 Ps: Go straight

18 A1: Everyone, OK?

19 Some Ps: OK ((others remain silent))

(Extract from Interaction 6)

Here, in lines 1 to 3, A1 and H8 try to explain that ‘go straight’ in the activity means ‘go straight one block’ in order to avoid the confusion of the pupils. Although H8 can understand the rule well since she heard about it from A1 in the pre-lesson meeting between them, the pupils cannot understand it well. Therefore, they remain silent in line 12, showing their non-understanding when H8 asks if they have understood the explanation by A1, saying ‘分かった？’ in Japanese in line 11. In response to this, A1 tries to explain the rule again in lines 13, 14, and 16, letting the pupils repeat the key phrase ‘go straight’ in lines 15 and 17. However, many of the pupils in line 19 seem not to understand what A1 has said as they are still silent, although some of them show their understanding by saying ‘OK’ in line 19. Thus, the silence of the pupils in line 12 here shows their non-understanding and could also be showing their request for an explanation again (Waring, 2012). On the other hand, silence is also shown by the pupils when they have no confidence in doing activity in English. Extract 8 is a situation where the ALT (A1) asks the pupils in the same 6th grade class whether they are ready to start the activity or not.

[Extract 8] Silence for Having no Confidence

[A1-ALT, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: Everyone are you ready?

2 →Ps: [(3.0)

H7: [Yes. OK.

3 A1: Are you ready? ((louder voice))

4 Ps: Yes ((The pupils responded to A1 but in a soft voice and they laughed at

after their response ‘Yes’))

5 A1: Eh:: ((with a funny face and laughter)) OK, alright. Let’s try.

(Extract from Interaction 6)

Here in line 1, A1 asks the pupils if they are ready as they seem to have finished preparing their textbooks and pencils for a listening activity with a CD on a route guidance. However, the pupils do not respond to A1’s question and keep silent in line 2, although H8 responds to it with response-oriented utterances ‘Yes’ and ‘OK’ (Fukatsu-Shino, 2012). In response to the pupils’ silence, A1 asks again whether they are ready or not in a louder voice ‘Are you ready?’ in line 3. This time the pupils respond to A1 by saying ‘Yes’ but in a soft voice probably because they do not have confidence to do the listening exercise in that the route guidance in English is an unfamiliar task and seems to be a challenging one to them. A1 shows his disappointment with the pupils’ response, stating ‘Eh::’ in line 5 but with a funny face and laughter because he understands the pupils are anxious about the listening activity on an unfamiliar topic. However, the pupils did a similar exercise on a route guidance in English with A1 just before this, so he starts the listening practice by saying ‘OK, alright. Let’s try’ in line 5. Thus, silence here shows that the pupils do not have enough confidence in doing the activity in English.

On the other hand, silence is also used by the pupils to save their interlocutor’s face (Goffman, 1967). This type of silence has been generally discussed in classroom contexts (e.g., Liu, 2002), which is especially reported to be used by students in Asian countries (Nakane, 2006; Tatar, 2005) as a strategy to show respect to teachers and avoid ‘face-threatening acts’ (Brown & Levinson, 1987) to them during lessons. In the present research, some ALTs from time to time try to use the pupils’ and the HRTs’ first language

(Japanese) in order to accommodate to them. They, however, sometimes use irregular forms in Japanese, which will be shown in the following extract. Extract 9 is a situation where the ALT (A3) conducts a word comprehension check of the names of the months with the 6th graders. Here, the ALT, A3, uses Japanese and the pupils say the names of the months in English.

[Extract 9] Silence for Face-saving

[A3-ALT, P6-11-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 A3: 四月[Yon-gatsu]？(irregular pronunciation of 'April' in Japanese)

2 →Ps: (2.7)

3 A3: Yon=

4 =((P6-11 raises her hand))

5 A3: OK

6 P6-11: April

7 A3: はい(*well*) April せーの(*Here we go*)

8 Ps: April

(Extract from Interaction 31)

Here, in line 1, A3 pronounces April '*Yon-gatsu*' in Japanese. However, the pronunciation by A3 is irregular as there are two readings for the Kanji '四' which means 'four', and in the case of April, which is the fourth month of a year in Japanese, 'four' is pronounced /shi/ when combined with 'month' /gatsu/, i.e., [shigatsu]. Upon hearing A3's [yon-gatsu], however, the pupils keep silent since they hesitated to point out A3's irregular pronunciation to save his face (Brown & Levinson, 1987), despite noticing it. There is

also a possibility that the pupils and H9 avoided pointing out A3's irregular pronunciation since they understood what he wanted to say and regarded it not as sequentially inappropriate or incomprehensible (Hauser, 2016). In line 3, A3 tries pronouncing it again. In the middle of A3's utterance, however, when he pronounced [yon] (four) again (line 3), one of the pupils (P6-11) raised her hand, interrupting what A3 has tried to say, and answers the question, saying 'April' in line 6 without referring to A3's irregular pronunciation. The answer by P6-11 is correct and it proves that the pupil has understood what A3 has meant in lines 1 and 3 despite the irregularity of his Japanese pronunciation '*Yon*'.

Thus, the pupils used silence to save A3's face in this extract when he used irregular pronunciation from a Japanese standard (Brown & Levinson, 1987)[42]. Furthermore, H9 also kept silent when A3 irregularly pronounced the word 'April' in Japanese. Here, there might be a common understanding between the pupils and H9 that A3 is a beginner of Japanese and tries hard to use Japanese in front of them for the sake of the pupils' better understanding, so there is no need to correct irregular pronunciation if they can understand the meaning of the word (Hahl, 2016; Hauser, 2016). Thus, P6-11 answers the question without pointing out the ALT's irregular pronunciation, avoiding threatening his face. Here, the pupils and the HRT save the ALT's face both as an English teacher (professional identity) and a user of Japanese (language user identity).

On the other hand, there is a case where the pupils remain verbally silent but show their understanding non-verbally by using nodding. Here, the ALT (A1) asks the pupils if they have understood the directions at the end of the activity.

[42] However, one of the pupils later points out the irregularity when the ALT keeps using the irregular form.

[Extract 10] Showing Understanding Non-verbally with Nodding

[A1-ALT, H8-HRT, P6-1-Pupil, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: Oh OK. It's department store. Very good guys very good! Very good

2 everyone, can you do direction?

3 P6-1: えっ？ (*Eh?*)

4 A1: So so?

5 H8: 大丈夫？できた？ (*Are you OK? Did you get it?*)

6 →Ps: ((Silence but nodding, showing 'yes'))

7 H8: はい ((Laughter)) (*Yes*)

8 A1: Alright, cool. Very good.

(Extract from Interaction 6)

Here in lines 1 and 2, A1 checks the answer of the direction activity and asks the pupils if they have understood the directions. P6-1 does not understand what A1 has said in line 3 and shows his non-understanding by saying 'えっ？(*Eh?*)', which is an interjection in Japanese, showing clarification request as a minimal repair (Jefferson, 1974); however, A1 seems not to have heard P6-1's voice and continues to talk by saying 'So so?' in line 4. Therefore, H8 explains what A1 has said in a simplified version in Japanese '大丈夫？できた？ (*Are you OK? Did you get it?*)' in line 5. In response to H8's question, the pupils keep silent but show their response non-verbally with nodding in line 6. Maynard (1990) states that nodding is often used in Japanese particularly in informal situations, showing positive answer 'Yes'. (Maynard, 1990, pp. 405-6). This is exactly what the pupils did here by nodding. On behalf of the pupils, H8 then verbally responds to A1, stating 'はい (Yes)' with laughter in line 7. Perhaps because H8 checked the pupils'

understanding in Japanese, they might have shown their understanding by nodding informally in a Japanese way as Maynard states. In this way, even when the pupils superficially remain silent, sometimes non-verbal signs are used by them to try to communicate with the HRT and the ALT.

Section 7.2 has thus investigated the use of silence in English classes in S Primary School. The findings through the section show that the pupils keep silent for various reasons such as to 1) show non-understanding, 2) show having no confidence, 3) save interlocutors' face, and 4) show understanding non-verbally with nodding accompanied with silence.

Chapter 7 has discussed discourse features such as repetition and silence utilized by the ALTs, the HRTs, and the pupils in English lessons in S Primary School from a conversation analytic perspective. The teachers use repetition to secure the pupils' understanding, encourage them to speak English, and confirm what they said. On the other hand, the pupils are found to use silence to show non-understanding and non-confidence in using English. Furthermore, both the HRT and pupils are also observed using silence to save their interlocutors' face. Thus, the CA approach has enabled the current author to reveal the details of the use of repetition and silence, which have important roles to promote pupils' clear understanding and positive use of English (by using repetition) and convey the pupils' intention to their interlocutors (by using silence) in the specific interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils, in a more detailed manner. The next chapter (Chapter 8) will further investigate another characteristic of classroom interaction, i.e. repair, which is also frequently observed in the present research, using CA approach.

Chapter 8

Discussion of the Data from a Conversation Analytic Perspective: Repair[43]

8.0 Introduction

The previous chapter analyzed repetition and silence used in primary English lessons and how they are utilized as features in order to promote mutual understanding and convey his/her intention by the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils, using a conversation analytic approach. This chapter will also use the CA approach but focus on one of the distinctive features, that is, repair, in classroom interactions in S Primary School since repair in English lessons seems effective for language learning and teaching in terms of achieving mutual understanding (Kasper, 1985; Macbeth, 2004; McHoul 1990; Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2013). To investigate repair in classrooms, considering how and when it is conducted, thus, would be meaningful for both pupils' and teachers' effective language learning and teaching. Failure in repair will also be examined as this might lead to communication breakdown.

As already reviewed in Chapter 4, Schegloff, et al. (1977) explain that repair is used to deal with 'recurrent problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding' (p. 361). The term 'correction' appears to be similar to the term 'repair'. However, Schegloff et al. (1977) regard that the concept of repair includes not only corrections of errors or mistakes, but also the phenomena in which there are no apparent errors such as when using word search (p. 363) and regard 'correction' as a particular type of repair. They then categorize repair into four types: 1) self-initiated self-repair, 2) other-initiated self-repair, 3) self-

[43] Part of the chapter was published as a paper in *The bulletin of the Graduate School of Education of Waseda University* (see Shino, 2018).

initiated other-repair, and 4) other-initiated other-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977, p. 361).

As one of the tendencies of repair proposed by Schegloff et al. (1977), both self-initiated and other-initiated repairs give priority to self-correction over other-correction (p. 377). Thus, in natural conversation, even if others start repairs, others try to let speakers, who have yielded trouble sources, repair their problems by themselves as much as they can (Schegloff et al., 1977).

On the basis of the brief summary of the definition and types of repair proposed by Schegloff et al. (1977), the present research will investigate repair that occurred in English lessons in S Primary School among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils. In addition, the study will also investigate the failure in repair between them. The chapter mainly consists of three parts, namely, analysis of firstly, self-initiated repair (8.1), which has subcategories: self-initiated self-repair (8.1.1) and self-initiated repair trial and clarifying repair (8.1.2), secondly, other-initiated repair (8.2), which is divided into other-initiated repair between the ALT and the pupils (8.2.1), and other-initiated repair between the ALT and the HRT (8.2.2), and finally the ALT's failure to repair and understand the pupil's utterance (8.2.3).

It is important to note that one type of repair introduced in this chapter, i.e., pupils' self-initiated repair trial and ALT's clarifying repair (see 8.1.2), is slightly different from ones proposed by Schegloff et al. (1977) due to the specific classroom context. This type of repair is utilized when the pupil initiated and tried to self-repair what he/she wanted to say by him/herself and the ALT assisted to repair it with clarification as will be shown later.

8.1 Self-initiated Repair

There are two types of self-initiated repair: self-initiated self-repair and self-initiated other-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977). The former is used where the participant is responsible for the trouble-source and he/she initiates and completes it, whereas the latter is used when the producer of the trouble-source initiates the repair, and eventually the interlocutor completes it.

In this section, two types of self-initiated repair will be analyzed, namely, self-initiated self-repair (8.1.1) and a slightly modified version of self-initiated other-repair, that is, self-initiated self-repair trial (SISRT) and clarifying other-repair (8.1.2). The latter is utilized when the pupil initiated and tried to repair what he/she wanted to say by him/herself and the ALT helped to repair it with clarification, which is unique to this context. The section starts with self-initiated self-repair.

8.1.1 Self-initiated Self-repair

It is observed that self-initiated self-repair is utilized even when there is no error such as for word search for interlocutors' clear understanding (Schegloff et al., 1977). Extract 1 is a situation where the ALT (A3) tries to let the pupils in the 3rd grade say an English word.

[Extract 1] Self-initiated self-repair when code-switching from English to Japanese

[A3-ALT, Ps-Pupils]

1 →A3: Three two one 違う違う せーの (No no, here we go)

2 Ps: ((Laughter))

(Extract from Interaction 32)

Here in line 1, A3 has intended to encourage the pupils to say an English word together using Japanese; however, he carelessly says 'Three two one' in his L1, English. Therefore, he self-repairs his utterance in English by stating '違う違う(*No no*)', code-switching from English to Japanese, to promote the pupils' (and H3's) clear understanding and show solidarity with them (e.g., Jenkins, 2009, p. 49). This is self-initiated self-repair. In response to this, the pupils laugh in order to tell A3 that there is no problem.

In this extract, the utterance of A3 in English 'Three two one' itself has no mistake. However, A3 has intended to encourage the pupils not in English, but in Japanese in order to show his solidarity with them. Therefore, he initiates and completes repair by himself. In this way, repair is utilized not only to correct errors but also to replace words, phrases, or sentences for achieving more understandable instructions (Schegloff et al, 1977, p. 370). The next section also analyzes self-initiated self-repair but it is a 'trial', not a completed one, and thereby the teacher conducts other-repair, completing the repair originally initiated by a pupil.

8.1.2 A Pupil's Self-initiated Self-Repair Trial Combined with the ALT's Clarifying Other-Repair

This type of repair is used by a pupil when initiating and trying to self-repair what he/she wants to say and when the ALT assists to repair it with a clarification. In Extract 2, before starting an English lesson, the ALT (A1) and one of the 6th grade pupils talk about their wake-up time.

[Extract 2] Self-initiated self-repair trial combined with clarifying repair

[A1-ALT, P6-5-Pupil]

1 A1: I wake up at five thirty, very early. You are lucky because your house

2 is close to school. Walking two minutes or three minutes, right?

3 →P6-5: I wake up at sixteen sixteen thirte[en=

4 →A1: [Six?

5 →P6-5: =thirty fourteen thirty four forty fiv[e

6 →A1: [Six forty five?

7 P6-5: Yeah

8 A1: Wow, very early

(Extract from Interaction 10)

In lines 1 and 2 in the above extract, A1 talks about what time he normally wakes up and confirms the fact that P6-5 lives close to school. P6-5 tries to respond to A1 's confirmation in lines 3 and 5 by telling A1 his wake-up time. He, however, cannot produce the exact time. P6-5 therefore tries to repair his utterance, repeating 'sixteen' twice followed by 'thirteen thirty fourteen thirty four'. I term this self-initiated self-repair *trial*, since P6-5 tries again and again in an attempt to self-repair his utterance but without successfully completing it (see also Donato, 2000 in Chapter 2 for 'on-going think-aloud verbalization').

P6-5 in lines 3 and 5 seems to have become confused before eventually coming to the right expression 'forty five'. A1 in lines 4 and 6, therefore, helps to repair the pupil's trouble source by first stating 'Six' in line 4 after the pupil's repeating 'sixteen' twice, and then 'Six forty five' with rising intonation in line 6 when the pupil uttered 'forty five',

trying to clarify the exact time (see also Rivera & Barboza, 2016 in Section 2.1 for mediation strategies). I shall call the ALT's repair here 'clarifying repair' because, unlike usual repair (Schegloff et al., 1977), it clarifies whether the ALT's suggestion about what the pupil intends to say is correct. Thus, in line 7, P6-5 confirms the time by stating 'Yeah', which concludes this self-initiated self-repair trial combined with the ALT's clarifying repair.[44] The ALT in line 8, saying 'Wow, very early', naturally responds to the pupil's information.

Thus, in the extract, self-initiated self-repair trial combined with clarifying repair occurs in lines 3 to 6 between the pupil and the ALT. In order to tell the exact time, the pupil tries to repair his own utterances in search of the right word. Whereas, the ALT assists the pupil's word search by clarifying what the pupil said because he thinks that the pupil gets confused with numbers and how to tell the time. Consequently, the ALT's clarification becomes other-repair of the pupil's self-initiated repair.

There could be more similar cases to the above situation in English lessons at a primary level. That is to say, there could be a situation where the pupils, who are not used to speaking English, would struggle with telling interlocutors what they exactly want to say, trying to search for the right words. Whereas, the interactants (mainly teachers), who try to understand the pupils' intention, would clarify what they exactly want to say in the process of the pupils' trial of repairing their utterances. In a situation like this, the cognitive process in which the pupils think and speak aloud what they exactly want to say such as 'thirty four forty five…' seems to be crucial. Therefore, it is essential that teachers do not cut the pupils' thinking and speaking aloud. Alternatively, they could let pupils try

[44] The pupil in lines 3 does not seem to have heard the ALT's first clarification 'Six?', inserted in line 4, while he is continuing his trial. However, he does hear the ALT's second clarification 'Six forty five?' in line 6, inserted immediately after he said 'forty five'.

to do so as much as possible, giving help in the form of clarification, where necessary. This, in turn, could be effective for the pupils' language learning in helping their trial and achieving communication as van Lier (1988) also states.

Further research is needed in order to prove how effective the above strategy is. However, the pupil's desire and effort to speak English and communicate with the ALT, struggling with searching for the right words and the ALT's effort to help the pupil communicate what he/she wants to say by inserting clarification appropriately and in a natural manner should be highly evaluated. The interaction between the ALT and the pupil in Extract 2 seems co-constructed both by the pupil and the ALT (Hahl, 2016). Pupils should come to enjoy a sense of accomplishment in language learning by piling up these experiences, and, in fact, simultaneously they could be said to be using it communicatively (Widdowson, 1979).

Furthermore, the ALT in this extract clarifies the pupil's answer by using other-repair. However, he does not force the pupil to repeat the correct answer as often seen in classroom repair contexts (see, for example, A. Otsu, 2017). This would be because the interaction happens outside a class and the ALT considers it as a natural and casual conversation. It is possible that the ALT would make the pupil repeat the correct answer for his language learning if the interaction happens during a lesson, although teachers should know the importance of giving students chances to engage in natural turn-taking even in class from time to time (see also A. Otsu, 2017). Thus, the way of following-up after repairing a trouble source seems to change depending on the situation, although further research is needed regarding this aspect. The next section discusses other-initiated repair.

8.2 Other-initiated Repair

As reviewed earlier, Schegloff et al. (1977) divided other-initiated repair into two types: other-initiated self-repair and other-initiated other-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977). The former happens when the interlocutor identifies the trouble-source and initiates the repair. Eventually, the producer of the trouble-source completes it. On the other hand, the latter happens when the interlocutor identifies the trouble-source and he/she initiates and completes the repair. In addition to these cases, in a classroom context, there is a situation where teachers identify and initiate repair of the trouble source, but ask other pupils to complete the repair, which is called 'delegated repair' by Kasper (1985) and 'teacher-initiated peer-repair' by Seedhouse (2004).

Based on the categorization of other-initiated repair proposed by Schegloff et al. (1977) and Seedhouse (2004), the current research has identified two types of other-initiated repair. They are 1) other-initiated self/other repair between the ALT and the pupils (8.2.1) and 2) other-initiated self/other repair between the ALT and the HRT (8.2.2). I will explain each of them in this order.

8.2.1 Other-initiated Self or Other Repair between the ALT and the Pupils

This section discusses three extracts of self/other-initiated repair in which the ALTs repair an individual pupil's or a whole class's trouble sources and let them repair by themselves as much as possible. The three extracts of self/other-initiated repair by the ALT will be introduced as follows: the ALT's other-initiated repair of a pupil's trouble source inviting self-repair (8.2.1.1), the ALT's other-initiated other-repair of a pupil's trouble source giving an immediate correction (8.2.1.2), and the ALT's other-initiated other repair of a whole class's trouble source (8.2.1.3).

8.2.1.1 The ALT's Other-initiated Repair of a Pupil's Trouble Source Inviting Self-repair

In the present research, the ALT is often observed initiating repairing a pupil's trouble source by inviting the pupil's self-repair (see McHoul, 1990 in Chapter 4 for the importance of self-completion of repair in classrooms). The following (Extract 3) is in a situation where the ALT (A1) checks the answers of a question about the relation of food and countries to the 5th graders.

[Extract 3] Other-initiated Self-repair

[A1-ALT, P5-4-Pupil]

1 A1: Where is gratin from? Yes, Keita.

2 P5-4: えっとグラタン[/gurætæn/]。イタリア[/itɑljɑ/]？(*Well, gratin. Italy?*)

3 →A1: Gratin? [/grætǽn/]

4 P5-4: イタリア？[/itɑlj':ɑ:/] ((He has changed the accent from /itɑljɑ/ to /itɑlj':ɑ:/)) (*Italy?*)

5 →A1: Gratin [/grætǽn/]? Gratin [/grætǽn/]?

6 →P5-4: フランス (*France.*)

(Extract from Interaction 5)

Here in line 1, A1 asks a question and P5-4 answers it in line 2. However, the answer by P5-4 is incorrect; therefore, A1 in line 3 repeats a part of the question 'Gratin?' to let the pupil think about his answer again and repair it by himself (Schegloff, et al., 1977). However, the pupil thinks that his accent of the word 'Italy' was wrong, so P5-4 changes

his accent of the word ‘Italy’ from [itɑljɑ] to [itɑlj'ːɑː] in line 4. After that, in line 5, A1 again repeats a part of the question ‘Gratin? Gratin?’ to let P5-4 know that the answer is still wrong without saying ‘no’ or ‘it is wrong’ etc., while saving P5-4’s face in front of the other pupils (McHoul, 1990; Seedhouse, 2004, pp. 170-177) by not directly correcting the wrong answer and let him repair his answer by himself as much as possible (Schegloff, et al., 1977). Finally, P5-4 realizes his mistake and repairs his answer by saying ‘フランス (France)’ in line 6. This sequence is thus other-initiated self-repair, although the repair sequence takes two stages as explained above.

Furthermore, the extract also shows a pattern of IRF exchange in a classroom. That is, initiation (elicitation) by A1 in line 1 (Where is gratin from?), response by the pupil in line 1 (えっとグラタン。イタリア？), and feedback by A1 in line 3 (Gratin?). Based on this exchange pattern, Extract 3 shows there is a case that the pupil’s response may become a trouble source, and A1 initiates repair in his feedback part by repeating the trouble source in order to invite self-repair by the pupil (Hosoda and Aline, 2013; Seedhouse, 2004). The next section also investigates the ALT’s repair of a pupil’s trouble source but with an immediate other correction, to which we will now turn.

8.2.1.2 The ALT’s Other-initiated Other Repair of a Pupil’s Trouble Source

It is also observed that the ALT repairs a pupil’s trouble source to give an immediate correction as seen in Extract 4, which is a situation where the ALT (A1) asks the pupils in the same class (5th grade) as Extract 3 what they want at McDonalds after doing a role-play activity in the textbook.

[Extract 4] Other-initiated Other-repair

[A1-ALT, P5-5-Pupil]

1 A1: What do you want?

2 P5-5: Potato [pətéɪɾoʊ]

3 →A1: *Oh potato Japanese Japanese but English, French fries.*

4 A1: Everyone

5 →Ps: French fries

(Extract from Interaction 5)

Here in line 2, P5-5 answers A1's question 'What do you want?' in English by saying 'potato'. However, the ALT thinks that not 'potato' but 'French fries' is a more appropriate answer as there is a menu called 'French fries' in McDonalds, although French fries are sometimes called 'ポテト (potato)' or 'フライドポテト (fried potato)' in fast-food restaurants in Japan. Therefore, A1 in the former half of line 3 tries to repair and explains that the 'potato' which P5-5 means is called 'French fries' by saying 'Oh potato Japanese Japanese', repeating '(It is a) Japanese (way of calling French fries)' twice in a whispering voice perhaps in order to gently repair what the pupil has said. A1 in the latter half of line 3 completes repair by saying 'but English French fries'. Thus, this is an example of other-initiated other-repair.

Furthermore, in this extract, the pattern of the interaction in lines 1 to 3 seems to be initiation, response, and feedback which is a typical interaction in the classroom (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Mcbeth, 2004). Here, the content of the answer by the pupil in line 2 'potato' is not incorrect, but the ALT in this extract seems to focus more on its form (or

rather a discrete item of vocabulary[45]), that is, 'form-focused' rather than 'content-focused' (Ehrenreich, 2018; Otsu, 2017). The ALT gives feedback to the pupil's answer, using 'direct repair' (Walsh, 2006). However, if the phase of the lesson focuses more on the content, the feedback by the ALT in line 3 could be replaced by, for example, 'OK' and so on. If he then would like to repair the vocabulary used in the answer in addition to the feedback, he could just say, for example, 'oh potato, French fries'. Thus, the ALT's immediate repair of the pupil's answer in Extract 13 could be said to destruct the goal of the communicative phase of the lesson, particularly when it is followed by the instruction, ordering the pupils to repeat the right expression (see also A. Otsu, 2017).

Thus, the goal of the lesson should be considered when repair is used in classroom interactions between teachers and learners. That is, Extract 13, in a sense, is a typical classroom interaction, but smooth and natural communication between the teacher and the pupil has broken down in terms of the message content and natural flow of conversation. We should therefore consider what the purpose of the lesson is when teaching and repairing. If it is to achieve communication, the ALT could put more importance on the content rather than the correctness of them. The next section will also investigate the ALT's use of other-initiated repair, but not dealing with an individual trouble source but with a whole class's one.

8.2.1.3 The ALT's Other-initiated Repair of a Whole Class's Trouble Source

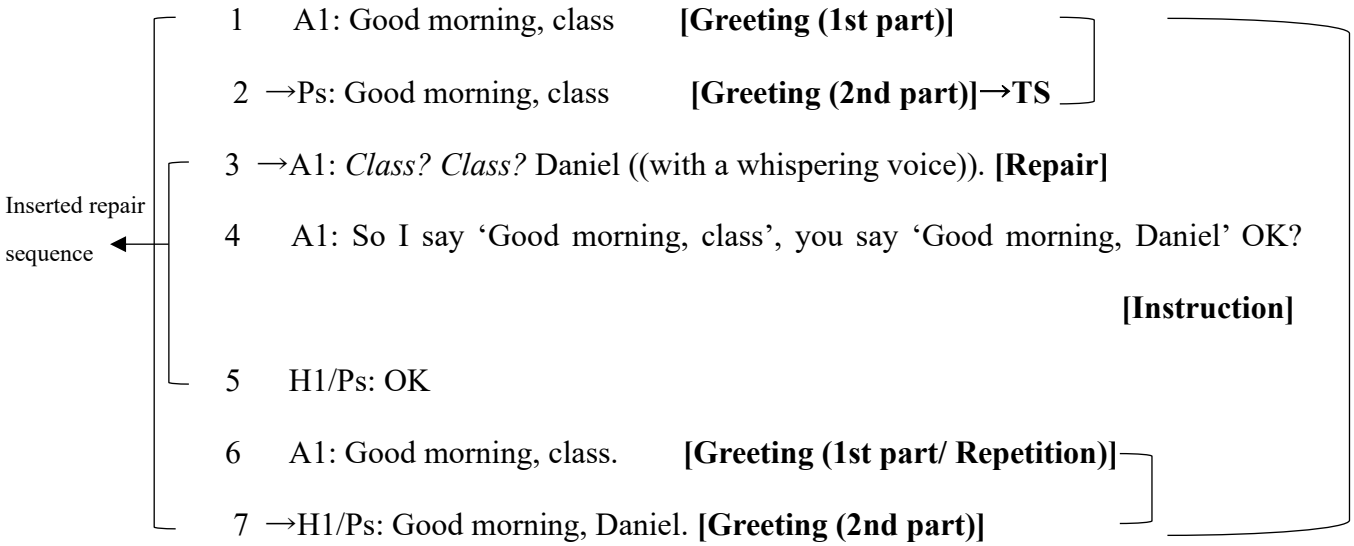
There is also a case where the ALT repairs a trouble source caused by the whole class in a situation where the ALT (A1) greets a class of the 1st graders at the beginning of a

[45] Perhaps it is a matter of lingua cultural difference. Because here they are talking about the specific situation at McDonalds. Thus, A1 tries to use the exact name of the menu and conducts an immediate correction.

lesson.

[Extract 5] Other-initiated Other-repair in the 1st Graders

[A1-ALT, H1-HRT, Ps-Pupils]



1 A1: Good morning, class **[Greeting (1st part)]**

2 →Ps: Good morning, class **[Greeting (2nd part)]→TS**

3 →A1: *Class? Class?* Daniel ((with a whispering voice)). **[Repair]**

4 A1: So I say 'Good morning, class', you say 'Good morning, Daniel' OK? **[Instruction]**

5 H1/Ps: OK

6 A1: Good morning, class. **[Greeting (1st part/ Repetition)]**

7 →H1/Ps: Good morning, Daniel. **[Greeting (2nd part)]**

(Extract from Interaction 2)

Here in line 1, the ALT greets the class; however, the pupils in line 2 just repeat what the ALT has said in line 1, addressing A1 as 'class'. Therefore, the ALT in line 3 repeats the trouble source twice 'Class? Class?' with rising intonation and whispers an appropriate address term 'Daniel', which is his own name. The repetition of the trouble source with rising intonation and the whispering voice seem to be utilized to avoid a direct correction of the pupils' inappropriate use of the address term, inviting self-repair which cannot be achieved by the pupils who do not know the correct one. Therefore, the ALT, in line 4, displays a detailed instruction by saying 'So I say 'Good morning, class', you say '"Good morning, Daniel" OK?' and shows the pupils what to say when the ALT greets them (see Schwartz & Gorbatt, 2017 in Section 2.1 for 'modeling' as a mediation strategy). This

would be because the pupils are 1st graders and most of them have just started learning English. That is, they have not got used to English lessons yet, even regarding the routine greeting part. After that, the ALT in line 6 again greets as in line 1 ‘Good morning, class’, and the pupils this time appropriately return the greetings ‘Good morning, Daniel’ in line 7, which exemplifies other-initiated other-repair.

From a conversation analytic perspective, Extract 5 has two sets of ‘adjacency pairs’ (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973), namely, greeting-greeting pairs: first, in lines 1 and 2, and second, in lines 6 and 7. In the former pair, however, the first part of the greeting ‘Good morning, class’ by the ALT is responded by the pupils with ‘Good morning, class’. Thus, the ALT adds an instruction on what the pupils should say in greeting, inserting an insertion sequence (Levinson, 1983; Schegloff, 1972) in doing so. After that, the ALT repeats the first part of greetings in line 6 and this time the pupils greet the ALT appropriately ‘Good morning, Daniel’ in line 7. Thus, it can be said the first part of greeting in line 1 is eventually responded in line 7, which also plays the second part of another greeting pair (lines 6-7).

In this way, the ALT uses various ways, eliciting self-repair by repeating the trouble source, and when it does not work, initiating other-repair by instructing what the pupils should say, and completing other-repair by using and repeating the first part of an adjacency pair, to achieve the goal of the greeting phase. Extract 6 is also a similar situation as Extract 5 where the ALT (A1) starts an English lesson with a greeting, but this time, to the 6th graders, thus the repair sequence changes slightly.

[Extract 6] Other-initiated Other-repair in the 6th Graders

[A1-ALT, Ps-Pupils]

1 A1: OK Good afternoon class **[Greeting (1st part)]**

2 Ps: Good afternoon class/ Daniel **[Greeting (2nd part)]→TS**

3 →A1: Class? Not class, Daniel ((whispering voice)). **[Repair]**

4 A1: One more, good afternoon class **[Greeting (1st part/ Repetition)]**

5 Ps: Good afternoon, Daniel **[Greeting (2nd part)]**

(Extract from Interaction 6)

Here in line 1, A1 greets the pupils; however, there are many pupils who have just repeated what A1 has said and do not say A1's name at the end of their greeting in line 2. A1, therefore, tries to repair it with a repetition of the trouble source 'Class?' with rising intonation in order to invite self-repair by the pupils. However, self-repair is not achieved, therefore, A1 directly denies the trouble source, stating 'Not class' and shows the appropriate answer, his name 'Daniel', with a whispering voice in line 3. Thus, here as well A1 does other-initiated other-repair in line 3.

The interactions between the ALT and the pupils in Extracts 5 and 6 show the adjacency pairs of greeting-greeting. In both extracts, the pupils cannot respond to the ALT's greeting appropriately, using relevant address terms, thus resulting in other-initiated other repair. However, the ALT slightly changes his method of repairing according to how carefully the pupils need to be repaired depending on their knowledge of experience in learning English. That is, in Extract 5, the ALT tries to repair the 1st graders' mistake carefully not only by repeating the trouble source 'Class? Class?', followed by a correct one 'Daniel', but also by explicitly explaining and demonstrating how to greet him by stating 'So I say "Good morning, class", you say "Good morning, Daniel" OK?' since he knows that the 1st graders have just started English lessons in the

school and they have not got used to them.

In contrast, in Extract 6, the ALT spends less time to repair the 6th graders' mistake in the greeting part by only repeating the trouble source 'Class?' once and immediately denying it, saying 'Not class' followed by the correct one 'Daniel'. After that, he again greets the pupils without giving a detailed instruction but stating 'One more'. This is because the 6th graders started English lessons when they were 4th graders, and greeting at the beginning of lessons has become a routine for them. Thus, when the pupils seem to get used to the topic of the lesson but still make a mistake, the ALT only repeats the trouble source, and immediately starts other-initiated other-repair.

In this way, the ALT always seems to attune his way of repair, considering how adjacency pairs work between him and the pupils based on various conditions such as whether the trouble source happens in a routine part or not for pupils and the length of pupils' language learning. In contrast to this section, which has dealt with other-initiated repair between the ALT and the pupils, the next section describes other-initiated repair between the ALT and the HRT.

8.2.2 Other-initiated Self/Other-Repair between the ALT and the HRT

The ALTs and HRTs are also observed to repair each other's trouble sources. However, they tend to invite self-repair as much as possible. Or even when they initiate and complete other repair of their interlocutor's trouble source, they care not to threaten their interlocutor's face. This is because repair by others is likely to be regarded as inappropriate, especially between NS and NNS adults outside a classroom (Walsh, 2013).

Three types of repair: 1) repair initiated by the HRT using a one-word utterance to the ALT, 2) repair initiated by the ALT displaying choices to the HRT, and 3) repair

initiated and completed by the ALT with the intention of co-construction, will be introduced in this section. First, repair initiated by the HRT using a one-word utterance (cf. Jefferson, 1974) to the ALT will be discussed in Extract 7, which is a situation where the ALT (A3) explains a picture in a textbook to the 5th graders.

[Extract 7] Other-initiated Self-repair (The HRT's Repair Using One-word Utterance to the ALT)

[A3-ALT, H5-HRT, Ps-Pupils]

1 A3: Now in this hotel, there are some people.

2 H5: Mm hmm

3 A3: Let's count how many people let's count together, one two three

4 →H5: あ? (*Ah?*)

5 →A3: Count let's count せーの (*Here we go*)

6 All: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

(Extract from Interaction 30)

Here, in line 4, H5 produces an interjection 'あ(*Ah)*' in Japanese with rising intonation, simultaneously doing the following three things: firstly, showing her non-understanding; secondly, initiating repair of a trouble source; thirdly, clarifying what A3 has said in line 3. A3 in line 5 rephrases his utterance, saying a possible trouble source 'count' at the outset with a simplified version of English and repeating 'count' (Count let's count). In addition, he encourages the pupils to count numbers together, using a Japanese exhortation cue 'せーの (*Here we go*)' . This shows that H5 initiates minimal repair (Jefferson, 1974) in line 4 and A3 completes it by himself in line 5. Namely, other-initiated

self-repair has occurred.

The interjection of H5 in line 4 'あ(*Ah*)' is pronounced in Japanese. However, A3 seems to have recognized it as a clarification request. Ikeda (1996), referring to Ozaki (1992), points out that using the Japanese interjections '*eh*', '*n*', '*hai*', '*nani*', and '*dare*' with rising intonation results in clarification questions (Ikeda, 1996, p. 41). 'あ(*Ah*)' is not included here, however, it plays a similar role when utilized with rising intonation. In discussing error correction, Jefferson (1974) explains 'What?' as a minimal clarification question in natural conversation in English. Additionally, Schegloff et al. (1977) examine repair sequences and explain 'What?' as a minimal clarification request in natural conversation in English. In the above extract, 'あ(*Ah*)' uttered by H5 plays the similar role.

Thus, Extract 7 shows that even a one-word utterance, or rather an interjection in the current case, which is uttered in Japanese, can become a clarification request in English interaction and invite the interlocutor's self-repair elaboration. This means that even when a HRT has no confidence in speaking to an ALT in English, uttering just one word or an interjection in Japanese can become a very effective communication way.

There is also a case where the ALT repairs the HRT's trouble source by giving some choices to him in a situation where the HRT and the ALT have a casual conversation before starting a lesson in the 6th grade. The length of each lesson in S Primary School is usually 45 minutes. However, the lesson time on the day is 40 minutes due to a special event to be held later. Bearing this in mind, the HRT (H7) and the ALT (A1) reconfirm the lesson plan together before the class starts.

[Extract 8] Other-initiated Other-repair (Repair Initiated with Giving Some

Choices by the ALT)

[A1-ALT, H7-HRT]

1 H7: *40 分(授業)早い。あと 30 minutes?*

(*The day of shorter classes proceeds fast. Is the remaining time of today's school hours only 30 minutes?*)

2 →A1: 30 minutes? 40 minutes?

3 H7: 30 *じゃない。*(*Not 30*) *40 minutes* ((Laughter))

4 A1: It's little bit early. ((Smiling))

5 H7: ((Laughter))

6 A1: I don't like short class because it's too short.

(Extract from Interaction 10)

Here in line 1, H7 first tells A1 that time flies when it is a shorter-class day in Japanese '*40 分(授業)早い。*(*The day of shorter classes proceeds fast.*)' and that all lessons of the day will finish after '30 minutes', combined both in Japanese and in English when he should have stated '40 minutes'. Therefore, A1 tries to repair it by picking up the trouble source '30 minutes?' (Seedhouse, 2004 for repairing by repeating a trouble source with a rising intonation discussed in Section 4.2.2.3) and displaying the correct one with rising intonation '40 minutes?'. This would be because firstly, A1 does not want to confirm H7's answer and secondly, he wants to politely repair the HRT's trouble source without threatening his face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Although A1 does other-initiated other-repair in line 2 by saying '30 minutes? 40 minutes?', he does so by using repetition of the trouble source '30 minutes?' and displaying the correct one '40 minutes?' with rising intonation. As a result, H7 recognizes his mistake and corrects his utterance in line 3 by

saying ‘30 じゃない。(Not 30) 40 minutes’ with laughter. H7’s laughter should show that A1’s repair did not threaten the HRT’s face.

Thus, this is a case where the ALT initiates repair by displaying a trouble source and the correct answer with rising intonation in order to invite self-repair and let the HRT recognize his mistake without making him lose face. There is also a case where the ALT discreetly rephrases the HRT’s utterance on the basis of his native speaker norm when both the HRT and the ALT actively speak up in order to cooperatively achieve pupils’ clear understanding. Extract 9 is a situation where the ALT (A1) tells the pupils a starting point of a direction guidance activity on a map to the 6th graders.

[Extract 9] Other-initiated Other-repair (The ALT’s Repair while Co-constructing Instruction with the HRT)

[A1-ALT, H7-HRT, P6-12, 13-Pupil]

1 A1: OK I will start with Bob start with Bob, face west

2 P6-12: おっ？(*Oh?*)

3 P6-13: West だから (*West means…*)

4 →H7: Where is west?

5 →A1: Which way is west?

(Extract from Interaction 10)

Here in line 4, H7 asks the pupils about the direction of west in English, using ‘where’, ‘Where is west?’. A1 also asks the pupils the same question in line 5, but not repeating H7’s utterance but instead using ‘which way’, ‘Which way is west?’. This is other-initiated other-repair by A1. Here, A1 seems to change the interrogative to the more

'appropriate' one based on his norm, discreetly repairing H7's English in co-constructing an instruction with H7, although the pupils seem to have understood what H7 said in line 4.

Thus, Extract 9 has shown a case in which both the HRT and the ALT actively speak up to cooperatively build pupils' understanding in teacher-pupil interaction. In a situation like this, there is no problem with the pupils' understanding of the content of the utterance in their communication even if the HRT utilizes an expression slightly irregular from an NS standard. Whereas, the ALT would discreetly correct the HRT's expression in English, rephrasing it in his own way, paying attention more to the pupils' understanding of the content. Other initiated other-repair is also employed with the use of *yes but* as a politeness strategy, to which we will now turn.

Other-initiated Other-repair with *Yes But* Strategy

The strategy of using *yes but* is discussed by Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 113-4, explained in Holtgraves, 1997, p. 231) and also Sacks (1973, explained in Brown and Levinson, 1987, pp. 113-4). Holtgraves (1997) investigates linguistic characteristics when people show disagreements using politeness strategies such as the use of 'yes but', based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. Holtgraves (1997) tries to reveal 'how people politely disagree with one another' and 'how these acts are actually performed' (p. 223). The study shows that people try to minimize the degree of disagreement, seek a way to show agreement while disagreeing, and show their familiarity while disagreeing by using positive politeness in conversation (p. 225). Thus, one way of softening disagreement is using token agreement in order to briefly show agreement with what speakers have just said but then immediately disagreeing with the ideas (p. 231).

In the current research, *yeah* is utilized instead of *yes but* to politely disagree and repair an interlocutor's misunderstanding as seen in the following extracts. In Extracts 10 and 11, *yeah* is used in a similar manner as 'yeah (yes) but' in that in both cases after 'yeah' both the ALT (Extract 10) and the HRT (Extract 11) repair what the preceding speaker said. Extract 10 is a situation where the ALT (A1) introduces the day's game to the class in the 3rd grade.

[Extract 10] Other-initiated Other-repair (The Use of *Yeah* as a Politeness Strategy)

[A1-ALT, P3-7-Pupil]

1 A1: So today, let's play ABC bingo!

2 P3-7: かるた？ (*Karuta* [= card game]*?*)

3 →A1: *Yeah*, ABC bingo!

(Extract from Interaction 1)

Here, A1 introduces the day's game as bingo in line 1. However, one of the pupils (P3-7) misunderstands A1's explanation and regards 'bingo' as '*Karuta* (card game)' in line 2. In response to P3-7's misunderstanding, A1 uses the acknowledging token 'yeah' to seemingly accept P3-7's statement, however, followed by correction 'ABC bingo' in line 3. Therefore, 'yeah' here works as a *yes but* strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Sacks, 1987) in order to soften the disagreement. This sequence is also other-initiated other-repair. Extract 11 also shows a similar case of the use of *yeah* ('yes but' strategy) by the HRT, which is a situation where the HRT (H7) asks the ALT (A1) a question during a lesson in the 6th grade.

[Extract 11] Other-initiated Other-repair (The Use of *Yes But* as a Politeness Strategy)

[A1-ALT, H7-HRT, P6-14, 15-Pupil]

((When practicing direction giving, H7 realizes that some of the pupils reach the wrong goal and he guesses that the right or wrong of the answer depends on whether the pupils could hear 'turn right' correctly or not. Then, P6-14 asks H7 what is '*hidari* [left]' in English. H7 tries to let him remember it by himself. However, A1 cuts their interaction as he did not hear it. Therefore, H7 tries to ask A1 P6-14's question by saying 'Excuse me' instead of continuing the interaction with P6-14 as follows.))

1 H7: Excuse me. ((Raising his hand))

2 A1: Oh yes, question yeah

3 H7: *左ってなんて言うの？* (*How do you say 'hidari'* [left] *in English?*)

4 P6-15: Turn left

((The HRT and the ALT do not seem to hear P6-15's answer))

5 A1: Left hand?

6 →H7: *Yeah*, left

7 A1: Left hand, right hand ((with gesture))

8 H7: *OK. どんどん聞いた方がいいよ、ね？* (*You should ask any questions to the ALT, OK?*)

(Extract from Interaction 10)

In this extract, the *yes but* strategy is used by H7 in line 6 'Yeah, left'. H7 uses the acknowledging token *yeah* to show agreement with A1. Here, in line 3, H7 asks A1 the

question in Japanese '左ってなんて言うの？ (*How do you say 'hidari'* [left] *in English?*)'. Then, P6-15 answers the question, saying 'Turn left' in line 4. However, P6-15's voice is quiet and both H7 and A1 do not seem to hear his answer. In line 5, A1 answers the question 'Left hand?', having misunderstood H7's utterance '*hidari tte* (左って) [left is]' as '*hidari te* (左手) [left hand]'. H7 recognizes A1's misunderstanding. However, in line 6, he first shows acknowledgement to A1, using 'yeah', and then says the correct answer 'left' without pointing out A1's misunderstanding, which can be said that H7 employed the *yes but* strategy.

In line 7, A1 still remains misunderstood H7's question in line 3, and perhaps this time thinking that H7 didn't correctly catch what he said; he repeats 'Left hand, right hand'. Thus, A1 further explains with gestures so that H7 and pupils understand the terms 'left hand' correctly. In line 8, however, H7 just uses a discourse marker 'OK' to move on to the next topic without further repairing A1's misunderstanding; thus, 'OK' works as marking boundaries (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) (See Chapters 3 and 6 for more detailed information on discourse markers). During this exchange, H7 is directing his utterance towards P6-14, who originally asked what 'hidari' is in English. Thus, 'Yeah, left' in line 6 is simultaneously addressed to P6-14 and other pupils. What he says next in line 8, i.e. どんどん聞いた方がいいよ、ね？ (*You should ask any questions to the ALT, OK?*)' in Japanese is also confirming that he has continued his interaction with P6-14, who originally asked the question. Thus, in this extract, other-initiated and other-repair by H7 occurs in order to correct A1's answer without threatening his face in a complex interactive situation, and it was so discreetly conducted to ensure pupils' understanding that A1 might not have noticed that he had misunderstood H7's original question.

In this way, *yes but* strategy is utilized, a speaker showing surface agreement first

but politely repairing an interlocutor's misunderstanding later. So far, we have seen various types of repair, but not all repairing is used successfully. The next section explores such a case.

8.2.3 The ALT's Failure to Understand the Pupil's Utterance (Failed and Discarded Repair-sequences)

The current research has also found that not all repair sequences are successfully achieved. The section illustrates a case in which a repair sequence between the ALT and the pupil is discarded along the way and examines why the failure to repair happens between them. The following extract (Extract 12) is a situation where the ALT (A4) asks the pupils about their winter vacation at the beginning of a lesson, which is a warm-up for the pupils in the 2nd grade.

[Extract 12] The ALT's Failure to Understand the Pupil's Utterance (Failed and Discarded Repair-sequences)

[A4-ALT, P2-7, 8, 9-Pupil]

1 A4: OK so winter vacation 冬休み (*winter vacation*)

2 →P2-7: え? (*Eh?*)

3 →A4: 冬休みどこに行った？

(*Where did you go during the winter vacation?*)

4 P2-7: あ、ハワイアンズに行った

(*I went to 'Hawaiians'* [Spa in Fukushima Prefecture in Japan])

5 →A4: Hawaii? ←**Other-initiated Other-repair by A4** **Clarification question**

6 →P2-7: アンズ (anzu [ənz]) **Other-initiated Other-repair by P2-7** **Response**

7 P2-8: あ、あ、あ、あ (*ah ah ah ah*)

8 A4: When? When? When? どこに、いつ行った? (*Where, when did you go there?*)

9 →P2-7: なんだっけ (*Let me see*)

10 P2-9: スキースキースキー (*Ski ski ski*)

11 →A4: OK, who went skiing? Ski ski ski

((Some pupils raise their hands))

12 A4: Ski oh good

(Extract from Interaction 35)

Here in line 1, A4 asks the pupils about their winter vacation. P2-7, however, cannot understand the question. Therefore, he asks what A4 has said with a Japanese interjection 'え(*eh*)' in line 2 with rising intonation, which is other-initiated repair (see Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff et al., 1977). In response to this, A4 in line 3 asks the question again this time in Japanese '冬休みどこに行った? (*Where did you go during winter vacation?*)', which is classified as other-initiated (by P2-7) self-repair.[46]

On understanding A4's question in line 3, P2-7 in line 4 answers it in Japanese 'あ、ハワイアンズに行った (*I went to 'Hawaiians'* [Spa in Fukushima Prefecture in Japan])'. However, A4 fails to clearly understand P2-7's answer. Therefore, in line 5, he clarifies with rising intonation if the pupil has said 'Hawaii'. This can normally be

[46] The exchange in lines 2 and 3 can be classified in another way. That is, request for clarification by P2-7 and reformulation by the ALT. From the perspective of classroom discourse analysis, P2-7's showing of non-understanding 'え(*eh*)?' in line 2 becomes a request for clarification (or other-initiated repair by P2-7) to the ALT. In response to this, the ALT in line 3 reformulates his question to '冬休みどこに行った? (*Where did you go during winter vacation?*)' (self-repair by the ALT) in Japanese. The present chapter investigates the interaction in the framework of repair. However, it can thus be analyzed from a classroom discourse analytic perspective.

categorized as other-initiated other-repair but simultaneously a confirming question. That is to say, A4 might have heard what P2-7 said, but he might have thought that P2-7 had mistakenly said ‘Hawaiians’ instead of ‘Hawaii’. This is because he did not know there is a place called ‘Hawaiians’ in Japan. That is why he clarified, saying ‘Hawaii?’ in line 5. In response to A4’s clarification, P2-7 in line 6 tries to tell him that he visited not ‘Hawaii’ but ‘Hawaiians’ (Hawaiians Resort in Japan) by just adding a suffix ‘ans [ənz]’. This is self-initiated by A4 and other-repaired by P2-7 (see Extract 12 for details). Thus, it turns out that A4’s entire other-initiated other-repair was in fact not correct.

A4 does not seem to exactly recognize the place ‘Hawaiians’ which P2-7 visited during the winter vacation. However, A4 in line 8 asks P2-7 when he went there, stating ‘When? When? When? どこに、いつ行った? (*Where, when did you go there?*)’ by using both English and Japanese. P2-7, however, cannot answer the question quickly and starts a word search in line 9 by stating ‘なんだっけ(*Let me see*)’, trying to answer the ALT’s question. The ALT then notices P2-9’s voice in line 10 saying ‘スキースキースキー(*Ski ski ski*)’ and changes his question in line 11 by using discourse marker ‘OK’ in order to mark boundaries (e.g., Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) between P2-7’s earlier trial of answering his question and P2-9’s new offer of an answer, stating in line 11 ‘OK. Who went skiing? Ski ski ski’. This shows changes of topics and non-completion of an answer to the question by P2-7 initiated in line 9. Although P2-7 does seem to seek assistance in line 9, A4 disregards the topic, not responding to P2-7’s request for assistance, leaving his original question unanswered and moving to another pupil’s response (see Gumperz, 1982 in Section 3.8 on the failure in reacting to a contextualization cue). Consequently, P2-7’s attempt of an answer results in failure and the conversation between A4 and P2-7 stops along the way.

In this extract, the communication breakdown between A4 and P2-7 might have happened due to A4's misunderstanding of the word 'Hawaiians'. This seems to have been caused by his lack of schematic knowledge (Widdowson, 1990). That is, in this case, knowledge on the existence of a place called 'Hawaiians' in Japan. The misunderstanding could have been avoided, if someone such as the HRT had explained what 'Hawaiians' is. Thus, this section has illustrated that misunderstanding could occur because of the ALT's lack of schematic knowledge on the local context (see Luk and Lin, 2007 in Section 3.7.2 for the lack of knowledge on pupils' L1), failing to complete a question and answer sequence initiated by a pupil.

Chapter 8 has featured some extracts of repair which could be explained by repair types categorized by Schegloff et al (1977) in a primary English classroom setting in Japan among the ALT, the HRTs and the pupils. In addition to the categories already available, the present research has also identified a new category of repair, which is self-initiated repair trial combined with clarifying repair, utilized by a pupil when initiating and trying to repair what he/she wants to say and when the ALT helps to repair it with a clarification. Thus, the conversation analytic approach made it possible to analyze interactions among HRTs, ALTs, and pupils in a detailed manner as well as Chapter 7. That is, the current chapter (Chapter 8) could describe how repair is utilized by the three parties in primary school English lessons. Although the findings illustrated in this chapter are based on the limited data in the present research, and it is hard to make generalizations, it will be informative and useful when we consider how repair could be effectively conducted in language teaching lessons in Japanese primary schools. On the basis of the data analysis in Chapters 6, 7, and 8, the next chapter will discuss implications and conclusion of the current research.

Chapter 9

Conclusion and Implications for Language Pedagogy

9.1 Summary of Findings from the Present Research

In the previous chapters (Chapters 2 to 8), on the basis of literature reviews on sociocultural theory (Chapter 2), classroom discourse analysis (Chapter 3), and conversation analysis (Chapter 4), data analysis has been conducted from classroom discourse (Chapter 6) and conversation (Chapters 7 and 8) analytic perspectives with the use of qualitative research methods (see Chapter 5) in order to describe what is actually happening in English lessons among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils in S Primary School and to reveal how these three parties cooperatively communicate with each other for their mutual understanding, using various linguistic (and non-linguistic) resources available.

Chapter 6 has found, from a classroom discourse analytic perspective, that the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils utilize resources such as discourse markers and the use of scaffolding and interlocutors' own language. Discourse markers have been utilized by the ALTs to get attention from the pupils, mark the transition to the next activity, and respond to or confirm the pupils' or the HRTs' responses (see Section 6.1.1). Scaffolding has been used by the HRTs to elicit answers, by both the HRTs and the ALTs to mark important points and control the pupils' frustration, and finally by the pupils to tell other peers what the ALT said by translating it into Japanese (see Section 6.1.2). The use of interlocutors' own language has also been observed. That is, the use of Japanese by the ALTs has been found for getting attention, elicitation, encouragement, clarification, checking understanding, and asking a favor, whereas, the use of English by the HRTs has also been

found for direction, managing pupils' behavior, repetition-oriented instruction, encouragement, and praising (see Section 6.1.3). These findings mean that the HRTs and the ALTs collaboratively try to support the pupils' language learning with various ways in order to secure pupils' clear understanding and showing their (the ALTs'/the HRTs') accommodation to the interlocutors' L1 with each other. Chapter 6 has also discussed the importance of cultural sensitivity of the three parties (see Section 6.2).

On the other hand, Chapter 7 has featured repetition and silence from a conversation analytic perspective since these phenomena have been frequently observed in English lessons in S Primary School. The present research data has shown that repetition is utilized by the ALTs and the HRTs for securing the pupils' understanding, encouraging the pupils, and confirming what the pupils said (see Section 7.1). On the other hand, silence is utilized by the pupils for showing non-understanding, non-confidence, saving interlocutors' face, and understanding but with nodding, (see Section 7.2).

Chapter 8 has examined repair from a conversation analytic perspective as it has also been frequently observed in the current research data. The present research has identified some categories of repair discussed in Schegloff et al. (1977) (see Sections 8.1.1 and 8.2) as well as the one specific to the current classroom context (see Section 8.1.2). Chapter 8 has also investigated the ALT's failure to repair the pupil's utterance due to the ALT's lack of schematic knowledge about the local context (see Section 8.2.3). Thus, the importance of being familiarized with the local context has been discussed. On the basis of these findings, the next section will discuss implications of the present research in order to consider to what extent the findings of the research could be applied to primary school team-taught English lessons in Japan or similar contexts in other countries.

9.2 Implications for Primary School Team Teaching

The present research has found that the three parties, i.e. the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils, cooperatively create language learning classrooms, using various linguistic resources available regardless of their limited English/Japanese ability. In particular, four issues, that is, use of interlocutors' L1 (9.2.1), how to cope with interlocutors' irregular use of English/Japanese (9.2.2), HRTs and ALTs as language learner/user models (9.2.3), and teacher training with video-recorded English lessons (9.2.4), will be discussed as implications in this section since they are features in the present research.

9.2.1 Use of Interlocutors' L1

In the present research, it was observed that the ALTs and the HRTs positively utilized interlocutors' L1 regardless of the fact that both the HRTs and the ALTs have little confidence in using their foreign languages, that is, in this case English and Japanese respectively, in/out of English classes as they are eager to communicate with each other (and the pupils) (Fukatsu-Shino, 2010; Shino, 2014b). The results show that both the ALTs and the HRTs accommodate to interlocutors' L1 in order to deepen the pupils' clear understanding and show their (the HRTs') participation in English lessons. Although the use of learners' L1 (Japanese in the present research) during target language (English in the present research) lessons has been controversial in the ELT field (e.g., Butler, 2007; Butler & Iino, 2005; Cook, 2010; Takanashi & Takahashi, 1990) as touched on in Chapter 3, it could be effective for learners' language learning (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005; Liu, et al., 2004; Nagy & Robertson, 2009) and using in terms of communication (e.g., Carless, 2006; Luk, 2005; Luk & Lin, 2007), which MEXT refers to as a main goal of English education at primary level (MEXT, 2014). Thus,

as an implication, we could recognize the use of interlocutors' L1 where necessary as one of effective resources for mutual understanding and smooth communication among the three parties in English lessons in Japanese primary schools. On the other hand, through using interlocutors' L1, an irregular use of Japanese/English was sometimes observed in the present research, to which I will now turn.

9.2.2 How to Cope with Interlocutors' Irregular Use of English/Japanese

The present research also observed an irregular use of Japanese by the ALTs and that of English by the HRTs (see Chapters 7 and 8 for the details). However, the current research found that their irregular use of interlocutors' language was not directly corrected by the other parties. That is, when an ALT used an irregular pronunciation in Japanese, neither the HRT nor the pupils pointed it out since they understood what the ALT wanted to say. Rather, the pupils tried to save the ALT's face by remaining silent when they heard the ALT's irregular Japanese pronunciation (see 7.2). On the other hand, when the HRT utilized an irregular expression in English, the ALT also did not directly correct it and continued a lesson as both the ALT and the pupils understood what the HRT wanted to say (see 8.2.2). These phenomena prove that the three parties prioritize understanding what their interlocutors tried to say when using each other's L1 and also try to save interlocutors' face even when they notice their interlocutors' irregular use of Japanese/English. Thus, it could be said that an immediate repair of interlocutors' irregular use in their target language is not always necessary when understanding is achieved. One of the reasons why the three parties do not directly repair what interlocutors said with each other would be that the three parties understand everyone, in a sense, is a language learner/user when using interlocutors' language, to which we will now turn.

9.2.3 HRTs and ALTs as Language Learner/User Models

Although the HRTs and the ALTs are teachers in classrooms, they are also simultaneously language learners, that is, the HRTs were learners and simultaneously users of English and the ALTs were those of Japanese when they tried to use their target language regardless of their limited English/Japanese ability during English lessons in order to communicate with each other and also with the pupils for smooth team teaching. Through observing the HRTs' and the ALTs' collaborative efforts to use their target language, the pupils might build their positive attitude toward learning and using English with the use of various linguistic resources available (see Chapter 6). Although the HRTs in the present research told that they did not have confidence in teaching English with the ALTs as they did not have special certificate for teaching English, their positive attitude toward using English should have a good influence on the pupils' language learning and using. Thus, HRTs and ALTs should be encouraged to teach, use, and learn English (or Japanese for ALTs) with confidence in front of pupils as language learner/user models even if his/her English/Japanese ability is limited. In order that these HRTs will have confidence in teaching and using English with ALTs, the next section will show an idea of teacher training for more effective English team teaching between HRTs and ALTs.

9.2.4 Teacher Training with Video-recorded English Lessons

In the present research, the three parties, that is, the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils were observed to collaboratively teach, learn, and use English, using various linguistic resources available such as English, Japanese, and Japanese onomatopoeia for achieving mutual understanding in English lessons. Furthermore, the three parties made efforts to

understand what interlocutors said and save their face even when they came across the interlocutors' irregular use of English/Japanese. Based on the research result, HRTs, who have little confidence in conducting English lessons with ALTs, should especially know how successfully they could manage their team-taught English lessons with the ALTs in order to be confident in teaching and using English.

One of ideas to make HRTs realize how their efforts in English lessons work well is video-recording, analyzing, and reflecting on actual classroom interactions between HRTs and ALTs during English lessons as teacher training sessions. Video-recording and reviewing English lessons for making more effective and interesting lesson plans have often been conducted by Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) who have certificates for teaching English (e.g., The Japan Association for the Study of Teaching English to Children, 2019). However, reflecting on how effortfully and collaboratively HRTs and ALTs communicate with each other for conducting effective English lessons by video-recording and analyzing actual interactions seems not to be satisfactorily pursued. Therefore, this kind of teacher training sessions might be helpful to give HRTs confidence in teaching English with ALTs with the help of coordinators in that especially HRTs would not be well-trained to analyze video-recorded English lessons.

For example, HRTs and ALT in a school could hold an at-school teacher training session during a summer break at their home school. In the training session, a video-recorded English lesson, which is conducted by one of the HRTs and the ALT at the school, are observed and reviewed by the HRTs and the ALT in the school. The session could be proceeded by a coordinator such as a researcher, supervisor on English education in each city, or a Japanese teacher of English at a local junior high school. In the session, they could find how the HRT and the ALT collaboratively teach English and communicate

with each other in order to achieve a successful English lesson in terms of:

1) what linguistic/non-linguistic resources (such as English, Japanese, Japanese onomatopoeia, gestures, pictures, and so on) the HRTs and the ALTs use in English lessons to communicate with each other (and with the pupils)

→by revealing this, the HRTs and the ALTs might realize how they could effectively conduct lessons, using various linguistic/non-linguistic resources available

2) what ways (such as the use of repetition, interlocutors' language, discourse markers, and so on.) the HRTs and the ALTs utilize to effectively conduct team teaching

→by reviewing this, the HRTs and the ALTs might realize how they could conduct lessons, using various ways

3) for what purposes (such as for scaffolding the pupils' achieving tasks, repairing what interlocutors said, and so on.) the HRTs and the ALTs utilize various resources and strategies

→by unveiling this, the HRTs and the ALTs could realize in what situations they could utilize these resources and strategies for more effective team-taught English lessons

4) how the HRTs and the ALTs avoid communication breakdown when misunderstanding occurs during lessons and what causes misunderstanding

→ by analyzing this, the HRTs and the ALTs could be able to preempt misunderstanding by knowing what potential causes of misunderstanding are

The following section will discuss limitations of the research.

9.3 Limitations of the Present Research

As limitations of the research, two issues will be raised in this section. First, the issue of generalization of the research result is raised. The present research has investigated only one school. This is because the research was qualitative of its nature, focusing on a school as a case study in order to investigate what is actually happening in the classrooms. It is thus hard to generalize the research results because the actual situation of English lessons could be different in each school and classroom. It could, however, be helpful for similar classroom contexts as a case study.

Second, the issue of reflective interviews is raised. The present research has investigated classroom interactions audio-recorded in English lessons. The collected data were transcribed and analyzed by the current author, however, the participants' (the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils) voices are not reflected on in the present research. This is because it was not possible to conduct interviews with them as the HRTs and the ALTs were very busy during school hours and after school for their jobs and I was told by the supervisor of the Board of Education in H City that do not take the HRTs' and the ALTs' time too much for my (the current author's) research. In addition to this, I did not get permission to conduct interviews to the pupils. If I could get permission to conduct reflective interviews to the participants in the future, it would be helpful to achieve thicker descriptions on what is happening in classrooms by also taking participants' views into consideration in the analyzed data. The next section will conclude the present research.

9.4 Final Discussion

As a whole, the present research has found that the HRTs, the ALTs, and also the pupils

positively utilize various linguistic resources available regardless of their limited language ability for, e.g., securing the interlocutors' understanding, repairing trouble sources, and scaffolding the pupils' language activities. The efforts by the three parties to communicate with each other have proved that everyone is a language learner and user of both English and Japanese in this specific context, creating a communal and cooperative space for language teaching, learning, and using in classrooms (Medgyes, 1994; Walqui & van Lier, 2010). There is a possibility that these efforts by the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils, using whatever linguistic resources available (Seidlhofer, 2011; Vettorel, 2015; Widdowson, 1994; 2003), lead to effective language teaching and learning.

In order to construct more effective language teaching and learning spaces in primary school English lessons, I will conduct further research in primary school English classes, especially focusing on if there is any change in actual interactions among the HRTs, the ALTs, and the pupils in English lessons as English will become a formal subject in the fifth and sixth graders in all public Japanese primary schools in 2020 and the situation will be changed. I hope the results of the research will be helpful for both ALTs and HRTs, but especially for HRTs in Japanese primary schools, who have little confidence to teach English with ALTs.

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Appendix

Appendix

Transcription Conventions

The transcription conventions in the present study are mainly based on Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008, pp. x-xii).

(0.5)	The number in brackets indicates a time gap in tenths of a second.
=	The 'equals' sign indicates 'latching' between utterances. For example: S1: yeah September seventy six it would be= S2: =yeah that's right It can also be used to transcribe the continuation of a turn across intervening lines of transcript, for instance when another speaker's turn overlaps: S1: yeah September [seventy six= [September S1: =it would be
[ ]	Square brackets between adjacent lines of concurrent speech indicate the onset and end of a spate of overlapping talk.
(( ))	A description enclosed in a double bracket indicates a non-verbal activity. For example ((banging sound)). Alternatively double brackets may enclose the transcriber's comments on contextual or other features.

sou:::nd	Colons indicate that the speaker has stretched the preceding sound or letter. The more colons the greater the extent of the stretching.
!	Exclamation marks are used to indicate and animated or emphatic tone.
( )	Empty parentheses indicate the presence of an unclear fragment on the tape[47].
word.	A full stop indicates a stopping fall in tone. It does not necessarily indicate the grammatical end of a sentence.
word,	A comma indicates a 'continuing' intonation
word?	A question mark indicates a rising inflection. It does not necessarily indicate a question.
↑ ↓	Pointed arrows indicate a marked falling or rising intonational shift. They are placed immediately before onset of the shift.
→	Arrows in the left margin point to specific parts of an extract discussed in the text.

[47] In the present research, an IC recorder is used.