The Talk Skills Project: Improving Dialogic Interaction in the Korean Adult Foreign Language Classroom

By

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics

University of Warwick, Centre for Applied Linguistics

December 2017
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# Abbreviations

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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALT</td>
<td>Actual Learning Trajectory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIL</td>
<td>Content and Language Integrated Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Conversation Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COSOI</td>
<td>Cooperative Organization of Strategies for Oral Interaction Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBR</td>
<td>Design-Based Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPIK</td>
<td>English Program in Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ET</td>
<td>Exploratory Talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETLL</td>
<td>Exploratory Talk for Language Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCL</td>
<td>Fostering a Community of Learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HLT</td>
<td>Hypothetical Learning Trajectory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDZ</td>
<td>Intermental Development Zone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRF</td>
<td>Initiation Response Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCST</td>
<td>Oral Communication Strategy Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCT</td>
<td>Sociocultural Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCT-L</td>
<td>Sociocultural Theory for Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUIS</td>
<td>Skilled Use of Interaction Strategies Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TETE</td>
<td>Teaching English Through English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZPD</td>
<td>Zone of Proximal Development</td>
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Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr Steve Mann, for his guidance and support at every stage of this PhD course. As a distance student, much of this study was done alone in Korea, meaning I could only rarely visit Warwick. Our video tutorials offered a vital space in which I could critically engage with ideas within the thesis and develop the project in the right direction. I would also like to thank my second supervisors, Dr Keith Richards in the early stages of the course and latterly, Dr Annamaria Pinter, both for their valuable feedback on thesis drafts and progress. I would also like to thank Dr Chris Jenks for his feedback and advice.

I am also very grateful to the staff and students at Konkuk University Language Institute. My supervisors, Yoonji Kim and Yoojin Kang, have both encouraged and supported my classroom research, allowing me to record classes and interview students. Thank you to my colleagues past and present, particularly Douglas Holden, Emory Mckee, Patrick Rousseau, Randon Sommars and Sean Story, who all offered valuable support and feedback. Thank you also to the students who participated in the study, whose feedback was integral to the development of the Talk Skills project.

Finally, a warm and deep thank you to my friends and family. Thank you to my partner, Sam, for her love and support. Cheers to my best friend, Richard Wright, who helped me to stay motivated and enjoy the process. Thank you to my brother, Jack, who has helped me to be optimistic and is a model of hard work in his own field. Thank you to my sister, Terry, and my niece, Camilla, for their support. Most importantly, a heartfelt thank you to my mother and father, who have always encouraged and supported me and were invaluable to me, especially at times when the process was lonely. This thesis is dedicated to you.
Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own work. It has not been previously submitted to elsewhere for a degree, diploma or any other qualification.

____________________________
George Edwin Skuse
Abstract

The purpose of this study was to develop the Talk Skills pedagogic intervention, implemented in the Korean adult L2 learning context, which aims to raise awareness of effective L2 talk and teach oral communicative strategies that help students to achieve it. The study is underpinned by theories that foreground the importance of language use in L2 classrooms, focusing, most importantly, on the relationship between interaction and second language acquisition, and sociocultural theory for language learning. Review of the literature showed that students had the best opportunities for language learning when classroom talk embodies characteristics such as students giving opinions, offering reasons, sharing information, respectfully challenging each other, attempting to reach agreement, negotiating meaning, noticing and building upon gaps in their language and promoting language learning through scaffolding and emergent language. This type of talk is termed here exploratory talk for language learning. However, research into the Korean context showed that Korean L2 learners encounter problems with classroom group oral interaction that inhibit the production of this kind of talk and that may lead to unfulfilled potential for learning. This led to the hypothesis that adult Korean L2 learners could benefit from lessons that raise awareness of this kind of talk and learn strategies to help achieve it.

Drawing on previous attempts at metacognitive awareness raising of effective classroom talk, as well as literature on oral communicative strategy training, the Talk Skills intervention was developed using a design-based research (DBR) methodology. The scope of the project was limited to exploring the soundness and local viability of the intervention, using lesson transcript data, student interview feedback, my own field notes and expert appraisal from my course tutors to refine the intervention across two iterations. Initial impact of the project was also explored by analysing feedback from a small number of teachers who have used elements of the intervention in their adult English language courses.

Taken as a whole, this thesis argues that Korean adult L2 learners can benefit from metacognitive awareness raising of exploratory talk for language learning and the learning of oral communicative strategies to help achieve this kind of talk. The thesis further argues that this aim can successfully be achieved using a design-based research methodology to both develop the Talk Skills intervention as a pedagogic tool, and further offer specific insight into instructional techniques, student engagement and teacher’s interactional roles that aid the success of its implementation. Finally, this thesis argues that as DBR is an underutilized methodology in the field of L2 research, the Talk Skills project offers a useful example of DBR for practitioner researchers wishing to embark on intervention design and development.
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the Talk Skills project

The aim of this research is to improve small group oral interaction in the Korean adult foreign language classroom context. As a teacher with ten years of experience teaching adult L2 conversation classes, group discussion plays a large and important part in my lessons. This is because discussion allows students to sustain talk on a given topic, work together to co-construct knowledge, negotiate meaning, for example, by asking for help finding a word or clarifying a point and take turns giving opinions, agreeing or disagreeing with each other (Zwiers & Crawford 2011). This study was born out of a desire to enhance the way my learners speak to each other during their discussions.

To achieve this aim, an intervention was developed for raising student awareness of the kind of talk that is educationally effective for foreign language learning, and training learners to achieve this talk in group oral interaction in the classroom context. The intervention was based on similar interventions that have proved successful in both L1 and L2 classrooms, such as the Thinking Together project in L1 primary and secondary schools (e.g. Mercer & Littleton 2007; Dawes 2012) and various L2 strategy training programs (e.g. Naughton 2006; Lam 2006; Bejarano 1997).

The study is guided by two claims: Claim 1) during L2 classroom discussions, certain types of talk in L2 classrooms are of more educational value and more conducive to language learning than others. Claim 2) adult Korean L2 learners in the classroom learning context could benefit from lessons that raise awareness and maximize the use of the kind of talk that is conducive to language learning in small group discussion.

Regarding claim 1, much research in L1 classroom group discussion (e.g. Wegerif et al. 2004, Mercer & Littleton 2007) has found that during problem solving and joint reasoning tasks, when learners are listening carefully to each other, giving
reasons for what they are saying, respectfully challenging each other, and jointly working towards agreement, in other words, engaging in exploratory talk (Barnes 1973), learning is taking place. Exploratory talk stands in contrast to other less conducive forms in which students are not engaged in critical reasoning.

Similar findings have been made in L2 discussion research. Chappell (2014), uses the term inquiry dialogue to describe a type of L2 talk that closely reflects exploratory talk. When learners are engaged in inquiry dialogue, they are being respectful of each other, working together to understand ideas, drawing on emergent language for the purpose of language learning, and scaffolding language (J. Ko et al. 2003). Chappell claims that when learners are engaging in such talk, they are able to generate meaningful language, develop communicative competence and improve language learning strategies through communication. Research, such as Boyde (2012), and Moat (2010), has similarly foregrounded the benefit of engaging in exploratory talk in L2 learning contexts. In this thesis, such educationally effective L2 classroom talk will be termed exploratory talk for language learning.

Claim 2 suggests that adult Korean L2 learners in the classroom learning context could benefit a) from lessons that raise awareness of the nature of effective L2 talk and b) from the direct teaching of oral communicative strategies that aim at helping students to achieve effective L2 talk.

The same research that distinguished exploratory talk as conducive to learning in L1 classrooms, also found that learners can be taught skills to use exploratory talk in their discussions (e.g. Wegerif et al. 2004, Mercer & Littleton 2007). This finding formed the basis for the Thinking Together project that was created to achieve this goal. This research suggests that such findings are transferrable into the adult Korean L2 learning context.

In the context of L2 classrooms, attempts have been made to improve group discussion. These attempts have mainly focused on the teaching of oral interaction strategies and metacognitive awareness raising of oral interaction strategy use. Such efforts focus on helping learners to “engage with each other and with the task in a way
that would foster the creation and exploitation of learning opportunities” (Naughton 2006: 169). In strategy training programs, various language learning strategies are taught, such as follow up questions, requesting and giving clarification, repair, and requesting and giving help. It has been shown that teaching learners these strategies can improve the quality of their interaction (Bejarano et al. 1997). The goal of this research is to draw on previous attempts at metacognitive awareness raising in both L1 and L2 contexts and research into strategy training in the L2 context to develop a language classroom intervention that raises awareness in L2 learners of the concept of exploratory talk for language learning and helps them to develop strategies to use such talk effectively in their own classroom discussions.

To achieve this aim, a design-based research (DBR) methodology will be used. The decision to use DBR is based on its claim to:

“have the potential to bridge the gap between educational practice and theory, because it aims both at developing theories about domain-specific learning and the means that are designed to support that learning. DBR thus produces both useful products (e.g., educational materials) and accompanying scientific insights into how these products can be used in education” (Bakker & Van Eerde 2015: 2).

In other words, there are two aims of DBR, firstly to design and refine an educational intervention through iterative cycles of design, reflection, and redesign, and secondly, to generate theory of learning and instruction based on the outcomes of the given intervention. The generated theory that is produced by DBR is usually predictive, and may take the form “under conditions X using educational approach Y, students are likely to learn Z” (Bakker & Van Eerde 2015: 4).

Using DBR methodology, this research will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What guides and supports the design of an intervention that aims to help learners use exploratory talk for language learning and what are its design features?
2. How does this intervention facilitate adult L2 learners’ use of exploratory talk for language learning?

To address these questions, the research will begin by outlining the context of the research, language learning in Korea and its wider Asia-Pacific region. As will be shown, despite English fever in Korea; a strong drive to improve English language competency among Koreans, Korean society has an imperfect language education system (Finch 2013), including overemphasis on high stakes language testing and overly hasty implementation of a communicative language teaching curriculum. Further, given Korea’s culturally passive classroom learning style and rigid social hierarchy (Park 2012; Lim & Griffith 2003), issues that often hinder productive oral communication, a perceived need is given in this research for improvement in group oral communication in this context.

McKenney and Reeves (2013: loc 2018) point out that the main goal of a literature review in design-based research is “to seek out and learn from how others have viewed and solved similar problems”. As such, chapter 3, begins by outlining research into improving group talk in L1 learning, with a focus on the Thinking Together project and its attempts to enhance exploratory talk use among children in L1 contexts, and its potential for use in other contexts, namely with L2 adult learners in Korea. The chapter then introduces group work in L2 classrooms as a potential locus for exploratory talk for language learning and outlines prior attempts to improve L2 small group talk through metacognitive awareness raising and oral communicative strategy training. Parallels will be made between exploratory talk in L1 classrooms and research on similar types of talk in the L2 context to show how the concepts in the Thinking Together project and the strategy training programs may be viably drawn on and used in the Korean L2 adult classroom context to improve small group oral interaction. The review will then outline the theoretical underpinnings for using talk in L2 classrooms, focusing on the relationship between interaction and second language acquisition; sociocultural theory; Bakhtin’s dialogic heteroglossia; the ecological perspective of language learning; and Johnson’s dialogically based model of language learning.
The methodology chapter of the thesis outlines the proposed application of design-based research as a method to answer the research questions. The section will begin by outlining the basic tenets of DBR and comparing it to other similar methods of research. Then the proposed model of DBR will be described to show how it may be used in this research to achieve the given research aims.

Methods of data collection and analysis are then outlined. Namely, surveys will be used to gauge the feasibility of the intervention. Then, student interviews, field notes and classroom audio recordings, analysed using conversation analysis, will illustrate the intervention as implemented in its context to show how it functions and how it is refined over iterations.

The analysis begins with chapter 5 illustrating student perceptions of their use of exploratory talk for language learning in their classroom talk. Then, chapters 6 and 7 will show how the intervention was run over two cycles. In each chapter, data is analysed to a) show how the intervention functioned during the iterations and b) highlight the refinements that were needed to improve the intervention through the cycles. Analysis will show findings as they appear holistically.

After the two cycles of DBR, key themes are mapped and coded and their significance is presented in the discussion chapter. Here, parallels are drawn between relevant literature and my own findings, focusing on a) the key instructional techniques used in the intervention, b) student engagement and c) the role of the teacher. The final evaluation chapter summarizes the impact of the Talk Skills intervention, offers a critique and outlines dissemination of the project. Finally, a conclusion sums up the project.
CHAPTER 2

CONTEXT OF RESEARCH

2.1 Language learning in Korea and the Asia-Pacific region

This research was conducted in the Korean adult language classroom context. As such, this chapter begins by giving a summary of the broad problems facing the implementation of a communicative approach to language teaching in the Asia-Pacific region, to which Korea belongs, then focuses on the more specific problems facing the implementation of communicative language teaching in Korea. This is followed by a discussion of problems Korean students face when asked to interact in groups. Finally, a description is given of the context of the research, namely adult English language classes at Konkuk University, Seoul.

2.2 The communicative approach to language teaching in the Asia-Pacific region: Issues and constraints

Communicative language teaching (CLT) was introduced to the Asia-Pacific region as a response to the “mounting criticism of the traditional approaches to English language teaching, such as the grammar translation and the audio-lingual methods” (Butler 2011: 36). The introduction of CLT in this region can be traced back to the 1970’s, although it wasn’t until the 1980’s that the method entered mainstream policy and curriculum (Y.H. Choi 2007). Specifically, in Korea, in 1992, the Korean Ministry of Education mandated the transition from mainly audio-lingual and grammar translation methods to CLT in Korean secondary schools (Park 2012; Ministry of Education 1997). At this time, CLT in the Asia-Pacific region addressed the growing need to improve English communication skills in order for the workforce to keep pace with the “rapid expansion of international exchanges via business, technology, and
communication (Butler 2011: 39). Several ethnographic surveys have investigated concerns among Asian countries regarding the implementation of CLT and suggest that the constraints limiting the success of CLT in Asia may be divided into three categories “(a) conceptual constraints, (b) classroom level constraints, and (c) societal level constraints” (ibid: 39), discussed respectively, as follows.

Conceptual constraints refer to the problems caused by the clash of concepts that occurs when CLT is implemented in a region that has a different traditional view of education. CLT as a Western concept of teaching, brings with it Western ideologies, such as the tendency to measure successful learning in terms of participation (Holliday 1997). This may be ethnocentric and therefore different from Asian notions of what constitutes good teaching and learning (Butler 2011). Moreover, the definition of good communication may differ between the West and Asia.

In contrast to Western educational concepts of participation and communicativeness, the Asia-Pacific region is dominated by a Confucian philosophy of education. The Confucian belief that “filial piety was the foundation of practicing morality in order to realize ren [benevolence]” (Fengyen 2004: 431) is reflected in the classroom by participants who tend to view the teacher as source of knowledge, and students as passive receivers of that knowledge. Furthermore, in contrast to the CLT ideal of communicative competence, the Confucian definition of the ideal human state is that of the ‘sage’, which is best achieved through self-cultivation and studying of books (Sun 2008). Traditionally, also, little emphasis was placed on learning for practical purposes. Because of the contrast between Western and Eastern conceptualizations of effective learning, the communicative approach to language learning has faced difficulties in implementation (Butler 2011).

Further conceptual constraints have resulted from the mistaken beliefs about CLT of teachers in the Asia-Pacific region, due to a lack of teacher training. In this context, teachers often believe that “CLT focused on oral language, ignoring grammar instruction and the accuracy of language use” (Butler 2011: 41). The consequence of
such mistaken beliefs is the poor implementation of CLT methods, particularly at primary level.

Following from conceptual constraints, classroom-level constraints refer to specific problems of implementing CLT in Asian classrooms. Here, three issues have been identified (Butler, 2011). The first is the perceived lack of confidence of non-native teachers in their competence to facilitate communicative tasks and activities in line with CLT. This may result in little evidence of actual communicative teaching taking place, as teachers revert to traditional audio-lingual and form-focused teaching methods (e.g. Prapaisit de Segovia & Hardison 2008). The second problem is the lack of appropriate meaningful and authentic teaching materials. The misconception in Asia of authenticity as always meaning ‘related to English speaking countries’, coupled with the abundance of Western textbooks means that Asian students are forced to use materials that “may not relate to […] their] lives or correspond to the kinds of language they would use in real communicative contexts as a means of global communication” (Butler 2011: 42). Thirdly, the prevalence of large classes in the Asia-Pacific region may make the implementation of CLT restrictively challenging (Butler 2005).

Societal-institutional constraints are the final type effecting CLT in the Asia-Pacific region. The main problem in this regard is the societal and institutional imposition of exams that test grammar translation skills. With societal pressure on Asian students to achieve high standards in their exams, teachers often revert to ‘teaching to the grammar-translation test’ and find that CLT “might not be the most efficient way to teach or acquire grammar and reading/writing proficiency” (Butler 2011: 42) needed to pass exams. A further societal issue is that in certain areas of the Asia-Pacific region, English language learners are offered little real-life opportunity to practice English.

Task-based instruction, an off-shoot of the communicative approach (Nunan 2003), has also made inroads in to the Asia-Pacific region, but classroom constraints also exist with this approach. Such constraints include Asian students’ perceived need for form-focused instruction not being met, the difficulties in incorporating tasks into local curriculum in which grammar focused examinations prevail (Hamp-Lyons 2007),
teachers’ lack of confidence in classroom facilitation of tasks (Jeon 2006), and excessive use of L1 during tasks (Carless 2007). The following section deals with issues and constraints of CLT specifically within the Korean context.

2.3 Issues with the communicative approach to language teaching in Korea

Research on CLT in the Korean context has identified many similar conceptual, classroom and societal constraints that the broader Asia-Pacific region has faced (Finch 2013; Park 2012; Lim & Griffith 2003). The following section will discuss the specific difficulties Korea has faced when adopting a communicative approach to language teaching.

In parallel with its surrounding Asia-Pacific region, Korea has a tradition of Confucian ideology, which has guided and shaped its society, culture and education (Windle, 2000). Korea also has a traditionally humanistic approach to education, which is represented in the unique ideal of hongik-ingan, loosely defined as strive for perfection in individual character, for independence, democracy and the promotion of human prosperity (Finch 2013). In the 1990’s, this ideal was invoked by Korean scholars who asserted the need for Korean citizens to become more proficient in English language if the country was to achieve its aim of becoming a more advanced and globalized nation, and compete with other advanced nations (Kim 2006). The result saw a shift in the 7th National Curriculum (1997), from grammar translation and audio-lingual methods to a communicative approach to language teaching (Park 2012) in Korean middle and high schools.

However, an overly hasty implementation of this curriculum lead to problems such as a “lack of teachers who are fluent in English to conduct the necessary coursework, insufficient teacher training, [and] inappropriate textbooks” (Kim 2006: 2). Consequently, in an attempt to rectify these problems, two important changes in Korean ELT have occurred. Firstly, Korean teachers were instructed to begin the process of teaching English through English (TETE). Secondly, many native English speaking
teachers were introduced into the education system via the English Program in Korea (EPIK) (Park 2012). These issues will be discussed respectively.

Several problems have arisen regarding TETE, but again, the crux of such constraints stems from Confucianism. In Korean society, and therefore education, the Confucian notion of social hierarchy (Park 1012; Lim & Griffith 2003) is pervasive. This means that teachers are in a position at the top of the hierarchy, with absolute authority, and students are instructed to obey the teacher (Park 2012). However, this hierarchical system is in contrast with CLT methodology, which shifts away from teacher centered approach to a more equal, student centered approach. Furthermore, when Korean teachers are asked to conduct English lessons in English, they are concerned about losing face in their classroom context, which has resulted in difficulties and reluctance to teach using a communicative approach, only in English (Li 1998). Furthermore, Korean students, used to a passive learning involving mainly listening to the teacher, often feel uncomfortable when asked to participate in communicative lessons, and may resist such methods (Li 1998; Park 2012; Windle 2000). While Korean high school graduates are expected to graduate with a vocabulary of 3000 words they receive little conversation practice and “the English they learn is textbook English bearing little relation to the English spoken by native speakers” (Cho 2004: 31).

The influx of native English speaking teachers via the EPIK program in Korea has also problematized language learning in the Korean school system, with potential ramifications on the language learners relevant to this study, now in tertiary education. Finch (2013) notes that while the EPIK program has admirable goals - to improve students English speaking ability, create cross-cultural exchange and develop the communicative teaching approach, the recruited native speaking teachers only require a Bachelor’s degree and native English fluency. These teachers therefore, often lack sufficient teaching qualifications and training to successfully implement communicative lessons (Finch 2013). They may often also lack understanding of Korean Confucian culture, and therefore misinterpret Korean students’ classroom behaviors, such as silence, passivity and avoidance of eye contact and become disenfranchised when attempting to implement communicative lessons (Park 2012). These are problems that
have influenced Korean learners in their early language learning years, potentially impacting their language learning as adults.

2.4 Korean language students and oral interaction: Issues and difficulties

Korean students have particular problems with classroom group oral interaction, which have been documented in previous research into group interaction among Korean students (Cho 2004; Lim & Griffith 2003, Windle 2000). One clear issue is the difference between the Korean and English languages. English is an Indo-European Language, while Korean belongs to the Ural-Altaic Language Family (Suh 2003). As these two languages are fundamentally different, the learning of one by a native speaker of the other requires much effort. The many differences in phonetics, vowels, consonants, stress and syntax are elaborated in Cho (2004).

Additionally, Koreans strongly associate their identity with their native Korean language and its alphabet, *Hangul* (Lim & Griffith 2003), meaning that they are inclined to use their L1 frequently in class. This is consistent with the theory that there is correlation between the strength of association between identity and native language and use of native language in L2 classrooms (Norton 2001). Indeed, Korean students have been documented to be “talking in Korean when there are other Koreans present and whispering things to themselves and others” (Lim & Griffiths 2003: paragraph 2).

As noted, Korea has an educational culture of high stakes language testing which focuses on grammatical accuracy (Finch 2013; Park 2012). This results in Korean students having a “fear of making mistakes when speaking English” (Lim & Griffith 2003). Students tend to be embarrassed at their mistakes and may be seen to silently rehearse speaking in order to verbalize grammatically accurate turns as much as possible. Finally, Korean students may feel uncomfortable discussing issues such as sex, or may feel far removed from other subjects that commonly occur in international textbooks, such as abortion or the death penalty and may have difficulty finding things to say (ibid).
Regarding English classroom behavior, Korean students have been noted to “be reserved and express fewer opinions in oral class discussions” (Lim & Griffith 2003: paragraph 1). A further observation is that Korean students “communicate in general and indirect ways… [and] are trained to think inclusively and express themselves indirectly in case they may offend others” (Cho 2004: 34). The following slightly adapted list from Cho also notes that Korean learners:

- May be afraid of making mistakes and being ridiculed in front of their classmates.
- May respond in short phrases because they may not feel confident or because they are too shy to respond. At the same time, when they have to elaborate their points, their discourse can become repetitive, redundant or circuitous. This is partly because of their shortage of vocabulary and partly because of their indirect way of expressing themselves.
- May find volunteering information to be considered too bold and a form of showing off, and thus inappropriate.
- May be embarrassed by praise as humility and self-criticism are highly valued.

Such problems may lead to unfulfilled potential to create language learning opportunities in group talk.

However, Holliday et al. warn against cultural stereotyping, as “stereotypes are often infected by prejudice, which in turn leads to otherization” (2004: 23). For this reason, it is important to avoid reducing group members simply to a set of pre-defined characteristics. Luk and Lin (2007: 54) further note that while the purpose of cultural models, such as the list above, is to detail what is central and typical about an aspect of culture, it is important to “avoid essentializing our interpretations of cultural models”. In this way, it is important to be aware of the danger of stereotyping Korean learners as shy and afraid of making mistakes, for example, as many learners have developed very outgoing personalities and active participatory classroom behavior and have often spent time living in English speaking countries.
2.5 **Context of research: Konkuk University language classes**

As a part-time PhD student, full time English language teacher, data was gathered from my own teaching context. I currently teach English as a foreign language at Konkuk University in Seoul, Korea. I teach on several language courses, one of which was chosen for my research purposes, described as follows.

The context for my research is adult, non-compulsory, English language conversation/discussion classes, offered at Konkuk University Language Institute. The Institute offers 10-week language programs in which a maximum of fifteen students meet for fifty minutes, four times a week in the mornings from 7.50am. The two courses ran over the spring and fall semesters of 2015 respectively. Class participants were 18-25 year old university students, studying their major at Konkuk University, with some working professionals who also enrolled in the classes. The classes are non-credit, meaning students attended for language development, not for credit towards any degree. The classes used the Oxford University Press published *QSkills Listening and Speaking 3* textbook as the basis for curriculum. I could supplement the classes to any degree with my own material, however, the textbook was decided by the institution. During the courses, students were expected to give some informal presentations, discuss textbook topics and topical news issues and are assessed with an exit oral interview. I am a regular teacher on this program and have conducted previous Master’s dissertation research in these classes. The benefit of these classes is the freedom and flexibility I am given with curriculum and the conversational/discussion based nature of the classes, which would be a suitable context to implement an intervention aimed at improving group talk. However, the non-compulsory nature of the courses meant issues arose with attendance. The classes began with eight or ten students enrolled, however, throughout the program, several students dropped out. During the data collection, although the predicted issues with attendance did occur, it was possible to carry out two iterations of the intervention and gather the necessary data from these courses. The context of data collection is further outlined in section 4.10 and learner needs are illustrated in chapter 5.
CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction: Talk in L1 classrooms

This chapter is broken into three sections. This first section, 3.1, explores attempts to improve group talk in the primary and secondary L1 classroom context, that may then be applied to the design of an intervention for improving adult L2 group talk. This is followed by section 3.2, which elaborates on the use of talk in L2 classrooms. Finally, section 3.3 details the theories for using talk in L2 classroom learning.

This section begins by outlining the concept of exploratory talk for learning (Barnes 1973). Then the key principles and findings of the Thinking Together project are outlined, and the methods the project used to maximize exploratory talk are introduced. The Thinking Together project is an intervention, originating in the U.K., that specifically aims at helping primary and secondary students improve the way they talk in a group. The reason for outlining the Thinking Together project here is that it acts as the starting point, and is a large influence on my own Talk Skills project.

3.1.1 Exploratory talk

The origins of exploratory talk can be traced back to Barnes (1973: 19), who explains the concept as follows:

“An intimate group allows us to be relatively inexplicit and incoherent, to change direction in the middle of a sentence, to be uncertain and self-contradictory. What we say may not amount to much, but our confidence in our friends allows us to take the first groping steps towards sorting out our thoughts and feelings by putting them into words. I shall call this sort of talk “exploratory.””
According to Barnes (2008), under constructivist theory, learning occurs as the learner constructs the world around them, and exploratory talk is a process for learners to work on understanding their own world. To this end, “exploratory talk is hesitant and incomplete because it enables the speaker to try out ideas, to hear how they sound, to see what others make of them, to arrange information and ideas into different patterns” (ibid: Loc 289). The following excerpt from Mercer and Howe (2012: 16) illustrates British Year 5 students in an L1 science class, who have taken the *Thinking Together* course and trained to use exploratory talk, as they discuss how many layers of tissue paper it would take to block a source of light:

**Excerpt 1**

Ross: OK. (reads) ‘Talk together about a plan to test all the different types of paper.’

Alana: Dijek, how much did you think it would be for tissue paper?

Dijek: At least ten because tissue paper is thin. Tissue paper can wear out and you can see through it... and light can shine through it.

Alana: OK. Thanks. (to Ross) Why do you think it?

Ross: Because I tested it before!

Alana: No, Ross, what did you think? How much did you think? Tissue paper. How much tissue paper did you think it would be to block out the light?

Ross: At first I thought it would be five, but second...

Alana: Why did you think that?

Ross: Because when it was in the overhead projector you could see a little bit of it, but not all of it, so I thought it would be like, five to block out the light.

Alana: That's a good reason. I thought, I thought it would be between five and seven because, I thought it would be between five and seven because normally when you're at home if you lay it on top, with one sheet you can see through but if you lay on about five or six pieces on top you can't see through.
Mercer and Howe note that this excerpt is representative of exploratory talk among learners as it includes its key features such as coordinated co-reasoning, knowledge sharing, the participants accept challenges, evaluate evidence equitably, and work together to reach decisions (2012). These characteristics of exploratory talk would also ideally be found in adult L2 group talk. Such exploratory talk is most likely to occur among learners when certain conditions are met, such as freedom from anxiety and derision from other members of the classroom. The concept of exploratory talk will help to define the ideal type of interaction that I hope my adult students are able to achieve and is further outlined by Mercer and Littleton (2007: 54), who state that by:

“incorporating both constructive conflict and the open sharing of ideas, exploratory talk constitutes the more visible pursuit of rational consensus through conversation. Exploratory talk foregrounds reasoning. Its ground rules require that the views of all participants are sought and considered, that proposals are explicitly stated and evaluated, and that explicit agreement precedes decisions and actions.”

The reaching of consensus and agreement through a process of free expression for all participants, followed by acceptance of the most equitable opinions is, therefore, also a feature aim of exploratory talk. Furthermore, Barnes (2008) draws the distinction between exploratory talk as defined above and presentational talk in which learners aim to use a more finished version of language. Other similar terms for exploratory talk have been devised through independent research in L1 classrooms, such as ‘collaborative reasoning’ (Anderson et al., 1998), or ‘accountable talk’ (Resnick, 1999). These terms give similar accounts for what is essentially “intellectually stimulating, collaborative and productive classroom talk” (Mercer & Littleton, 2007: 55).

Exploratory talk may be described as a ‘distinctive mode of social thinking’ that is a vital to classroom learning and is the kind of talk that is an essential part of much professional discourse in adult life (Mercer & Littleton, 2007). However, researchers such as Wells (1986) note that little exploratory talk is taking place in schools. Further, regarding primary classroom talk, Alexander (2004: 10) asserts that it may often be
described as “overwhelmingly monologic.” Both researchers underscore the need for more opportunities for exploratory talk to be included in L1 classroom discourse in order to prepare learners to communicate successfully outside of the classroom.

3.1.2 Maximizing exploratory talk in L1 primary and secondary classrooms

This section reports on the Thinking Together project, in which a team of collaborative researchers, comprised primarily of Lyn Dawes, Rupert Wegerif, Karen Littleton, and Neil Mercer, have created a method of developing L1 students’ language as a tool for thinking collectively (Mercer 2000), in other words, using exploratory talk in group discussion. This team have developed a series of ‘Talk Lessons’ for use in L1 primary and secondary classes, that are compatible with a range of curricular subjects, ranging from history, geography, to mathematics, among others. These lessons were designed to solve the problem that children worked “in groups but rarely as groups” (Mercer & Littleton 2007: 50). In other words, children interact together, but do not often think together and work as an optimum group of students should. Specific classroom group work problems identified by these researchers were a lack of orientation to the designated task and group dynamic issues, primarily that one student would dominate discussion, while others become subdued or participate only passively. Group talk was also often noted to contain “unproductive, often highly competitive, disagreements” (ibid: 51). Alternatively, when friends were working together, “discussions were uncritical, involving only superficial consideration and acceptance of each other’s ideas” (ibid: 51), therefore, the educational values of the talk were relatively ineffective.

In contrast to the problematic group issues and negative types of talk associated with them, the researchers noted that students would sometimes engage in an educationally productive type of talk, termed exploratory talk, defined as follows:

*Exploratory talk* occurs when partners engage critically but constructively with each other’s ideas [...] Statements and suggestions are offered for joint consideration. These may be challenged and counterchallenged, but challenges
are justified and alternative hypotheses are offered. Compared with the other two types, in exploratory talk knowledge is made more publicly accountable and reasoning is more visible in the talk. Progress then emerges from the eventual joint agreement reached. (Mercer 1996: 369).

Dawes asserts that while teachers, when made aware of exploratory talk, readily understand its value, “little exploratory talk may take place unless children know that this is an aim for their work together” (ibid: 107). In other words, it is essential that children are made aware of the importance of including exploratory talk in their broader repertoire of classroom talk. In section 3.2 the argument will be made that exploratory talk for language learning has educational value in L2 classrooms, and therefore, that the ideas and concepts of the Thinking Together project may be applicable in this context. Prior to this discussion, the following sections offer a summary of the literature on the relationship between the Thinking Together project and exploratory talk in the L1 context.

3.1.3 Ground rules

Researchers in the Thinking Together project note that learners are rarely explicitly taught how to think and reason together, therefore, when students are invited to discuss issues together, firstly, they are unaware of the educational value of the talk itself, and secondly are often left to assume that the aim of a discussion exercise is to look only for right answers that please the teacher. To counter this problem, a central tenet of the Thinking Together project is the joint creation of a set of explicit class ground rules for talk. These ground rules are a “shared reflection” (Mercer & Littleton 2007: 62) of both the learners’ ideas of what constitutes educationally effective talk and the way in which the teacher wants learners to work together. The following are suggested ground rules from the Thinking Together project:

- Everyone in the group is encouraged to contribute
- Contributions are treated with respect
Reasons are asked for
Everyone is prepared to accept challenges
Alternatives are discussed before a decision is taken
All relevant information is shared
The group seeks to reach agreement (Dawes 2005: 111)

The establishment of ground rules means the teacher can invoke a template for learners to aim for in discussion and learners have a frame of reference to apply to their talk. The process of creating ground rules “provides a distinctive way of ‘talking about talk’, which helps learners reflect on what makes educational dialogues effective and how best to learn through joint activity” (Mercer & Littleton, 2007: 62).

3.1.4 Findings of the Thinking Together project

Research within the Thinking Together project has been conducted principally in the L1 primary and secondary classroom context to investigate “the impact of the direct teaching of spoken language skills” (Dawes 2008). One example of research conducted within the Thinking Together project is the Wegerif et al. (1999: 493) study in which children were taught the use of ‘exploratory talk’, and asked to solve Raven’s test problems. Discourse analysis of the children solving these problems supported four assertions:

“that the use of exploratory talk can improve group reasoning, that exploratory talk can be taught, that the teaching of exploratory talk can successfully transfer between educational contexts and that individual results on a standard non-verbal reasoning test significantly improved as a result of the intervention teaching exploratory talk.”

In this study, these outcomes were true of primary level L1 students. Dawes (2008) discusses the indications of this and other research conducted within the Thinking Together project, summarized as follows:

1. Children are often unaware of the role of talk for thinking and learning.
2. Teachers can facilitate children’s awareness of talk for learning.
3. Children can learn talk skills and use them to improve the educational quality of classroom experiences.
4. When children are taught talk skills,
   • they benefit socially, from an improved collaborative ability;
   • individually, because learning to think aloud with their classmates’ means that children become better at thinking alone, through the acquisition of a model of higher order thinking.
   • They also benefit from the improved learning opportunities that arise from whole-class talk, group and pair work, active learning and collaboration with children from other classes.
5. Members of a class who agree on a “set of ground rules for exploratory talk” (ibid: 8) benefit from higher quality group work.
6. Learners also benefit from improved educational relationships with teachers.

Mercer (2000: 151) adds to the indications of the Thinking Together project by noting: “children who have done the program discuss issues in more depth and for longer, participate more equally and fully, and provide more reasons to support their views.” Mercer further states that these children “offer opinions and give reasons to support them, they ask for each other’s views and check agreement. They make relevant information explicit. They build common knowledge effectively, and their reasoning is visible – to us as well as to members of the group – in their talk” (ibid: 152-3).

Several publications have emerged from the Thinking Together project (Dawes & Littleton 2007; Dawes 2008; Dawes & Sams 2004; Dawes et al. 2003; Dawes 2012). They include various complete programs which are designed for learners at various stages of L1 primary and secondary education. However, all programs share an initial set of 5-6 lessons designed to achieve three aims. These are to:

1. Raise children’s awareness and understanding of their use of spoken language
2. Help them communicate and work together more effectively in groups
3. Improve their critical thinking skills (Dawes et al., 2004: 2)

Mercer (2000: 154), also notes that while the *Thinking Together* project is aimed at primary and secondary level group discussion, asking students to discuss a topic is common practice in all levels of education. However, teachers very often simply expect the characteristics of exploratory talk to transpire without raising awareness of the type of talk that is expected and how it might be achieved. The type of talk that is expected of the students is not defined and “the ground rules which are used for generating particular functional ways of using language – spoken or written – are rarely taught.” Mercer suggests that the problems which the *Thinking Together* project wish to address may also be prevalent in adult classrooms. This point is reiterated by Dawes (2005), who notes that adults find exploratory talk difficult to achieve. It is the aim of this research to address this perceived problem, to maximise the opportunity for exploratory talk for language learning to emerge when students are working in groups.

3.1.5 Using knowledge from the *Thinking Together* project for effective group discussion among children in L1 classrooms

Dawes (2012: loc 281-322) foregrounds six essential lessons in the Thinking Together project that aid effective group discussion among children in L1 classrooms. The following lists the lessons as suggested by Dawes with a brief summary of their intentions:

1. “Raising awareness of talk for learning and the value of the ideas of others.” The objective of the lesson is to show learners that talking together well is important and will aid their learning.
2. “Teaching children key words ‘exploratory talk’ and ‘interthinking’.” In this lesson, learners are taught about a) exploratory talk, in other words, “how to ask others to say what they think, to listen, to ask and give reasons, and to challenge with respect,” and b) interthinking, in other words that groups thinking and talking together about a subject can achieve more than is possible for one student alone.
3. “Using key phrases to generate exploratory talk.” This entails the practice of key phrases that are part of exploratory talk, such as:

“What do you think?”

“Why do you think that?”

“I agree because…”

“I disagree because…”

“… could you say more about …”

“… in summary, we could say …”

The teacher’s role is to encourage use of such phrases and generate metacognitive discussion of the benefits of using this kind of talk.

4. “Checking for listening, reflection, and flexible thinking.” The fourth lesson establishes the importance of active listening. Learners should identify the characteristics of effective listening and be aware of their own listening strategies.

5. “Exchanging and evaluating reasons.” The outcome of this lesson is for learners to critically reflect on what is being said in their discussion, and make decisions based on what is “factually accurate, well-argued or inspirational.”

6. “Shared ground rules for exploratory talk.” In this lesson ground rules are generated by the learners themselves, are designed to foreground exploratory talk. Dawes advises that the ground rules are to be promoted by the teacher in future classroom discussions.

Once learners understand the concept of exploratory talk and the ground rules have been established, later lessons “encourage critical argument for and against different cases” (Wegerif et al. 2004: 145). In other words, students are encouraged to develop their exploratory talk skills through practice.

This thesis explores the extent to which this approach is compatible with my own Korean adult L2 learning context, as well as drawing on other examples (e.g. Halbach 2015) in which the concept of exploratory talk has influenced L2 classroom research. The following sections will first outline the characteristics of effective L2 talk.
and its place in L2 classrooms, then show that in order to adapt and make the Thinking Together project compatible, a much greater emphasis will need to be placed on student learning of specific oral interaction strategies that are conducive to L2 learning, in order to fit into the adult L2 context.

3.2 Introduction: Talk in L2 classrooms

Group discussion is an important part of modern communicative language teaching methodologies and an integral part of my own adult language classes in Korea. As such, the primary aim of this thesis is to explore the extent to which metacognitive awareness raising of effective talk and oral communicative strategy training can be combined into one pedagogic intervention and applied to improve L2 discussion (see chapter 5 for methodology). To achieve this aim, it is important first to explore the nature of talk in L2 classrooms, so that it may be possible to discern when students are talking in an effective way. First, the role of natural conversation in the L2 classroom context will be explored. Next, concepts of educationally effective talk in foreign language classroom will be investigated. The use of exploratory talk in L2 learning will then be foregrounded and a parallel drawn between exploratory talk in L1 classrooms, inquiry dialogue in L2 classrooms and the use of exploratory talk in the content and language integrated learning (CLIL) context. Finally, an argument will be made for using group work and discussion to teach language.

3.2.1 Natural conversation and L2 classroom talk

Recent approaches to language teaching have emphasized the importance of conversation in classroom language learning. However, if conversation is put at the forefront of language learning, it is important to clearly define this term (Chappell 2014). Indeed, whether conversation, in the natural sense, can even be part of a foreign language lesson is a debated topic. Seedhouse (2004) argues that it cannot, stating that the kind of talk that occurs in a language classroom does not conform to Warren’s (1993)
definition of conversation, and that the very act of the teacher asking students to have a conversation, invokes an instructional purpose to the talk that naturalistic conversation does not possess. On the other hand, K. Richards (2006) counters these arguments, questioning Warren’s overly restrictive definition of conversation, and points out that conversation simply does take place in the language classroom. To validate this claim, Richards points to Zimmerman’s (1998) three aspects of identity proposal, comprising of discourse identity, e.g. as speaker, listener, questioner etc.; situated identity, namely teacher and learner in the classroom context, and transportable identity, or “identities that are usually visible, that is, assignable or claimable on the basis of physical or culturally based insignia which furnish the intersubjective basis for categorization” (Zimmerman 1998: 91), that is to say your identity, perhaps, as animal lover or football player. Richards (2006: 69) notes that conversation, “with its equal participation rights and openness of topic” is possible in the language classroom when transportable identities are engaged by participants in that context, and that interaction of this kind may offer a useful antidote for lock-step I-R-F sequences.

Bearing in mind that this type of talk is not a common part of typical language lessons, when conversation is foregrounded as a driving force of modern language teaching methodologies, it is important to explore further and more clearly define the term. In doing so, it is important to first distinguish L2 classroom talk from natural conversation. Wilson’s (1989) definition of natural conversation will be used for this purpose.

Wilson (1989: 25) first asserts that natural conversation can be distinguished from classroom talk because the latter may include an asymmetrical power relationship and the explicit stating of a topic, for example:

**Excerpt 2**

T: O.K. now we are going to talk about the mass media. Thomas, what do you understand by the term mass media?
Here the teacher holds the power in an asymmetrical relationship with the student, Thomas, and explicitly states what the topic of talk will be. In contrast, Wilson offers a two-part definition of natural conversation, primarily emphasizing that participants in natural conversation have equal speaker rights:

“In defining conversation as a specific speech event, we begin by arguing that *conversations* may be distinguished by an equal distribution of speaker rights. This does not mean that speakers have an equal number of speaking turns, but rather that any individual has an equal right (within conversation) to initiate talk, to interrupt, respond, or refuse to do any of these. In other speech events, speaker rights are observed to be controlled more closely.” (1989: 20)

In other words, it is the equal distribution of speaker rights of conversation that contrast with the asymmetrical nature of classroom talk. Wilson’s secondary point is that equal rights to speak are generated when topic is not directly initiated, as in the following example:

*Excerpt 3 (ibid: 26)*

A: You know, I was just thinking, if we go to Antrim on Thursday we’ll miss the volleyball.

J: Yeah, I love the volleyball too

L: I know you remember last week the game we had it was a laugh…

Here, speaker A offers to initiate a topic by using a statement that is not related to any talk that has occurred previously. However, there is no requirement for either J or L to discuss volleyball because there is no explicit stating of what the topic will be. As noted, occasions when a topic is overtly and directly initiated are synonymous with asymmetrical distribution of speaker rights. However, “covert and indirect methods of topic initiation, which do not explicitly constrain what the topic of talk is to be, will be… in situations where speaker rights are symmetrically distributed; i.e. conversational contexts.” (ibid: 24). Wilson argues that when speakers employ any of various methods
to indirectly initiate a topic, and distribution of such strategies among participants is to be found, such talk may be defined as conversation.

Wilson notes that a small amount of classroom talk may be defined in this way. Moreover, in L2 classrooms, when learners use their L2 for such talk, it should not be dismissed as Dawes (2005) suggests cumulative talk be dismissed in L1 classrooms. K. Richards (2006: 72), for example, notes that incorporating conversational talk into L2 classrooms “adds an important interactional dimension to that setting.” Furthermore, L2 use is inextricably linked with language learning (Markee, 2000). Therefore, while natural conversation may be achievable in the L2 classroom and may be beneficial to learners, it represents a relatively minor proportion of overall classroom talk. The following section investigates how to characterize, in pedagogic terms, the type of L2 talk that may be considered as the most educationally effective during L2 classroom discussions.

3.2.2 ‘Conversation’, exploratory talk, and inquiry dialogue in L2 classrooms

Considering what is known about natural conversation in the language classroom, it is important, then, to distinguish this form of talk from other, more educational types of classroom talk. Within the communicative language teaching literature, terms such as communication, interaction and dialogue are used to describe the educational type of classroom talk separate from natural conversation (Hall, 2000; Huth 2011; J. Richards 2006). Still, a uniform term to describe the type of talk that is most educationally effective is not widely used. J. Richards (2006) offers general principles for CLT which take account of its stance on the use of communication in language teaching. From these principles, it is possible to grasp the kind of talk that, within the broad CLT framework, is most conducive to language learning. In a communicative classroom, such talk should:

- Be engaging interactive and meaningful
- Include opportunity for learners to negotiate for meaning, notice how language is used, notice gaps in their own language skills and resources and expand on such skills and resources
- Revolve around content and topics that are relevant to the learners’ own lives
- Be a holistic process that allows learners to build communication strategies and develop personal routes to learning
- Involve language analysis and reflection
- Be collaborative

According to the CLT approach, when these criteria for talk are met a language learner’s communicative competence will be developed “through linking grammatical development to the ability to communicate” (J. Richards 2006: 23). This is achieved through a shift in focus from the teacher towards the learner, and a shift in focus from the product of learning towards the process of learning (Jacobs & Farrell 2003). It is argued here that the research on exploratory talk may help to further define this kind of communication and will be explored in the later sections of this chapter.

Another movement within the field of TESOL, the Dogme approach to classroom language learning (Thornbury & Meddings 2008), attempts to define effective L2 classroom talk. Literature on the Dogme approach uses the term ‘conversation’ to describe talk that is used to achieve successful language learning. However, by using the term ‘conversation’ this approach does not distinguish between natural conversation and other types of educationally effective classroom talk. Nevertheless, in the Dogme approach, five reasons are offered as to why conversation is conducive to language learning. These reasons are pertinent to this study and will be clarified as follows.

The first reason is that “conversation is language at work” (Thornbury & Meddings 2008: Loc 230), a notion also foregrounded by task-based and communicative language learning methodologies. Research shows that language learning in which fluency through conversation is prioritized over a focus on accuracy and form reflects in positive improvement to the learner’s communicative competence (e.g. Willis 1990).
This view is supported by the way first languages are learned, as infants first learn communicative skills before the development of grammar (Lightbown & Spada 2006). Research into the discourse hypothesis (Hatch 1978: 404) further supports this claim, which states that “language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations.”

The second reason to make conversation an important part of language classes is that “conversation is discourse” (Thornbury & Meddings 2008: Loc 254). If the goal of language learning is to prepare learners to use the L2 in their real-life worlds, learners will need more than the ability to construct language at the sentence level. That in their real lives students need to use language to communicate with each other, in other words partake in the back and forth of discourse, underpins both the Dogme and communicative language teaching approaches, which go beyond sentence construction to focus on communicative language practice in language lessons.

The third argument states “conversation is interactive, dialogic and communicative” (Thornbury & Meddings 2008: Loc 276). The role of interaction has been considered important in language learning. This proposition has most convincingly been forwarded in Long’s (1996: 414) interaction hypothesis, which states that “environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner’s developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, through negotiation for meaning.” In other words, social interaction and negotiation for meaning allow language to be produced as modified input, and this mechanism allows learners to develop their communicative competence.

Next, Thornbury and Meddings (2008: Loc 276) posit that “conversation scaffolds learning.” Scaffolding is a term that has evolved out of Vygotskian concepts of learning to describe the support given through language to the learner, in order to internalize the object of learning. Six functions of scaffolding that enable learning have been identified as “recruiting the learner's interest, simplifying the task, highlighting its relevant features, maintaining motivation, controlling the learner's frustration, and
modeling” (J. Ko et al 2003: 304). Studies into L2 learning have focused not only on teacher scaffolding, but also on how peers scaffold each other’s language to promote learning, termed contingent scaffolding (Lantolf 2000).

The final reason for using conversation in the language classroom is that it promotes socialization. Thornbury and Meddings (2008) note that while typical language lessons contain some talk that could be described as essentially social, this type of talk normally occurs only at the beginning of class and is usually distinguished from the actual lesson. Social conversational talk serves as an opportunity for speaking practice, for the co-construction of knowledge, and for participants to reinforce their membership of the classroom discourse community. Thornbury and Meddings argue that if learners are to be able to use language outside of the classroom, they must first be able to practice doing so inside the classroom, and “an effective way of doing this is simply to make the classroom a discourse community in its own right, where each individual’s identity is validated, and where learners can easily claim the right to speak” (2008: 338). Conversational talk is a means to effectively achieve this aim.

The reasons given in the Dogme approach for using ‘conversation’ as a central tenet to language teaching are convincing. However, for the purposes of this study, there are two reasons why the term conversation needs further clarification. Firstly, as noted above, language lessons often contain little or no conversation in the natural sense. It is unlikely, for example, that the classroom talk described by Thornbury and Meddings often offers learners equal speaker rights and rights for topic initiation. Secondly, the argument has been made that some forms of classroom talk are more educationally effective than others and the catch all term ‘conversation’ used above, may be too broad. We are then left with the problem (Chappell 2014) of how to define the kind of talk that best serves the purpose of language learning during class discussions, the kind of language that includes high levels of scaffolding, and in which members of the language classroom are able to effectively make use of emergent language for learning purposes.

One of the claims of this thesis is that the educationally effective talk, as described in modern language teaching methodologies, may be defined as a type of
‘exploratory talk for language learning’. A similar argument has been forwarded by Chappell (2014: 3), who asserts that L2 classroom talk should include “more exploratory, information seeking, and inquiry-based discourse, […] which] is being termed here ‘discussion’ and ‘inquiry dialogue.’” Discussion and inquiry dialogue are distinguished from other types of classroom talk, namely rote; recitation and elicitation, and instruction/exposition in the following table:
**Table 1 Kinds of institutional classroom talk (Chappell 2014: 4)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of talk</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rote</td>
<td>The drilling of language items through sustained repetition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recitation and elicitation</td>
<td>The accumulation of knowledge and understanding through questions designed to test or stimulate recall of what has been previously encountered, or to cue students to work out the answer from clues in the question.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction/exposition</td>
<td>Telling the students what to do, and/ or imparting information, often about target language items, and/ or explaining facts or principles about language, and/or explaining the procedure of an activity, and/or modelling the talk and behaviors of an activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>The exchange of ideas with a view to sharing information and solving problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inquiry dialogue</td>
<td>Achieving common understanding through structured inquiry, wondering (playing with possibilities, reflecting, considering, exploring) and discussion that guides and prompts; build on each other’s contributions (cumulative talk), reduce choices, and expedite the ‘handover’ of concepts and principles.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of these types of talk have their place in the discourse of a language lesson, however, the purpose here is to focus on discussion, and inquiry dialogue. Discussion activities are a major part of communicative language teaching based lessons, however, the product of group discussion is often talk that lacks critical reflection or much consideration:

“typical turns at talk involve stating facts or opinions, explaining or justifying an opinion, and clarifying a statement. These turns have quite a lot in common with the student responses to teacher’s initiations in recitation and elicitation. They are presentational in nature.” (Chappell 2014: 5)
In other words, discussion in group work activities tends to be preparation for learners to enter into recitation sequences with the teacher in order to present the findings of their discussion, rather than entering into a process of genuine inquiry and exploration.

Inquiry dialogue on the other hand, strongly echoes exploratory talk as defined by Barnes (1973; 2008), Mercer (1996; 2000), and Mercer & Littleton (2007) with regard to L1 classroom interaction in schools. The following excerpt from Chappell (2014: 9-10) is an example of inquiry dialogue between teacher and four students:

Excerpt 4 Inventions

1. **T:** OK then. Let’s think about important inventions that might happen.
2. **J:** We will find new kind of energy. (Looking at teacher)
   Energy. Like petrol and ... oil.
3. **O:** In the last few years uh maybe a new kind of sun sunlight energy or ... nuclear nuclear nuclear energy that can be used instead of oil energy.
4. **T:** OK. There are two things you said there (goes to whiteboard and writes bullet point ‘nuclear energy’). Everybody. oat was talking about energy from the sun. What do we call that?
5. **B:** Solar cell.
6. **T:** Solar. Solar energy, yep. Do you think that’s really important for the future?
7. **A:** Very important.
8. **O** and **B:** (Nodding heads) Yes.
9. **T:** Yes? I wonder why solar energy is so important.
10. **B:** Because oil is very expensive?
11. **A:** That’s true. That’s true.
12. **B:** Maybe because the [inaudible] is very expensive and the government will promote people to use solar energy.
13. **J:** But isn’t solar energy is high investment?
14. **T:** Yeah. Really, any kind of energy is going to be high investment first of all.
15. A: But actually people invent solar energy they know about solar energy for a long long time but still not popular ... why?

16. O: The energy from the solar is not strong enough to provide ...

17. J: No power. Like ... not enough power.

18. A: Hm. OK.

19. J: You see a solar car go slow (gesturing) like this.

20. T: Yeah. But maybe when the price of oil keeps going up more people will want to invest money to develop solar energy.

21. A: And stop more pollution.

22. J, O, and B: (Nodding) Yes (in chorus).

Chappell suggests that this excerpt of inquiry dialogue is superior to discussion, firstly because of the function of the exchanges within it. A language classroom discussion is typically characterized by interrogative turns that function to request information, which may then be given (2014). It is a process of trading information through requesting and providing it. This, though, contrasts with the function of dialogic inquiry, which is characterized by “those language acts whose purpose is to engage another in one’s attempt to understand” (Lindfors 1999: 31). In other words, the participants do not simply request and provide information, they enter into a process of reflecting and wondering, characterized, for example by teacher’s turn: ‘Yes? I wonder why solar energy is so important’, which “functions to keep the topic open and ponder possibilities of why solar energy is important” (Chappell 2014: 9). This is born out in several more turns among the participants as they extend and build upon the topic of inquiry. Chappell also points out that genre analysis (Swales 1990) of the entire excerpt is also able to point out its purpose, which in this case is “to engage others in exploring and considering possibilities” (Chappell 2014: 10).

The advantage of inquiry dialogue over types of controlled and brief transactional language is that learners are able to create many and various meanings, and
develop their communicative competence, as well as strategies for learning through their own communication. Chappell (2014) describes several characteristics of effective inquiry dialogue, summarized as follows. In such talk:

- cumulative knowledge is built as participants work together to understand ideas
- participants raise awareness of emergent language and use it for the purpose of language learning
- participants use scaffolding language (J. Ko et al. 2003) to advance understanding
- mutual respect is shared among all members of the discussion
- participants move beyond requesting information to “request the service of others to consider, reflect upon, and indeed play with possibilities” (Chappell 2014: 9), and likewise do so themselves.

In essence, the term inquiry dialogue is invoking a type of ‘exploratory talk for language learning’ to describe the type of talk that teachers should aim to foster in a learner’s oral interaction in order to promote language learning. Furthermore, because inquiry dialogue so strongly echoes exploratory talk, it is reasoned here that a) the principles and the approach of metacognitive awareness raising to improve group work that make up the Thinking Together project may be modified and applied, to an extent, to improve L2 classroom small group oral interaction (recently also adapted by Halbach (2015) in the L2 context) and b) that students may benefit from training in oral communication strategies aimed at enhancing specific elements of such talk. This would aim to foster in L2 learners a type of talk that is generated over an extended period, that is engaging, interactive, collaborative and meaningful; in which students are encouraged to give opinions, offer reasons, share information and respectfully challenge each other in a process of cumulative knowledge building and understanding; in which students attempt reach agreement; that gives learners opportunity to negotiate meaning, notice and build upon gaps in their language and, therefore, that promotes language learning through scaffolding and emergent language. These are the characteristics of a kind of educationally effective classroom talk, termed in this research as exploratory talk for language learning (ETLL). The aim of the thesis, therefore, is to promote student use of
ETLL in the classroom by raising metacognitive awareness and understanding of ETLL through the adaptation of the concepts outlined within the *Thinking Together* project and other metacognitive awareness raising studies (e.g. Halbach 2015) and offering oral communicative strategy training (OCST) sessions to promote learners’ use of strategies reflective of the characteristics of ETLL. OCST will be further discussed in section 3.2.5.

The teacher must also play an important role in helping students to achieve this type of educationally effective talk. Boyd (2012) foregrounds three strategies that teachers can use to aid the facilitation of exploratory talk: contingent questioning, positioning students to have interpretive authority, and consistent use of reasoning words. Boyd (ibid: 10-11) offers the following teacher-whole class sequence to highlight he teacher’s role in L2 classroom exploratory talk.

**Excerpt 5**

1. **Jordon:** Uh, over by Alaska, well, I hear on the news, Mr. Sims told us in social studies, there were seven whales that were ming to the Pacific Ocean.
2. **Zach:** Oh yeah, they got trapped by ice
3. **Jordon:** And they got trapped by ice over there, by Alaska
4. **Zach:** [Inaudible] This story
5. **Ms Charlotte:** Aha
6. **Jordon:** They got trapped where seven whales
7. **Zach:** Man they got to use seven thousand dollars
8. **Ms Charlotte:** And, so what did they have to do?
9. **Jordon:** They were trapped, they were trapped there
10. **Zach:** They use seven thousand dollars to get those whales
11. **Ms Charlotte:** Why do you think they got trapped?
12. **Jordon:** Because there was too many ice
13. **Zach:** No, no, they didn’t go out when the right time should be out
14. **Ms Charlotte:** Oh, so they didn’t go out?
15. **Zach:** They they stay alone like a few more minutes and eh hour
Ms Charlotte: Then when it was time for them to leave and then

Jordan: And eh said there were like right up

Zach: Huge

Jordan: Too much ice,

Ms Charlotte: Ok

Jordan: And they

Ms Charlotte: Why do you think there might be too much ice?

Ms Charlotte: What about, does that remind you about anything that happened in Orca Song? Did anything happen there that would sound like

Lucy: Temperature

PD: Is very high

Jordan: It’s been cold over there

Zach: It’s cold from near pole-North pole

Ms Charlotte: Right

Lucy: I read in a book and they said em whales em they get stuck in the ice, they like to sit in the water...

Ms Charlotte: What about, does that remind you of anything that happened in Orca Song? Did anything happen there that would sound like

Rosey: Yeah, they got trapped

Jordan: Yea, what d’ya call it?

Rosy: The baby whale

Jordan: The whale got trapped in the netting

Ms Charlotte: The baby got trapped and then what happened, what was the other time? Did he get trapped in any other time?

Several students: No

Rosey: Yeah the, the beach

Ms Charlotte: The beach what happened there?

Boyd (2012: 9) points out that within this exchange “without prompting, students enter and add to the unfolding conversation. Turn taking norms are informal and at times there is overlapping talk as students bid for the floor”. The teacher, Ms Charlotte, serves
as a guide to the other students in this whole class discussion and only ever leads indirectly. Her turns mostly consist of contingent questions with the function of pushing her students to produce reasoned output, or to clarify their points. The function of the teacher’s other turns is place holding” (ibid: 11), i.e. turn 28 “Right”, which serve to show that she is listening in the here and now. In sum, according to Boyd, the teacher’s contribution to exploratory L2 classroom talk, at least in this sequence is to a) listen and be interested in the students talk, thereby giving authenticity to the discussion, b) ask for more information or clarification, or to help link one student contribution to another, and c) position students as “primary knowers with interpretive authority to surmise and answer” (ibid).

The notion of exploratory talk for language learning is also directly forwarded by Moate (2010) regarding content and language integrated learning (CLIL). CLIL offers learners target L2 use, while making subject matter the main focus of learning. Because in CLIL, learners focus on and explore actual content matter primarily and L2 secondarily, Moate suggests that this learning context is compatible with the use of exploratory talk (ET):

“In ET both language and content learning goals come together as learners draw on growing awareness and ability. As subject-related questions are formed, students draw on new terminology; to form understanding learners are required to engage with appropriate discourse. In ET novices learn the feel of new sounds and concepts whilst expertise in both language and subject knowledge grows. The dialogic nature of talk supports the coconstruction of knowledge or interthinking on the social plane, before understanding is appropriated on the individual psychological plane.” (2010: 42)

In other words, targeting exploratory talk and creating a context in which it may be fostered in the CLIL context, supports both the learner’s understanding of the need for talk as well as supporting the need to integrate the learner into the expert world of the content matter. Furthermore, to establish ET in the CLIL context, Moate promotes the establishment of a culture of talk and a space in which learners can collaborate together.
Although CLIL is not within the specific purview of this research, such space, outlined by Moate, may be beneficial within conversation class tasks and discussions, i.e. the context of this research. It may also be compatible with more traditional view of language learning through negotiation for meaning and reformulation of the target language (Walsh 2006), and bears resemblance both to the goals of the Thinking Together project, which aims to create a culture in which ET generates learning and other L2 strategy training programs that aim at helping learners speak in a way that is educationally effective (e.g. Naughton 2006; Lam 2006), discussed further in section 3.2.5.

3.2.3 Group work in foreign language classrooms

The primary concern of this research is the enhancement of small group oral interaction in L2 classrooms. For more than three decades, group work has been advanced as an important element of English as a foreign language (henceforth EFL) learning in the classroom. J. Richards (2006), in a revised account of communicative language teaching maintains the need for emphasis on small group oral communication. Long and Porter (1985) outline five arguments for using group work in foreign/second language classrooms. The following builds on the arguments of Long and Porter in favor of the inclusion of group work in L2 classrooms.

The first argument states “group work increases language practice opportunities” (ibid: 208). Logically, lockstep classroom practices in which the teacher dominates much of the speaking time and students take turns to individually speak while other students listen, would produce far less opportunity for language practice than if students are placed in groups and given activities in which they are encouraged to talk to each other.

The second argument is that “group work improves the quality of student talk” (ibid: 208). Teacher fronted classroom talk, most often incorporates the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), also called initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) (Mehan, 1979). The constraints of repeated lockstep teacher
fronted sequences include a limited variety of talk in the classroom, a lack of motivation from students because of the small amount of thought and language that goes into responding in these sequences, and an absence of a model of ‘real’ conversation style communicative interaction. Group work offers opportunity for peer to peer communication and is a “natural setting for conversation” (Long & Porter 1985: 209). Working in a group, students can develop various elements of their communicative competence (Celce-Murcia 2007), such as discourse competence and interactional competence, which would not be fully developed within teacher fronted IRF sequences.

The third argument states that “group work helps individualize instruction” (Long and Porter 1985: 210). Whole class, teacher led instruction does not take into account the differences among the students within the class. Classes are often grouped in terms of age or level test scores, which do not sufficiently consider the variation in students’ linguistic skills, such as their language production, comprehension or fluency. Further, variation in social, affective, personality, cognitive, or biological factors that may affect SLA (Schuman 1986) can all be given greater consideration by members of a small group and the teacher when addressing the group.

Another benefit of group work is that it “promotes a positive affective climate” for language learning (Long and Porter, 1985: 211). Anxiety can be a major debilitating factor in language learning (Scovel 1978), which may be considerably alleviated when students are asked to talk in groups instead of in front of the class as part of lockstep teacher fronted discourse. When working in groups, students are free from the ‘performance’ element of speaking in front of the class, in which accuracy is valued, and are enabled to take more risks and make more mistakes when using language (Barnes, 1973).

Finally, Long and Porter state that “group work motivates learners” (1985: 212). Motivating factors of group interaction include a lowering of inhibition and freedom to make mistakes that students are less likely to possess when talking in front of a class.

In addition to the arguments advanced by Long and Porter, support for using group work in foreign language classrooms has been given by Dörnyei and Malderez
(1997: 67), who list several reasons in favor of this practice. Such reasons include the ability for a group to pool and exploit the resources of its members so that the resources are greater than a single learner can hope to possess; attitudes of learners can be reformed through group participation; students are more motivated because of the “support and maintenance” of a group’s co-members and the enhanced stamina that comes with working in a group. Finally, the direct facilitation of SLA is enhanced through group interaction for reasons such as the quantity of talk among members relative to non-group interaction, enhanced peer and teacher relationships, and higher confidence.

More recently, theoretical underpinnings for the justification of group work have come from two research areas. Utilizing group talk is supported by findings in traditional input, output and interaction research into second language acquisition (SLA), as well as Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and Bakhtin’s complimentary theory of dialogized heteroglossia. A summary of research on the relationship between SLA and input, output and interaction, and research on sociocultural theory, dialogized heteroglossia and language learning will be discussed respectively in section 3.3.

3.2.4 Why use discussion to teach language in Korean classes?

The principle aim of this thesis is to improve the way Korean adult learners use exploratory talk for language learning in classroom discussions through metacognitive awareness raising and oral communicative strategy training. Green et al. (2002) point out that the potential genres of spoken interaction in the classroom are small talk, discussion and narratives, with discussion being the most likely area in which exploratory talk may be brought into being. However, these authors point out that discussion is an important, but often neglected element of adult L2 classes. Indeed, few, if any attempts have been made to define what discussion is and why it should be valued in L2 classes. It is important, therefore, to address why discussion is used as a component of Korean adult ESL classes.
Outside of formal research, in a book of practical ESL activities, Lindstromberg (2004) suggests reasons why discussion may be a useful element of language classes. One reason is that discussion simulates how adults talk and relate to each other among their peers in the real world. Discussion also offers an opportunity to talk about issues that are of interest to the learners. Specifically, for Korean university learners, discussion offers an opportunity to express themselves and articulate their thoughts on a range of issues, a skill that is rarely, if ever fostered in the Korean school system (Finch 2013).

English is also increasingly used in the Korean workplace to conduct international business. Korean university students need to be prepared to articulate themselves in English during job interviews in a broad range of careers. While discussion does not offer the specific genre of job interview language, it does offer a forum in which students can practice constructing and deconstructing arguments, following discussion rules and sticking to a topic, which are useful communicative skills (Lindstromberg 2004).

More broadly, discussion also has the potential to foster several positive characteristics in learners, which Lindstromberg summarizes as a) social integration by being respectful of other students and practicing self-control in order not to dominate the talk, b) intellectual development by sharing in the construction and articulation of arguments, wondering about a topic and using knowledge of facts to support their arguments (Chappell 2014), c) improved language learning skills and improved self-expression via the negotiation of meaning, clarifying, checking for comprehension, elaborating and summarizing, when encountering high level language that they may not be familiar with. These characteristics are offered here as intuitive suggestions, rather than a detailed mapping of discussion. Nevertheless, this would suggest that discussion has the potential to be a useful component of language classrooms, and may provide a more formal context than, for example, small talk at the beginning of a lesson, in which exploratory talk for language learning may be fostered.
Furthermore, and somewhat pessimistically, Song (2011: 36) asserts that English in Korean society is characterized as a ““mechanism of elimination” designed, under cover of meritocracy, to conserve the established social order in South Korea”. In other words, English is used as a mechanism by the elite to preserve the traditional class system. Those with English skills, that may be fostered through discussion, tend to prosper, while those without English language skills will find it difficult to get ahead.

Teachers, though, when attempting to bring discussion into the language class, must be wary of simply giving students a topic and expecting rich language to arise, and a balance must be struck between overly structured discussion activities and simply giving learners a topic and expecting discussion to arise (Green et al. 2002). The various attempts to address this issue and improve group discussion will be addressed in the following section.

3.2.5 Improving group discussion in language classrooms

This thesis is certainly not the first attempt to improve small group discussion in the language classroom. Previous attempts have tended to focus on training students to use oral communication strategies. This section reports on various L2 language classroom oral communication strategy training (OCST) programs that have attempted to achieve small group oral interaction or oral interaction in general. Lam (2006: 142) defines L2 oral communication strategies as “tactics taken by L2 learners to solve oral communication problems”. Attempts to train learners to use effective strategies have had mixed results. Equally, beliefs about OCST are divided between those who believe strategies can be taught, that those that believe otherwise. Those that believe communication strategies can be taught, foreground the need for learners to acquire effective expressions that facilitate talk (e.g. Dörnyei 1995; Gallagher Brett 2001; Konishi & Tarone 2004; Lam 2005). Furthermore, research into metacognitive strategy training (Cohen, 1998; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden, 1991) has shown that language learning may further be enhanced by “raising the learner’s awareness of the learning process” (Nakatani 2005: 76). However, to my knowledge, only one study
Halbach (2013) has successfully attempted to develop L2 learner awareness of exploratory talk for language learning, as is also the case in this thesis. On the other hand, it has been debated whether space should even be allocated for strategies to even be taught at all. Some researchers consider that the cognitive processes responsible for selecting a strategy for facilitating communication is not affected by any form of overt training (Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991; Poulisse, 1993).

Both Lam (2006) and Nakatani (2005) note that relatively few studies have investigated the effects of interventionist OCST, although Lam points to a small number of studies that have made such attempts. These include a) Dörnyei (1995), who found tentative evidence in favor of OCST after six weeks of training; b) Salamone and Marsal (1997), who showed no difference in improvement between test and experiment classes in strategy training in French L2 undergraduate classes; c) Scullen and Jourdain (2000) who conducted a study of strategy training to French L2 undergraduate classes in the US and also showed no difference in improvement between control and experiment classes, albeit with a relatively small amount of training (three sessions); d) Rossiter (2003) who administered 12 hours of OCST, but concluded little impact on overall strategy use. As a result, Rossiter foregrounded the need to foster group unity and a positive environment for learning, but did not recommend allocating hours of class time to strategy training.

The following strategy training studies were found to be particularly helpful to the Talk Skills project and details are offered here of the studies along with their strategy models. The Nakatani (2005) study is particularly relevant to this research because it focused on both metacognitive awareness training and OCST to improve speaking proficiency. Within the study, Nakatani offers the following model of oral communicative strategies, distinguishing between achievement strategies, described as good learner behavior, and reduction strategies, described as negative strategies, generally used by learners of low proficiency. Therefore, achievement strategies were selected for explicit strategy instruction within the study.
**Table 2 Nakatami’s (2005) model of oral communicative strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement Strategies</th>
<th>Definition of strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>help-seeking strategies</td>
<td>Two types of help seeking strategies are distinguished: appeals for help and asking for repetition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modified interaction strategies</td>
<td>Where students sent signals for negotiation to overcome communication difficulties. Includes confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and clarification requests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modified output strategies</td>
<td>When students rephrase an utterance in response to their conversation partners’ signals for negotiation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time-gaining strategies</td>
<td>When the speakers had difficulties expressing an idea, time gaining strategies are used to give the speaker time to think and to keep the communication channel open.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance strategies</td>
<td>Maintenance strategies consisted of two types: providing active response (such as I know what you mean) and shadowing (exact or partial repetition of preceding utterance).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-solving strategies</td>
<td>When the learners encountered difficulties caused by their own insufficient linguistic resources, they used these strategies to solve the problems without their interlocutor’s help, such as by trying to find relevant linguistic items or expressions by using paraphrase, approximation, and restructuring.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reduction Strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>message abandonment strategies, first-language-based</th>
<th>These strategies consisted of interjections in L1 for a lexical item when the learner experiences communication difficulties.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strategies,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interlanguage-based</td>
<td>Using interlanguage system to reduce intended utterances and avoid using certain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reduction strategies</td>
<td>language structures or specific topics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false starts</td>
<td>Repeating one or more of the preceding words during difficulties in executing an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>utterance, causing disruptions in their plans for producing the intended utterances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>accurately.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of the key premises of the study was that “pairing communication strategies with appropriate metacognitive strategy training could enhance learners’ awareness of strategy use and develop their communicative skills” (2005: 78). Using experimental research, Nakatani gave 12 weeks of metacognitive plus oral communication strategy training to the experimental group and no training to a control group during a normal CLT based EFL course. The training consisted of giving the learners an ‘oral communication strategy sheet’ that contained examples of oral communication strategies at the beginning of the course to draw on throughout the training. Strategies included paraphrasing and strategies on modifying input and output. During the strategy training, students were expected to “locate strategies that they believed useful for interaction in specific tasks” (ibid: 79-80). Another part of the training involved learners keeping a diary to reflect on their strategy use. Training itself involved sequences of review, presentation, rehearsal, performance, and evaluation. The results of the training were assessed and it was found that the experimental group improved on oral proficiency test scores, however, this was not the case for the control group.

The purpose of Lam’s (2006: 142) study was to assess “the effects of strategy instruction on task performance and learners’ strategy use for oral language tasks”. Within her study, Lam detailed the following model of eight strategies to be taught during the intervention
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of strategy</th>
<th>Definition of strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resourcing</td>
<td>The speaker resorts to the vocabulary, structures and ideas suggested in the task instruction sheet to help him/her solve problems with ‘what to say’ or ‘how to say it’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>The speaker uses alternative expressions with similar meanings to replace those that he/she does not know or cannot think of ‘what to say’ or ‘how to say it’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using self-repetition</td>
<td>The speaker repeats what he/she has just said as a stalling device to gain time to think of ‘what to say’ or ‘how to say it’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using fillers</td>
<td>The speaker uses empty words such as ‘well’, ‘actually’, ‘you know’ etc. as a stalling device to gain time to think of ‘what to say’ or ‘how to say it’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using self-correction</td>
<td>The speaker hears himself/herself make a mistake in pronunciation, grammar, choice of words etc. and immediately corrects it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for repetition</td>
<td>The speaker asks the interlocutor to repeat what he/she has just said to facilitate comprehension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for clarification</td>
<td>The speaker asks the interlocutor to clarify the meaning of what he/she has just said to facilitate comprehension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for confirmation</td>
<td>The speaker asks the interlocutor to confirm the meaning of what he/she has just said to facilitate comprehension.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lam’s study also adopted an experimental design, in which an experimental class was given explicit strategy training, whereas the control group was given none. The strategy training intervention for the experimental group consisted of eight 1 hour 20 minute lessons spread over a 20-week course. The approach to strategy training instruction was guided on prior research on explicit strategy training (Chamot, 2004, 2005; Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Cohen & Weaver, 2006; Oxford, 1990; Rossiter, 2003a), briefly:

“Students were informed of the rationale and the value of strategy instruction, given names and examples of the eight target strategies to model on, provided with opportunities to use and consolidate the target strategies, and guided to evaluate strategy use at the end of the lesson” (Lam 2006: 145)

Lam used a multi method approach to analyzing the data including classroom video recordings, questionnaire data, observational data, and stimulated recall data. She found that OCST was effective for the experimental class, as, for example, they outperformed the control group when discussion tasks were evaluated, and described increasing use of strategies during stimulated recall as the course progressed.

The Cooperative Organization of Strategies for Oral Interaction (COSOI) program (Naughton 2006), was designed to specifically to improve EFL class small group interaction in a Spanish university. The program was founded on the belief that “students can be taught to engage in communicative tasks in ways that enhance language learning” (Naughton 2006: 171). The program is based on SLA theory and sociocultural theory and offers the following model of strategies

*Table 4 Naughton’s (2006) model of oral communicative strategies*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Strategy</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up questions</td>
<td>Considered to play an important role in fostering continued interaction, pushing the output of the interlocutor, ensuring attentive listening, and creating an appropriate social and affective framework</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The direct teaching of the four lessons was embedded into a general EFL course, as follows:

“Each strategy is introduced by the teacher, who explains its function and form with the aid of a worksheet. The strategy is then practiced by small groups of students as they participate in a cooperative game. The games encourage positive interdependence and individual accountability, which are key aspects of cooperative learning … and the students are openly encouraged to collaborate with each other.” (ibid)

An experimental approach was used to judge the effectiveness of the cooperative strategy training. Experimental and control groups were video recorded, and effectiveness was judged in terms of overall participation, measured in number of turns taken, and use of interaction strategies, measured in the number of times the strategies
were used. While the results were advised to be viewed with caution, overall participation and interaction strategy use was higher in the experimental group.

The COSOI program was modeled on an earlier program by Bejarano et al. (1997), named the Skilled Use of Interaction Strategies (SUIS) program. The focus of the SUIS program was on the need to provide English language learners “with preparatory training in order to ensure more effective communicative interaction during group work carried out in the language classroom” (ibid: 203). The SUIS program offers the following model of oral communicative strategies.

*Table 5 Bejarano et al.’s (1997) Model of oral communicative strategies*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Modified interaction strategies</strong></th>
<th><strong>Explanation</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Checking for comprehension and clarification</td>
<td>This consists of comprehension questions asked by the speaker to check the interlocutor's understanding of the message (e.g. Do you see what I mean?) or by the listener in order to ask for clarification of the input (e.g. Did you say that...?).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appealing for assistance</td>
<td>Participants recruit help from other members of the group to express themselves more effectively in the target language (e.g. How do you say...?).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving assistance</td>
<td>Interactants help other members of the group who have difficulty expressing themselves in the target language and appeal for assistance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repairing</td>
<td>Participants correct grammatical or lexical errors in the target language that were made by other members of the group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interaction strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elaborating</strong></td>
<td>Building on a previous comment, enlarging on it by giving examples and adding sentences in order to expand the discourse unit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Facilitating flow of conversation</strong></td>
<td>A participant uses promoters that encourage continuation of the conversation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Responding</strong></td>
<td>A participant responds to a content-related question asked by a member of the group. Such responses can include expressions of agreement or disagreement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Seeking information or an opinion</strong></td>
<td>A participant asks for the speaker's opinion or seeks relevant or more detailed information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Paraphrasing</strong></td>
<td>A participant clarifies the previous speaker's contribution by restating it in his own words.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bejarno et al. perceived the need to help learners negotiate for meaning and to actively engage with each other when asked to discuss in a group. OCST’s were divided into modified interaction strategies such as checking for comprehension and appealing for help, and social interaction strategies such as elaborating, paraphrasing, and responding. In order to train students to use effective strategies, specially designed tasks “were introduced at random over the eight weeks of the experiment” (ibid: 208). The procedure was described as follows:

“Training the students in SUIS was carried out in two phases. In the first phase, using the specially designed activities, the students were trained in one after another of the strategies. As each strategy was introduced its descriptive name was posted on the wall on a large placard. The second phase focused on consolidation of all the interaction strategies the students had learned. The students viewed together the video of the pre-test and discussed with the teacher which strategies had not been used and how they could have been incorporated. The students were constantly made aware of the strategies they needed to use in order to make the interaction more effective.” (ibid)
The results of the study showed that change in participation was greater for the experimental group than for the control group. In other words, there was an indication that the experimental group became “significantly more interactive as a result of the training” (ibid: 211).

In a review of strategy training models, Chamot (2004: 21) notes that they “are solidly based on developing students’ knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes and encouraging them to adopt strategies that will improve their language learning and proficiency”. Nevertheless, given that the amount of strategy training varies among programs from three lessons to 12 weeks of training and eight lessons spread out over twenty weeks, and the procedures are also varied among programs, it is suggested here that more work is needed to discover an appropriate balance of metacognitive awareness raising and OCST and appropriate amount of training for my own specific context of 10-week Korean adult language classes. This study, therefore, draws on previous models of strategy training outlined here to help develop an intervention that promotes learner use of communication strategies, with the aim of developing their ability to engage in exploratory talk for language learning. The model of strategies included in the Talk Skills project is offered in Table 12, p.137. The issue of intervention design and development will be explored further in chapter 4, which outlines the design-based research methodology of the thesis.

3.3 Introduction: Theories for using talk in L2 classroom learning

The following sections outline theories that foreground the use of talk in L2 classrooms. This begins with a summary of the interactionist approach to second language acquisition. Then, sociocultural theory and its relevance to L2 learning will be discussed. This will be followed by a discussion of Bakhtin’s theory of dialogized heteroglossia. Next, the ecological view of language learning is introduced, which draws on the work of Bakhtin and Vygotsky, among others. Finally, Johnson’s dialogically based model of language learning will be introduced, also based on the work of Vygotsky and Bakhtin.
3.3.1 SLA and interaction

The origin of research into language learning through interaction can be traced back to the discourse hypothesis (Hatch 1978). According to Hatch, discourse analysis would benefit SLA studies by tracing how L2 learners learn language. Her belief was that "language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations" (1978: 404). Through her beliefs, Hatch formed the discourse hypothesis, which states that at the beginning of the L2 learning process, the learner overcomes difficulty in accurate identification of topics through the use of repair. Later, the learner uses “knowledge of past discourse and shared information” (ibid: 423) to predict routes (i.e. possible comments and questions) through discourse on a topic. As learning progresses, turns then become longer and more complex, with “repairs and new hypotheses being generated at discourse break-down points” (ibid: 423). Hatch’s idea was radical in that it contrasted with the view at the time that language learning was a computational process of receiving language, fitting it together and only then using it.

Subsequently, Hatch’s insights on discourse influenced work by Krashen (1980) and Long (1983a, 1983b, 1996), among others, who emphasized the need for comprehensible input and social interaction, respectively, as vitally important to language acquisition. It was Krashen’s belief that when learners are exposed to input slightly above their current level (i+1), students will both comprehend and acquire language. Long (1980, 1996) was also interested in the relationship between input and SLA. His research focused on “how input could be made comprehensible” (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 43) and became the foundation for his interaction hypothesis, based on studies of native and non-native speaker interaction. His idea assumes that “environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner’s developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, through negotiation for meaning” (Long 1996: 414). In other words, comprehensible input alone is not enough, it is social interaction and negotiation for meaning that allows language to be produced as modified
input, and this mechanism allows learners to develop their communicative competence (Celce-Murcia 2007). Long (1980) pointed out that modification of interaction may involve various strategies, including comprehension checks, clarification requests, self-repetition and confirmation of message meaning among other conversational adjustments. Such a causal, albeit indirect, relationship between modified interaction and a learner’s language development is summarized as follows:

1. Interactional modification makes input comprehensible;
2. Comprehensible input promotes acquisition;
   Therefore,
3. Interactional modification promotes acquisition. (Lighbown & Spada 2003: 43)

Furthermore, Pica (1994) showed that the impact of modified L2 interaction on learning is dependent on the extent to which misunderstandings and errors within the communication are brought to the attention of the learner via feedback. However, other research on the interaction – acquisition relationship complicated the role of input. Sato (1986), for example, showed that native speaker input-interaction did not result in any improved L2 proficiency in two Vietnamese boys’ use of past tense. She therefore questioned the extent to which the relation between input and language development could be claimed to be direct and positive, as had been theorized until that point (Gass 1997). It was around this time that Swain (1985) put forward the notion that comprehensible output also plays a crucial role in a learner’s language development. Swain asserts that for successful acquisition, it is also necessary for a learner to develop their syntactical ability, something not always important when comprehending input alone, but necessary when producing comprehensible output. As learners attempt to construct comprehensible output, two outcomes are possible. Either the attempt to construct comprehensible output will be successful, in which case the learner may recognize and remember the success, or such attempts will be unsuccessful and the learner may notice the gap (Schmidt 1990) in his/her current interlanguage ability. Schmidt points out that the process of noticing the gap occurs as and when such particular gaps in the target L2 are brought to the learner’s attention, either “in class or
because some other experience made them salient” (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 45). Recent research into the role of interaction in language acquisition has shown that the relationship is complex, for example, it has shown that oral communication alone does not automatically stimulate all areas of communicative competence (Elis & He 1999; Loschky 1994).

To summarize, research in the traditional interaction – SLA literature maintains that L2 learners first need comprehensible language input, which then gives rise, through a process of modified interaction and negotiation for meaning, to grammatically coherent output. Through this process, the learner’s interlanguage system is stimulated and developed, and the second language may then be acquired.

Research into the relationship between interaction and SLA is relevant to this thesis because discussion provides the locus for interaction and negotiation for meaning. The intervention developed in this thesis draws on concepts foregrounded in the SLA/interaction literature such as the various ways a learner can negotiate for meaning and aims to raise awareness of and improve the ways learners integrate these acts into their own discussions. Nevertheless, more recent research into L2 learning has called these concepts into question, or have at least pointed that this conduit notion of SLA does not represent the entirety of L2 acquisition (Donato 1998; Pavlenko & Lantolf 2000; Johnson 2004). A more holistic picture of SLA is offered within the sociocultural theory–SLA literature which will be discussed in the following sections.

3.3.2 The major constructs of sociocultural theory (SCT) and their relevance to L2 learning

Sociocultural theory (SCT) is originally the work of Lev Vygotsky and was conceived within the field of educational psychology. The underlying concept of SCT is that “all specifically human psychological processes (so-called higher mental processes) are mediated by psychological tools such as language, signs, and symbols” (Karpov & Hayward 1998: 27). Indeed, the drive of sociocultural theory for second language acquisition (SCT-L2) is the study of the L2 learner’s ability to “use the new language to
mediate (i.e. regulate or control) their mental and communicative activity” (Lantolf 2011: 24). In any case, SCT places social interaction at the heart of learning and development.

Work in the Thinking Together project (section 3.1.2) has used SCT and its focus on social interaction as a means to justify attempts to develop learners’ abilities to think together in groups. Littleton and Mercer (2007: 4) note that “a sociocultural perspective raises the possibility that educational success and failure may be explained by the quality of educational dialogue, rather than simply by considering the capability of individual students or the skill of their teachers”. Likewise, some oral strategy training programs used in L2 education are based on SCT (e.g. Naughton 2006). SCT suggests that joint collaboration and problem solving greatly affects the learner’s cognitive development. Some of the major constructs of SCT relevant to this research will be defined, followed by a data led discussion of their relevance to L2 learning.

3.3.3 Mediation

One of the key concepts of SCT is mediation, described as the human capacity to use tools associated with higher mental functioning, such as language, numeracy, logic etc. in order to exert control over their biological endowments. According to Lantolf and Thorne (2007: 199) “higher level cultural tools serve as a buffer between the person and the environment and act to mediate the relationship between the individual and the social world”. Mediation may further be described as “the creation and use of artificial auxiliary means of acting” (Lantolf 2011: 25). Such acting may be done in the physical sense, for example, the way in which one may use a saw or a chisel, or in the social, psychological, communicative sense, related to the use of symbols, such as graphs, drawings and language. The mediating power of symbolic tools such as language lies in their potential to make meaning (ibid). By using both physical and symbolic tools we are able to transform “our social and material environment… [and] also change ourselves and the way we live in the world” (Lantolf & Thorne 2007: 199).
Mediation is important in understanding Vygotsky’s view that a learner’s development must pass through both the *intermental* and *intramental* level:

“Any function in the child’s cultural development appears twice 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...internalisation transforms the process itself and changes its structure and functions. Social relations or relations among people genetically underlie all higher functions and their relationships.” (Vygotsky, 1981, p.163)

Vygotsky suggests that a learner must interact first with others at the intermental level, in the classroom, for example, through educational dialogue. This interaction then serves as the foundation for intramental development within the mind of the learner. Development on both the intermental and intramental planes is “mediated by cultural tools: mind emerges in the course of joint activity. There is a dialectical relationship between the intramental and intermental” (Littleton & Mercer 2007: 12). Therefore, the individual mind develops through interaction with others.

This dialectical relationship is best described through the process of regulation. Regulation happens in learners whereby their physical and mental activities are first controlled and guided by adults or more capable individuals. Through this process, the learner appropriates both the language of their community and eventually the ability to regulate him/herself, namely self-regulation. Regarding the value of language in this process, it should be noted here that “language serves as a symbolic artifact to facilitate such activities, but it is in and through these activities that language is appropriated” (Lantolf 2011: 25).

To become a self-regulating individual, the learner must first pass through other-regulation, or the process by which he or she “is inducted into a shared understanding of how to do things through collaborative talk, until eventually they take over (or appropriate) new knowledge or skills into their own individual consciousness” (Mitchell & Myles 1998: 195). In other words, to become a capable, self-regulating individual, the
learner must first transform their activity from that which happens socially and collaboratively on the inter-mental plane, to that which may be done individually on the intra-mental plane. This collaborative process is aided by the act of scaffolding, discussed in section 3.3.5.

3.3.4 Zone of Proximal Development

Educational dialogue is further foregrounded in SCT within the concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), the metaphorical space between interactants in which learning can best occur. According to Vygotsky, the ZPD is the zone in which the learner is not yet proficient in operating independently, but may be able to capably function with help from the more able individual. Vygotsky defines the ZPD as follows:

“the difference between the child's developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.” (1978: 85)

Assisted performance is one element of the ZPD that has much influence on education research. According to Dunphy (2003), assisted performance is the performance of the learner as he/she is being assisted by the environment, by others and/or by the self and is relevant to any field of skill. Assisted development contrasts with unassisted development to form the boundaries of the ZPD. Teaching may be found to be effective when, as a direct result, aspects of the learner’s target skills that are in a stage of maturing are tapped into and aroused (Vygotsky 1956). In other words, teaching should aim to give assistance to the learner at the points that require as such.

While the focus of Vygotsky’s ZPD is the relationship between those more or less knowledgeable, for example teacher and student, it is also relevant to peer interaction and group work:

“peer interaction can still be valuable, but would be expected to be most effective when a more competent child provides one who is less so with the kind of help that suits their ZPD… to the extent that peers can assist
performance, learning will occur through their assistance.” (Littleton and Mercer 2007: 13)

A further aspect of the ZPD is its influence on assessment. Where traditional testing “only indicates the level of development already attained, the ZPD is forward-looking through its assertion that what one can do today with assistance is indicative of what one will be able to do independently in the future” (Lantolf & Thorne 2007: 206). Therefore, the ZPD can assess both the learner’s current level of development as with traditional assessment as well as the learner’s possible future developmental level. Classroom activities and assessment, such as those in the Thinking Together project, that are designed to reflect the ZPD, place emphasis on learners’ future development and contrast with the more traditional transmission or banking concepts of educational design.

3.3.5 Scaffolding

Within educational dialogue in the ZPD, scaffolding is a useful construct used to define “the dialogic process by which one speaker assists another in performing a function that he or she cannot perform alone” (Ellis 2003: 180-81). Like physical scaffolding, the dialogic equivalent labels interaction that is not permanent and is used either by expert or fellow peer (Li 2011), to support the learner only as he/she develops a new skill, or understand a new meaning. Scaffolding requires sensitivity of the more capable individual to be attuned and conscious to the weakness of the less capable individual, to control the areas of weakness, and permit the learner to “concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence” (Wood et al. 1976: 90).

Donato (1994: 40) points out that with regard to scaffolding in L2 educational dialogue, “a knowledgeable participant can create, by means of speech, supportive conditions in which the novice can participate in, and extend current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence”. As noted, the knowledgeable participant
can be either teacher, or importantly for this research, student helping a fellow student, indeed peer scaffolding has been the focus of previous language learning research (e.g. Swain & Lapkin 1998).

The sociocultural notions of mediation, regulation, the zone of proximal development and scaffolding are important to understanding general classroom talk and, as noted, have been used by members of the Thinking Together project to justify the foregrounding of exploratory talk among participants in the classroom learning context (Littleton & Mercer 2007). Dawes (2008: 4) points out that Vygotsky’s intention was to define talk as a tool for learners to “make meaning and organize thinking”. This idea underpins the Thinking Together project, as its aim is to make learners more aware of talk for learning by explicitly teaching talk skills. The benefit of improved talk skills for the learner is social, through the practice of peer collaboration, individual because “by learning how to think aloud with others” learners “become better at thinking and working alone” (ibid: 8), and educational as improved talk skills enrich the educational experience in general. This research will investigate the extent to which these claims are true in the adult language learning context. The following section discusses the relationship of SCT and L2 learning, offering specific examples of how it enables L2 development.

3.3.6 Sociocultural theory and L2 learning

One of the key relevancies of SCT to SLA is to rethink the role of interaction in SLA, moving beyond a cognitivist input, output, interaction stance, or conduit metaphor (Johnson 2004), to providing a more “holistic perspective on developmental questions in SLA” (Ohta 2001: 53). Within the interactionist concept of SLA, learners are viewed as undergoing a process of “sending and receiving linguistic information” (Johnson 2004: 130), which, while to an extent acknowledges that such interaction is socially situated, posits the learner as essentially individually processing the linguistic information. From this holistic SCT viewpoint, language learning can be seen as a truly socially situated process, with a learner’s second language activity appearing first socially and only then
later independently. Through the transformative processes of microgenesis “language acquisition -internalization of the language of social interaction from interpsychological to intrapsychological planes- occurs” (ibid: 54). As such, by closely analyzing language as it occurs in the zone of proximal development, it is possible to witness language learning as it occurs ‘in flight’.

Nabei (2012) offers the following excerpt of classroom talk that occurred in a Japanese college English lesson between a native English teacher and her students, along with stimulated recall sessions, to highlight learning that occurs within the ZPD:

**Excerpt 6 Dialogue from Nabei (2012: 44-45)**

1. Ss: Do you know Uwa? Singer.
3. Tokiko: Woman singer is my graduated school graduated.
4. Ms. Johnson: Oh. She graduated FROM ... MY school
5. Tokiko: my school
6. Ms. Johnson: or high school or my junior high school. Oh, did you know her?
7. Tokiko: No.

Nabei points out that this excerpt highlights the ZPD as it materialized in order to resolve Tokiko’s language problem in line 3: “Woman singer is my graduated school graduated.” According to Nabei’s data, at this point Tokiko looked to the teacher as a possible source and gave her a quizzical look. The teacher understood that the learner had been confronted with a difficulty and entered into a collaborative dialogue with the learner allowing the ZPD to emerge and a language learning affordance to be presented.

In the following excerpt, Nabei (2012) also highlights the ZPD as enacted among peers:
Excerpt 7 Dialogue from Nabei (2012: 49)

1. Shoko: all ... place ... has?
2. Eiko: All place ha-
3. Shoko: -ve?
4. Yasuko: All places?
5. Eiko/Shoko: All places?
6. Yasuko: All places have ... all places have ... same problem ...
7. Ss: XX
8. Eiko: Same prob-
9. Shoko: problem$S$
10. Yasuko: and opinion$S$
11. Shoko: and opinions ... it’s troublesome! “What were the most common reason that people gave for not separating garbage?”
12. Aiko: Troublesome

Here, learners are working collaboratively to help each other use correct plural noun forms. In line 1, Shoko foregrounds a problem with the plural of ‘place’ with rising intonation, thereby highlighting her language limitations with plural nouns. Other participants then allow a jointly constructed ZPD to emerge as they become alert to the problem and work together to form a sentence using a plural noun. This is all done without the ‘expert’ teacher present.

Swain (2000), uses a sociocultural lens to re-conceptualize the role of output in SLA, by discussing instead, the role of ‘collaborative dialogue’. Rather than using negotiation for meaning as the point of departure, Swain shows in the following dialogue how two learners use collaborative dialogue to plan a piece of writing:

Excerpt 8 Dialogue from Swain (2000: 101)

Rachel: Cher [chez] nou..des nouvoux menaces.

(Look up new [as in] new threats.)
Sophie: Good one!
Rachel: Yeah, nouveaux, des nouveaux, de nouveaux. Is it des nouveaux or de nouveaux?
Sophie: Des nouveaux or des nouvelles?
Rachel: Nou[veaux], des nou[veaux], de nou[voux].
Sophie: It’s menace, un menace, une menace, un menace, menace ay ay ay! [exasperated].
Rachel: Je vais le pauser.

(I’m going to put it on pause [ie the tape recorder].)

[They look up menace in the dictionary.]
Sophie: C’est des nouvoulles! [triumphantly.]
Rachel: C’est feminine... des nouvelles menaces.

Rather than these two learners overcoming a misunderstanding, i.e. negotiating for meaning, through their talk they have constructed linguistic knowledge; “they have engaged in knowledge building ... they have done so because they have identified a linguistic problem and sought solutions. In their dialogue, we are able to follow the (cognitive) steps which formed the basis of their written product. Here, the input, in the form of collaborative dialogue, is used to mediate their understanding and solutions” (2000: 102). In other words, the learners are using language to mediate language learning.

To further illustrate this point, Swain draws on Wells’ (2000) metaphors of spoken or written language as process and product, or ‘saying’ and ‘what is said’. ‘Saying’ may be described as the cognitive meaning making process between speakers. The act of ‘saying’, then produces an utterance, or ‘what is said’, which becomes an object for further exploration and reflection. By utilizing both ‘saying’ and ‘what is said’, Swain suggests that such “collaborative dialogue mediates joint problem solving and knowledge building” (2000: 102). Swain concludes by recommending that language learners be taught metacognitive strategies to better equip them for using language to mediate language learning, furthermore, that students be given opportunities to put such strategies into practice:
“From a pedagogical perspective, the position argued… offers additional reasons for engaging students in collaborative work. It suggests that tasks which encourage students to reflect on language form while still being oriented to meaning making - that is, tasks which engage students in collaborative dialogue… might be particularly useful for learning strategic processes as well as grammatical aspects of language.” (ibid: 112).

Donato (1998: 52) investigated scaffolding in L2 classrooms and found that, in addition to the scaffolding that is associated with the expert-novice relationship, learners are also capable of scaffolding each other’s talk. Moreover, “in the process of peer scaffolding, learners can expand their own L2 knowledge and extend the linguistic development of their peers.” In other words, through joint dialogic collaboration, linguistic knowledge is constructed and change brought about not only through individual input processing, but through the social interaction. It is through the process of joint scaffolding with peers that the learner’s own L2 develops.

Li (2011) identifies two forms of mutual scaffolding among learners. The first type is scaffolding to negotiate meaning:

**Excerpt 9 Dialogue from Li (2011: 40)**

1 S4: But there are two cities in Canada I heard. They are Ottawa and Montree. I heard from the news.
3 S1: So … the forum is in Ottawa and Montreal in Canada.
4 S4: Ah, yes, yes. Montreal, Montreal in Canada.

In this excerpt S4 mistakes the city name Montreal for Montree. S3 takes on the role of more knowledgeable other and corrects S4’s mistake, while S3 offers further scaffolded assistance. The scaffolded assistance from his peers allows S4 to move into a position of self-regulation in turn 4, suggesting that meaning has been successfully negotiated.
The second form of mutual scaffolding among learners that Li identifies is scaffolding to negotiate a linguistic term:

**Excerpt 10 Dialogue from Li (2011: 141-2)**

1 S2: About what? ...you don’t know? I don’t get it.
2 S3: About unite ... oh, yes. The unite of China.
3 S1: Is unite used as a noun? To be united...
4 S4: **Unification.** I remember.
5 S3: Yeah, use the noun. Should be **reunification**.
6 S1: Ah, **unification.** Thanks.
7 S2: Ok, about unite. Oh, no, **unification**.

In this excerpt, learners discuss the linguistic term ‘unification’ which, according to Li, promotes its acquisition. The term ‘unification’ is understood by the participants, however, they are unsure of its form. Scaffolding occurs in turn 3 as S1 asks whether unite should be used as a noun as S3 has done in line 2. In the following line, S4 recalls the correct linguistic term ‘unification’. Subsequently, S3 scaffolds S1 in line 5, and in turn 7 S2 self-regulates, suggesting that the sequence has been successful, the data in this excerpt shows how the participants “make a linguistic choice in mutual scaffolding” (Li 2011: 142).

Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) attempt to overcome the limitations of the conduit notion of SLA, in which the ‘acquisition’ metaphor of SLA gives foremost attention to the individual’s cognitive processes. To do so, these authors draw on and promote Sfard’s (1998) ‘participation’ metaphor, as a complement to the acquisition metaphor. According to Sfard, viewing language learning in terms of participation is to conceive of it “as a process of becoming a member of a certain community” (1998: 6), which includes acting and communicating specifically as members of that community do. In other words, a learner develops his or her L2 by engaging with and assimilating into the target language culture (Johnson 2004).

Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) analyse personal narratives of successful L2 learners to show how the learners enter into a process of participation and
(re)construction of their selves, which contrasts with individual computational acquisition of the language. Such a process is often painful for the learner, as it involves the loss of the old self in order to reconstruct and recover the new self as a member of the target community. Hoffman (1989) for example describes a loss of agency and loss of function of L1 inner speech (e.g. Wertsch 1985) that comes with becoming fluent in a second language. Nevertheless, as suggested by Luyvich (1997) reconstruction and recovery of self is a gradual process of appropriation that may often emerge through friendship with target language speakers.

Regarding the participation metaphor of language learning, Johnson further notes:

“Viewed from the perspective of the participation metaphor, second language learning is no longer about acquiring the target language code; progress in the L2 should no longer be assessed by comparing the learner’s mastery of phonetics, phonology, and morphosyntactic rules with an idealized, homogeneous, and imaginary native speaker. Second language acquisition is no longer about acquiring linguistic knowledge but about the individual’s willingness and persistence in becoming a full-fledged participant in the discursive practices of the target language culture.” (2004: 168)

The intention of Pavlenko and Lantolf, however, is not to replace the acquisition metaphor, but to complement it, much as the concepts of having and doing are related, or indeed the what and the how of L2 learning; “AM [acquisition metaphor] focuses on the individual mind and the internalization of knowledge, which is crucial for the study of the what in SLA, while PM [participation metaphor] stresses the contextualization and engagement with others... in its attempt to investigate the how” (Pavlenko and Lantolf 2000: 156).

Studies such as those mentioned above that use SCT to investigate L2 development are compatible with an alternative dialogically based model of second language acquisition (Johnson 2004), which draws on such SCT-L2 research as well as Bakhtin’s dialogized heteroglossia. The following section will introduce the key concepts of Bakhtin’s dialogized heteroglossia and its relevance to L2 learning. This
will be followed by a description of the ecological view of language learning and an outline of Johnson’s dialogically based model of language learning and its compatibility with inquiry dialogue/exploratory talk for language learning.

3.3.7 The nature of speech: Bakhtin’s dialogized heteroglossia

Formalist linguistics posits that language is “a set of abstract, self-contained systems with a fixed set of structural components and a fixed set of rules for their combination” (Hall et al. 2005: 1). Similarly, Saussurian structuralism separates “sentence level-linguistics from utterance-level linguistics” (Johnson 2004: 121). The structuralist and formalist notions (the traditional view) of language as an abstract system have been the locus of traditional second and foreign language research, in which such systems “are considered objects of study in their own right in that they can be extracted from their contexts of use and studied independently of the varied ways in which individuals make use of them” (Hall et al. 2005: 1). This approach to language has meant that second and foreign language teaching has been viewed as a process of helping learners acquire an abstract and unchanging system.

Bakhin’s (1961; 1981; 1986) contribution to our knowledge of language was to dispute the formalist and structuralist notions of language as abstract and absolute. Contrasting with this view, Bakhtin saw language instead as:

“comprising dynamic constellations of sociocultural resources that are fundamentally tied to their social and historical contexts. These collections, which are continuously renewed in social activity, are considered central forms of life in that not only are they used to refer to or represent our cultural worlds, but they also are the central means by which we bring our worlds into existence, maintain them, and shape them for our own purposes.” (Hall et al. 2005: 2)

In other words, Bakhtin viewed language not as a linguistic system, but instead as a living and changing entity - speech. To underline this view, Bakhtin took the concept of the utterance as the unit of study. He distinguished between “the utterance as a unit of
speech and the *sentence* as the unit of language” (Johnson 2004: 121 *italics in original*) and warned against conflating the two. By making this distinction, Bakhtin was able to move away from language as abstract system and towards language as cognitively constructed, thereby, relating language with human cognition.

Bakhtin defined the utterance as containing three characteristics:

1. As having boundaries marked whenever the speaking subject changes.
2. As having addressivity, meaning the aim of a speaking subject is for their utterance to be understood by an addressee.
3. As having superaddressivity, meaning the speaking subject presupposes an ideal addressee whose understanding of the utterance is absolute (Johnson 2004).

For Bakhtin, the utterance both responds and expects response, this quality of addressivity is absent in the abstract nature of a sentence.

Because of its characteristics as defined above, the utterance can take on many different forms which may be categorized into speech genres. Bakhtin (1986: 87) defined speech genres as:

“not a form of language but a typical form of utterance; as such the genre also includes a certain typical kind of expression that inheres in it. In the genre, the word acquires a particular typical expression. Genres correspond to typical situations of speech communication, typical themes, and to particular contacts between the meanings of words and actual concrete reality under certain typical circumstances.”

That is to say, as we use language in a given context we use language that is common to that context, which is therefore likely to be understood by other members of the given context. Only as words are spoken do we “infuse them with our own voices” (Hall et al 2005: 3).

Despite their variety, Bakhtin breaks Speech genres down into two main categories: primary and secondary. Primary genres comprise the language of everyday
life, whereas, secondary genres consist of the more formal texts, such as scientific journals. Bakhtin suggests that speech genres are our way of organizing language: “if speech genres did not exist, and we had not mastered them, if we had to originate them during the speech process and construct each utterance at will for the first time, speech communication would be almost impossible” (1986: 79). According to Johnson (2004: 123) this means that speech is a matter of choosing “a particular speech genre, which typically hosts the type of utterance we wish to convey to others,” and learning a language is a process of being exposed to different speech genres.

Because speech genres represent language that has been used by others, in past instances, Bakhtin writes that we speak with multiple voices or heteroglossia. As such, the word belongs both to the speaker as he/she uses it in the here and now, but also to those who have used the language before them. Ownership of the word is taken “only when the speaker populates it with his own intention, his own accent, when he appropriates the word, adapting it to his own semantic and expressive intention” (Johnson 2004: 123).

The nature of the utterance, to wed past utterances and past voices that have authored the utterance to the present in order to construct meaning, is the essence of the dialogic nature the utterance. Bakhtin foregrounds the dialogic nature of all utterances, and every utterance, therefore, should be viewed as a dialogic act. In this sense “rather than being considered peripheral to our understanding of language, dialogue is considered its essence” (Hall et al. 2005: 3).

The nature of utterances as used dialogically within a speech genre has significance for individuality and originality. A speaker’s individuality and language competence can be defined by their exposure to and use of speech genres. For example, one may be a competent scholar, yet awkward in a social situation (Johnson 2004). Learning language, therefore, is more than learning the language system, a learner must also be exposed to and become competent in speech genres. As Bakhtin notes, a speaker must understand “not only mandatory forms of the national language (lexical composition and grammatical structure), but also forms of utterances that are mandatory,
that is, speech genres” (1986, 80). Furthermore, a competent speaker is one who can attune to the evolutionary nature of speech genres and the potential creation of new speech genres, such as in “the development of email correspondence, which, because of its imaginary “closeness” to the addressee, created the style and the form of writing typical of Internet communication” (Johnson 2004: 124).

Bakhtin’s theory of dialogized heteroglossia synthesizes with Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory. Vygotsky foregrounded collaborative speech for human cognitive development in an educational setting but did not describe the characteristics of that speech. Bakhtin’s account of speech genres and dialogized heteroglossia, as discussed above, furnishes the gap in SCT which lacks investigation into the features of speech that allow for cognitive development.

While both Vygotsky and Bakhtin viewed language as a living entity and not as an abstract non-changing rule based system, the latter view is still popular in much SLA research (Johnson 2004). With regard to language learning, seeing speech as a living entity enables the elucidation of language as a tool “that is simultaneously structured and emergent, by which we bring our cultural worlds into existence, maintain them, and shape them for our own purposes” (Hall et al. 2005: 3). As such we are able to use language to reflect on ourselves as actors, the actions that we make, and the context in which they take place.

Such a view also reinforces the social interactive nature of language learning, that rather than simply mentally collecting a set of linguistic forms, “we appropriate their histories and the activities to which they are associated” (Hall et al. 2005: 3). It is essential therefore, for an L2 learner to interact with a variety of others from the L2 community and in a wide variety of speech genres in order to participate effectively as a member of the target L2 community. This concept will be discussed in detail in the section 3.3.9, which examines Johnson’s dialogically based model of second language acquisition.
3.3.8 The ecological approach to language learning

Van Lier’s (2000) ecological approach to language learning may be seen as an ‘orienting framework’ (DiSessa & Cobb 2009), in other words, a framework that provides a general perspective on language learning (discussed further in section 4.2), and is important to this research because it serves to provide theory on the environment in which language learning takes place.

According to van Lier (2000), the ecological perspective draws from the theoretical work of Vygotsky (e.g. 1978), Bakhtin (e.g. 1961), Peirce (1955), and Gibson (1979), among others, and is based on three premises: a) that emphasis is placed on the emergent nature of learning; b) that learning cannot solely be explained in terms of cognitive processes that go on inside a learners head and c) that “the perceptual and social activity of the learner, and particularly the verbal and non-verbal interaction in which the learner engages, are central to an understanding of learning. In other words, they do not just facilitate learning, they are learning” (van Lier 2000: 246).

The ecological perspective posits that an understanding of learning is to best be found by studying “the active learner in her environment” (ibid: 247). It therefore takes a social constructivist approach that suggests “social and other contextual processes” (ibid: 254) have a strong role in learning (although also accepting the important role of cognitivist processes). The ecological perspective is therefore congruent with sociocultural theory and Bakhtin’s dialogic view of language because learning is seen as something that grows out of the learner’s experiences within her given environment.

Proponents of an ecological view suggest that conversational talk between learners is especially useful for language learning. Van Lier and Matsuo (2000: 277-8) offer the following extract of conversational interaction between two non-native speakers:
1. Y: Wow, how long does it take to from here?
2. I: Ah, ten years about ten years.
3. Y: to Korea. About ten years. About ten days?
4. I: Ten days. (laughter) I’m very (xxx)
5. Y: Yeah, ten days.
6. I: ten days.
7. Y: Wow, it’s airmail?
8. I: Yes.
9. Y: O::h, that’s long time.
10. I: Yes, very long time. I-
11. Y: From here to Japan, about it takes about 5 day-
    usually
    five days or six days
12. I: o::h, very fast.

Van Lier and Matsuo suggest that within this conversational interaction, negotiation for meaning, or repair negotiation, is embedded in the talk, however, a lot of other interactional and linguistic work is also taking place, such as “comparisons between airmail to two countries, expressions of surprise, evaluations of context, and so on” (van Lier 2000: 250). These authors note, therefore, that in conversational talk, more work is needed than in traditional language learning activities, such as information gap tasks that are designed to single out negotiation for meaning alone.

From an ecological perspective, it is important to view language as one part of a larger semiotic, meaning making process that also includes “words, backchannels, gestures, and expressions” (van Lier 2000: 252). Likewise, language learning should be seen as a semiotic activity, in which the learner must utilize her environment’s “semiotic budget” (ibid) to provide opportunities for meaning making with others.

Affordance is a key concept from an ecological perspective. It relates to the idea that an actor is able to utilize and manipulate objects within their environment, i.e.
language, for further action. To articulate this concept, van Lier (2000: 253), offers the analogy of an animal living in the jungle:

“The ecologist will say that knowledge of language for a human is like knowledge of the jungle for an animal. The animal does not ‘have’ the jungle; it knows how to use the jungle and how to live in it. Perhaps we can say by analogy that we do not ‘have’ or ‘possess’ language, but that we learn to use it and to ‘live in it’.”

In language learning terms, this concept can help articulate the ability of the language learner to use language for meaning making in a given context. According to Edge (2011: 32) affordance is taken to mean an “interactive, linking concept with the approximate meaning of an individual learning opportunity”.

In sum, the language learning process can be viewed in terms of “relationships among learners and between learners and the environment” (van Lier 2000: 258). Cognitive processes are accepted, but must be viewed in combination with a learner’s social environment. While this complex view may present challenges for the researcher, it offers a more complete picture than can be offered with abstracted concepts such as input and output.

### 3.3.9 Johnson’s dialogically based model of language learning

In order to overcome the gap in theory that divides mental and social aspects of language learning, Johnson (2004) proposes a new model of language learning based both on Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and Bakhtin’s theory of dialogized heteroglossia. The following section extensively draws on and summarizes this model, as proposed by Johnson (2004), and suggests that a dialogically based model of language learning is a suitable point of reference to use in the development of the Talk Skills intervention in this research.

The reason for basing the new model of language learning on the work of Vygotsky and Bakhtin is because both theories offer a holistic view of learning that
takes into account the dialectical relationship between the mental and social processes, in which “the external world affects and transforms the individual’s mental functioning, which, in turn, affects and transforms social, cultural, and institutional settings” (ibid: 171). This means that for the language learner, the external world is both the provider of input and the essential foundation of language development.

Johnson points out that a model based on the theories of Vygotsky and Bakhtin would mean that two of the current distinctions in the field of SLA would need to be merged. The first is the distinction between language ability and cognitive ability. Language should be viewed as “an indispensable tool for cognitive growth,” and as such should be used “in a variety of potentially new sociocultural and institutional settings” (ibid), which would, in turn, affect the learner’s language development. Language and cognition should therefore be viewed not as delineated, but as inextricably linked and mutually beneficial.

Under such a model, the merging of a second distinction, that of language competence and language performance is also necessary. This is important because previous concepts of SLA have been centered on communicative competence, which in turn have mainly used language competence as their focus. The problem here is the restriction of much emphasis on the social context of learning. As Johnson points out:

Communicative competence models focus on the investigation and explanation of language competence—human mental processes devoid of social contexts. Communicative competence models give an impression that their creators are in denial of their human existence in the real world or of human communication with all its imperfections, ambiguities, and unpredictability. Vygotsky’s and Bakhtin’s theories restore the “dignity” and value to the neglected part of human language—language performance.” (ibid)

In other words, the use of Vygotsky and Bakhtin’s theories in creating an SLA model would merge language competence and performance, creating a dialectical relationship
between the two, and emphasizing the importance of performance within the learner’s social environment.

Figure 1 The merging of L2 performance with L2 competence

As Figure 1 shows, instead of using a communicative competence model that leads from the mind to the external world, the social, cultural, and institutional settings would instead be foregrounded and emphasis would be placed on the dialectical relationship between language performance and language competence, as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2 Dialectical interaction between L2 performance and L2 competence (Johnson 2004: 174)
On the social context, Johnson writes:

“Language use does not take place in a vacuum or in an imaginary social context but in a real and discernible social context. Social contexts create language, and language creates social contexts: one constitutes the other. These contexts are not universal. They are highly localized, and therefore language ability is also locally bound” (ibid: 172).

Within a dialogic model of language learning, the importance of Bakhtin’s theory of dialogic heteroglossia becomes important because when learning is made relevant through the social context, the focus of learning becomes speech within the given social context. Therefore, there becomes a need for the L2 learner to be exposed to dialogic heteroglossia, or a variety of speech genres within the target language, in order to become a competent speaker of the target language. The nature of speech (as defined by Bakhtin’s concept of dialogic heteroglossia) to be made up of various speech genres, suggests that SLA is a process of experiencing, and induction into speech genres of “a variety of contexts such as educational, family, political, economic, justice, healthcare, and religious institutions” (ibid: 173-4). Note that this concept contrasts with previous notions of SLA that focus on a learner’s general language ability and language in its abstract state.

The implications of this shift towards a focus on speech are twofold. Firstly, the focus of research into language learning should be “utterances, speech acts, turn-taking mechanisms, repair mechanisms, topic patterns, and nonverbal signs such as gestures and facial expressions,” (ibid: 173) rather than abstract segmented language. This would suggest, therefore, a link with conversation analysis (e.g. Markee 2000).

Secondly, the L2 learner must be made aware that simply appropriating grammar is not enough to function in the various contexts the learner may find themselves in. Language learning from both the teaching and learning perspective must instead be seen as a process in which “new voices of the target language’s sociocultural and institutional settings need to be experienced, absorbed, and appropriated by L2 learners not for the sake of appropriation but to help L2 learners become active participants in the target
language culture” (Johnson 2004: 174). The following section outlines how exploratory talk for language learning can be integrated into such a dialogically based model of language learning.

### 3.3.10 Relation of Johnson’s dialogically based model of language learning and exploratory talk for language learning

Within Johnson’s model, the goal of SLA research is “to investigate interactive processes that pertain to the learner’s journey toward becoming an active participant in the target language culture” (2004: 176). Given that language learning is now seen as more than a process of acquiring abstract language forms, the aim of this thesis corresponds with Johnson’s model in that its aim is to improve the learner’s ability to think, act and speak within the context of their classroom discussions. This aim presupposes that thinking, acting and speaking within the learner’s local social context, i.e. the language classroom, aids the learner’s cognitive growth.

Regarding language teaching, Johnson advocates the foregrounding of collaborative, knowledge building dialogue in the language classroom. Swain (2000: 97) defines collaborative, knowledge building dialogue as a space in which “language use and language learning can co-occur. It is language use mediating language learning. It is cognitive activity and it is social activity”. Such a concept of collaborative, knowledge building dialogue is akin to exploratory talk for language learning as outlined in chapter 3.

Furthermore, the concepts of the *Thinking Together* project, which aim to maximize exploratory talk, are also founded on a similar framework, that in which classroom activities are undertaken within the intermental development zone (IDZ), which is used to hypothesize how participants in classroom talk “stay attuned to each other’s changing states of knowledge and understanding over the course of an educational activity” (Mercer & Littleton 2007: 19). The IDZ may be conceived of as a bubble, in which participants in an educational activity maintain dialogue in which the learner is continually pushed slightly beyond their known competence, and in which
learning ceases to take place when participants fail to “keep the minds mutually attuned” (ibid). Talk in the IDZ is characterized by shared experience and reference to common knowledge. The IDZ is reliant on joint contextualization among participants and maintained shared consciousness (ibid). It follows that L2 oral communicative strategy training attempts to offer learners strategies in generating this type of talk more effectively. Therefore, Johnson’s dialogically based model of language learning may be congruent with an intervention that seeks to improve L2 learner use of exploratory talk for language learning.
CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY: DESIGN-BASED RESEARCH

4.1 Conceptualizing the research questions

Given the argument in this thesis that Korean adult L2 learners can benefit from metacognitive awareness raising of exploratory talk for language learning and the learning of oral communicative strategies to help achieve this kind of talk, this chapter furthers the argument by claiming that this aim can successfully be achieved using a design-based research methodology to both develop the Talk Skills intervention as a pedagogic tool, and offer specific insight into instructional techniques, student engagement and teacher’s interactional roles that aid the success of its implementation. This research draws on previous interventions both in L1 classrooms, i.e. the Thinking Together project, and various L2 oral strategy training interventions to aid the design of an L2 intervention aimed at improving students’ use of exploratory talk for language learning when working in groups. Data from questionnaires, participant interviews, field notes and conversation analysis of transcript data will then be used to a) aid in the process of refining the intervention and b) illustrate how the designed intervention functions in its given learning context (McKenney & Reeves 2013). With these aims in mind, my research questions are as follows:

1. What guides and supports the design of an intervention that aims to help learners use exploratory talk for language learning and what are its design features?

2. How does this intervention facilitate adult L2 learners’ use of exploratory talk for language learning?

I have chosen to use a design-based research methodology (DBR) to achieve these aims. Section 4.2, introduces the key features of DBR. This will be followed in section 4.3 with a comparison of DBR with a) experimental design research and b)
action research. Then the core phases of DBR will be introduced in section 4.4 and finally, the hypothetical learning trajectory is outlined as a tool for conducting DBR in section 4.5.

4.2 Introduction to design-based research

The purpose of this section is to introduce design-based research (DBR) (e.g. Design Based Research Collective 2003; Barab & Squire 2004) as a method for “‘engineering’ particular forms of learning and systematically studying those forms of learning within the context defined by the means of supporting them” (Cobb et al. 2003: 9). In other words, DBR has been developed as a method for implementing an intervention in a given educational context and studying both how to improve and refine the intervention, and the educational outcomes of the intervention. By studying engineered forms of learning in real world contexts, DBR explores the connections that link educational theory, designed intervention and educational practice (Learning Theories: 2014), and aims to develop both theoretical and practical answers to educational problems (McKenney & Reeves 2013).

Traditionally, educational research has often been criticized for its lack of ability to improve practice (Yates 2004). It has also been suggested that educational theory is at times not borne out in practice (Kennedy 1997), or is simply not practical or useable by teachers (Yates 2004). Modern educational research has begun to address and narrow the research – practice gap (McKenney & Reeves 2013). DBR is one such attempt to redress the balance.

DBR has taken various other names, such as educational design research (van den Akker et al. 2006; McKenney & Reeves, 2013), design research (Collins, Joseph & Bielaczyc, 2004, Swann 2013), design experiments (Cobb et al. 2003; McCanliss, Kalchman, & Bryant, 2002), development research (van den Akker, 1999) or design science (Van Aken, 2004; Van Aken, 2005). This research follows the Design Based Research Collective in using the term design-based research in order to avoid confusion...
with “experimental design, with studies of designers, or with trial teaching methods (2003: 5).

DBR is a relatively young and emerging form of research. Its roots can be traced back to Brown (1992), who described how she switched from laboratory controlled, experimental education research to design research, investigating learning in actual inner-city classroom contexts, with the goal of creating complex interventions to improve classroom learning. Her research aim was to improve the way students “learn to learn” (1992: 144) by addressing two problems, firstly inert knowledge, or students’ lack of ability to properly use knowledge, and secondly, passive learning, the times when students “do not readily engage in intentional, self-directed action” (ibid: 144). Brown was interested in improving learners’ metacognition, however, she found that teaching students learning strategies so that they may then use them in their learning was a difficult endeavor, made harder by removing the classroom context and putting students in laboratories that she saw as “arbitrary contexts where a learner is attacking meaningless material for no purpose other than to please the experimenter” (1992: 146). To redress this balance, Brown shifted the context of her research from the laboratory to the classroom. While freely admitting that while the laboratory offered more control of research variables, the shift was worth the gain in “richness of reality” (ibid: 152). The laboratory remained part of her research for investigating learning strategies when experimental control was necessary and investigation of classroom discussions helped understanding of how learning strategies play out in real life, in her words “my laboratory work informs my classroom observations – and vice versa” (ibid: 153). Her logic has paved the way for the development of design-based research to design interventions as solutions to real educational problems and use real world classroom settings to enact and refine the interventions themselves and use this process to reflect on and generate new educational theory.

Since its inception, design-based research has evolved mainly in the field of Information Systems in order to develop technology based educational interventions, (e.g. Collins 1992; Bannan-Ritland 2003; Anderson & Shattuck 2012). However, DBR may equally be used for “designing and exploring the whole range of designed
innovations: artifacts as well as less concrete aspects such as activity structures, institutions, scaffolds, and curricula.” (Design Based Research Collective 2003: 5-6). Brown and Campione (1995), for example, used DBR to develop their intervention called ‘Fostering a Community of Learners’ (FCL). As summarized in The Design Based Research Electronic Performance Support System website (2006), the aim of this intervention was to improve the way students’ research biology in small groups in classrooms. The work involved three iterations, the first focused on helping students to gain deeper understanding of concepts in biology by implementing a method which involved students “writing explanations for other students and sharing their knowledge with other students who had worked on other topics” (ibid). The second iteration of the intervention involved revision of the design of FCL “to put more emphasis on biological content by adding benchmark lessons and hands-on activities after many misconceptions were found in students’ work” (ibid). In the third iteration of the intervention, these design-based researchers metaphorically “implemented a developmental corridor where students cycle through related topics over the years, albeit with increasing depth” (ibid).

While a clear and agreed upon definition of DBR remains elusive at present, Barab and Squire’s (2004: 2) definition is often quoted within the DBR literature as a description of the main intentions of this line of research, stating that DBR is:

“a series of approaches, with the intent of producing new theories, artifacts, and practices that account for and potentially impact learning and teaching in naturalistic settings.”

Descriptions of DBR have ranged from a research methodology (Collins et al. 2004), to a research paradigm (Design Based Research Collective 2003), or research genre (McKenney & Reeves, 2013). Andreissson points out that the metaphor of ‘design’ in the name highlights three points in that “(a) the researcher acts like a “designer” who uses existing knowledge about the way organizations work to create a “blueprint” of a solution, (b) these solution concepts are like designs that consciously and explicitly have been “designed” before they are used and that are “redesigned” several times to improve them, (c) these designs are tested to check their validity” (2006: 2).
Several attempts have been made to list the characteristics of DBR (e.g. van den Akker, 1999, 2006; Design Based Research Collective 2003; McKenney & Reeves, 2013). However, this research will take as the basis of description, the characteristics found in McKenney & Reeves (2013: loc 377) in which DBR, is described as “theoretically oriented, interventionist, collaborative, responsively grounded, and iterative”. These characteristics are summarized as follows.

a) Theoretically oriented

As with conventional methods of research, DBR draws on what is known in educational theory to a) structure research and b) advance understanding of educational theory. However, in addition to the conventions of traditional research, DBR uses what is known in educational theory to “shape the design of a solution to a real problem” (McKenney & Reeves 2013: loc 381).

In DBR the solution to an educational problem is the design and implementation of an artefact, or intervention, and may be designed to innovate and improve aspects of education. Within the context of this research the intervention will take the form of the set of talk skills lessons, designed to emphasize the need to engage in exploratory talk for language learning, within a communicative language teaching based curriculum.

To better understand how theory informs DBR, much of the DBR literature points to DiSessa and Cobb’s (2009) distinction between grand theories of learning, orienting frameworks, and frameworks for action. The ‘grand theory’ that support the implementation of the teaching of talk skills in this research would be Vygotsky’s theory of human development (1930; 1978). Orienting frameworks are useful because they provide “general perspectives… for conceptualizing issues of learning, teaching, and instructional design” (DiSessa and Cobb 2009: 81). In the context of this research, the orienting frameworks are Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of learning, Bakhtin’s dialogized heteroglossic theory of language and with regard to L2 learning, theories of input, output and interaction, the ecological perspective of language learning, as foregrounded in the work of van Lier (2000), and Johnsons dialogically based model of
language learning. The frameworks for action at the first point of design is to be found in the concepts foregrounded in the *Thinking Together* project that are used to induce exploratory talk in L1 concepts, and the various L2 oral strategy training programs that aim to improve oral interaction in L2 classrooms. The notion that DBR is theoretically oriented then, encapsulates both theory with regard to input into the designed intervention from what is known in existing educational theory and theory output with regard to what is learned about the design of the intervention and from the results of its implementation.

b) **Interventionist**

When conducting DBR, one essential element of the designed artefact is that it is interventionist, and the intervention should take place in a real educational context (Anderson & Shattuck 2012). As noted above, the intervention can be designed as a solution to a wide range of problems, and in this research, takes the form of an educational product (McKenney and Reeves 2013), specifically a set of learning materials designed to improve students’ group talk skills. This educational product is interventionist in nature because it is designed to interrupt the normal flow of a language course and effect positive change as a result. The intention of the designed intervention “is – alongside the development of theoretical understanding – to make a real change on the ground” (McKenney & Reeves 2013: loc 401).

c) **Collaborative**

Another defining characteristic of DBR is its collaborative nature. When conducted by professional researchers, such collaboration may take place, for example, among a group of researchers in order to create the prototypical design, and between researchers and teachers as the intervention is enacted on the ground (McKenney & Reeves 2013). Collaboration with practitioners allows for potential insights that may not have been anticipated during initial design. While collaboration is seen as a useful part
of the DBR process, it is also recognized as “an ideal for design-based research that is sometimes simply not feasible” (Herrington et al. 2007: paragraph 13). The nature of a PhD negates collaboration among researchers, but does not negate collaboration between PhD researcher and teaching practitioners. DBR has successfully been carried out as a PhD project (e.g. Swan 2013; Herrington 1997) and has indeed been encouraged to be undertaken as a PhD project (McKenney and Reeves 2013). My own position is that of part time PhD student and full time English language teacher. As such I have had the opportunity to consult with my fellow teachers as well as the adult language learners in my own language classes in the Konkuk University Language Institute in the context of investigative dialogue (Swan 2013) about the perceived importance of being able to engage in ETLL in the language classes conducted at the Institute. Many of my colleagues share the views presented in the literature review on Korean learners, and concur that learners may benefit from a better understanding of what is meant by exploratory talk for language learning and guidance on how to achieve it during group talk, i.e. the aims of this research. As a full-time language teacher I am also in the position to carry out both design and trialing of the intervention myself, which is the scope of the thesis. This will include input on the design from practitioners in my local context. Furthermore, although beyond the main scope of the thesis, some collaboration with my teaching colleagues will also take place to trial and use the intervention in their own L2 conversation classes (small scale trialing is outlined in chapter 9).

A similar approach was taken by Joseph (2004: 236) who focused on “a design-based research project in which a single worker had responsibility for design, research, and practice”. In her research, Joseph aimed to develop curriculum for a summer program called the Passion Project, in which initial feedback from students generated knowledge of learner interest, which was then used to establish curriculum themes. In this position as curriculum designer, teacher, and researcher, Joseph was able to establish “easy access to the ways that design as embodied in practice interacts with research needs in the passion curriculum context” (ibid). For example, the iterative process meant that as both teacher and designer, Joseph gave her students input into curricula design so that future learners in the same context maintained interest in the
material and were able to engage deeply in intellectual ideas within their lessons. Joseph concluded that her input as teacher enabled important development of curriculum design, likewise her insights from the perspective of designer and researcher meant that decisions in the classroom were bolstered by a deeper knowledge of curriculum development theory.

d) Responsively grounded

According to McKenney and Reeves (2013: loc 425), DBR should be responsively grounded. This means that “the products of educational design research are shaped by participant expertise, literature, and especially field testing”. In other words, as the shape of the intervention emerges across iterations, the course of its development relies on three areas, a) knowledge of available experts, for example myself as researcher, my tutor and my colleagues, b) input from literature, both in prior review and that which is drawn on as needs emerge and c) collected data, in the case of the Talk Skills project, transcripts of recorded lessons, field notes and participant interviews (these methods are described further in section 4.9).

As this process is carried out in real classrooms, the context of research is complex (Swann 2013). This makes it necessary to view intervention development as a holistic process “enacted through the interactions between materials, teachers, and learners” (Design Based Research Collective 2003: 5). While criticisms of this process point to the limited ability to generalize from data collected in such complex and unique environments, advocates point to the fact that the responsively grounded nature of the research and design process is such that it “is structured to explore, rather than mute, the complex realities of teaching and learning contexts, and respond accordingly” (McKenney and Reeves 2013: loc 425). That is to say, by reflecting on the interface between teachers, students and materials and using what is then known to develop the intervention over iterations, the intervention can be seen as an outcome of its context (Design Based Research Collective 2003), and is thus able to both create theory and create space for testing theory (Swann 2013). Brown (1992: 143) further points out that
the necessity, when developing design, to bear in mind the underlying aim of generalization. In other words, it is important to conduct DBR “always under the constraint that an effective intervention should be able to migrate from our experimental classroom to average classrooms operated by and for average students and teachers.”

e) Iterative

Finally, Van den Akker et al. state that DBR is iterative because it “incorporates a cyclic approach of design, evaluation, and revision” (2006: 5). There are multiple reasons for this, such as a) multiple iterations offer insights onto the effectiveness of the intervention that a single iteration cannot b) multiple iterations offer space for critical reflection, in order to consider the nature of theory input and output c) the iterative nature of DBR allows for systematic intervention refinement (Swann 2013). The scope of my own research has allowed for two complete iterations of the Talk Skills intervention, conducted over two separate intermediate level L2 conversation classes at Konkuk University Language Institute. After two iterations of development, as noted, the intervention was then trialed on a small scale, by four other teachers working in Korean universities, with their feedback discussed in chapter 9.

4.3 DBR and other approaches

DBR may be compared and contrasted with other methods of research. Bakker and Van Eerde (2015: 7) attempt to compare DBR to other research methods using the distinctions between naturalistic vs. interventionist research and open vs. closed research, see Table 2.
**Table 6 Naturalistic vs. interventionist and open vs. closed research approaches**

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<th>Naturalistic</th>
<th>Interventionist</th>
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<tr>
<td>Closed</td>
<td>Survey: questionnaires with closed questions</td>
<td>Experiment (randomized control trial)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td>Survey: interviews with open questions</td>
<td>Action research</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Ethnography</td>
<td>Design-based research</td>
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As the table shows, neither open and closed surveys nor ethnographic research can be characterized as interventionist, therefore, it is appropriate to compare and contrast DBR with experimental research (randomized control trials) and action research.

### 4.3.1 DBR and Experimental research

In educational experimental research, or randomized control trials (RCT), typically two random sets of students are chosen to be treated either under experimental conditions or control conditions. A pre-test is used to gauge the condition of the students before the experiment and a post test is used to measure the students’ condition after the experiment. The researcher anticipates that students under the experimental conditions will experience a predicted change, while the students under the control conditions will not. The researcher can then attribute the change to the designed intervention. This approach to research is often thought of as the purest method (Slavin 2002). The benefit of RCT is that it is logical and can clearly point to a cause of an effect, giving the educational researcher a picture of what does and doesn’t lead to learning.

However, criticisms of RCT have been made. Firstly, as Bakker and Van Eerde (2015: 8) point out “if we know what works, we still do not know why and when it
works”. To illustrate this point, Bakker and Van Eerde give the example of some experimental research that proved that lessons with warm up activities lead to higher test scores, leading one school to enforce warm up activities in every class. However, in practice “teachers ran out of good ideas for warm-up activities, and that these often had nothing to do with the topic of the lesson. Effectively, teachers therefore lost five minutes of every lesson” (ibid). RCT only investigated one variable, and did not offer the complete picture of the best way to implement warm up activities.

Secondly, experimental research cannot simply implement perfect and successful interventions without extensive research and development into the design of the intervention. Rather than put the design of the intervention into the background of the research, design-based research emerged as a way to formalize the development process. As Bakker and Van Eerde (2015: 9) note “design-based research emerged as a way to address this need of developing new strategies that could solve long-standing or complex problems in education”.

One benefit of RCT is statistical generalization. According to McKenney and Reeves (2013 loc 548), generalization in educational research “concerns being able to transfer theoretical insights and/ or practical interventions to other settings”. The isolation of variables in RCT mean that an intervention can be pointed to as the cause of learning, making generalization possible. However, because DBR is conducted in real world, complex educational settings, other variables are naturally and inevitably intertwined with the intervention. Indeed, this has led the Design Based Research Collective to point out that “claiming success for an educational intervention is a tricky business” (2003: 5). However, this issue is a concern for all qualitative research that does not use the experiment – control comparison, and yet, qualitative research remains popular when studying education. The reason lies in the distinction between two views of causality “a regularity, variance oriented understanding of causality versus a realist, process-oriented understanding of causality” (Bakker & Van Eerde 2015: 9). The first understanding is used by experimental researchers to extract cause from quantitative data. The latter process oriented understanding is used in qualitative research, such as DBR, which uses observations and circumstantial evidence to make claims about
learning. This is necessary because singular events cannot be accounted for by experimental research. As Bakker and Van Eerde note:

“If we were to adopt the same regularity view on causality we would never be able to identify the cause of singular events, for example why a driver hit a tree. From the second, process-oriented view, if a drunk driver hits a tree we can judge the circumstances and judge it plausible that his drunkenness was an important explanation because we know that alcohol can cause less control, slower reaction time etcetera. Similarly, explanations for what happens in classrooms should be possible according to a process-oriented position based on what happens in response to particular interventions.” (2015: 10)

In this way, educational interventionist research such as DBR may fit alongside experimental research to better understand what happens within the classroom and outside of strictly controlled environments.

4.3.2 DBR and action research

DBR can also be compared to action research in that it “identifies real world problems accompanied by subsequent actions to improve the status quo” (The Design Based Research Electronic Performance Support System, hereafter DBR-EPSS 2006). Furthermore, action research is often confused with DBR (Anderson & Shattuck 2012), as both methodologies share many similarities. The similarities are summarized as follows, adapted from Goldkuhl (2013: 5). Both incorporate:

1) striving for utility

2) production of useful knowledge

3) combination of building/acting and evaluation

4) collaboration between researchers and practitioners

5) aiming for development and improvement
6) intervention in a local practice

7) knowledge creation and testing during the process

Both DBR and action research can involve iterations and reflections, and both are pragmatic (Cole et al. 2005). Furthermore, both aim to connect theory with educational practice and in both, teacher can act be researcher.

However, one unique feature of DBR is that DBR researchers approach a project through the “lens of design” (Joseph 2004: 236), the tool that both narrows the focus of DBR questions and is the core perspective from which an intervention is created and refined. In other words, while action research may indeed be used to design artefacts that aim to overcome educational problems, DBR is specifically designed to “target questions central to the design of the intervention itself” (ibid).

A further difference between action research and DBR is that while in DBR, the researcher can act as observer, in action research, the researcher does not act in this capacity (Anderson & Shattuck 2012). Furthermore, “in DBR design is a crucial part of the research, whereas in action research the focus is on action and change, which can but need not involve the design of a new learning environment” (Bakker & Van Eerde 2015: 11). In other words, whereas in action research the focus is in overcoming the local issue, in DBR, the focus is absolutely on intervention design, which evolves to advance understanding of how and why learning occurs (Barab & Squire, 2004). Commonalities and differences are summarized in the following table:
Table 7 Commonalities and differences between DBR and action research (Bakker & Van Eerde 2015: 11)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commonalities</th>
<th>DBR</th>
<th>Action Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open, interventionist, researcher can be participant, reflective cyclic process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Differences</th>
<th>DBR</th>
<th>Action Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Researcher can be observer</td>
<td>Researcher can only be participant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design is necessary</td>
<td>Design is possible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on instructional theory</td>
<td>Focus on action and improvement of a situation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To illustrate my own DBR project, I conduct the Talk Skills intervention as both researcher and participant, working over two cycles of design to refine the design and illustrate its effectiveness and how it can be implemented in my own L2 adult conversation classes in Korea.

4.4 Three core phases of design-based research

The three core phases of design-based research are a) analysis and exploration, b) design and construction, and c) evaluation and reflection. These are outlined in the generic model for conducting design research in education (McKenney & Reeves 2013: loc 1891), discussed as follows.
The first phase of DBR is made up of analysis and exploration, which begins with identifying the educational problem to be researched. Then, literature review is conducted to understand the theoretical background related to the problem and context of research. Input from teachers within the research context may also be sought in order to gain further insight into the scope of the problem. Next, instances in which similar problems have been tackled are identified and explored in order to make initial conceptualization of the intervention and understand the likely scope of the research (McKenney & Reeves 2013).

Regarding this current research, the previous chapters of literature review have outlined this stage of the DBR process. First the research context was outlined and the research problem was defined. Then relevant overarching theories and previous attempts to solve the problem in various educational contexts were explored. Some informal investigative dialogue also occurred between myself and my colleagues, which reinforced the perceived need to improve group talk in the L2 adult learning context in Korea.
Following from the analysis and exploration stage is the design and construction phase. Here, the first iteration of the tentative intervention is designed. This is the creative phase of DBR, which involves a process of “purposeful consideration of available knowledge, as well as puzzling over the relationships and arrangements of concepts” (McKenney & Reeves 2013: loc 1930). Construction follows design, whereby a prototype is generally approximated then created. In fact, for this project, these two phases heavily overlap, for example, it was necessary to creatively adapt the Thinking Together project, designed for the L1 primary context, to be suitable for the adult L2 context, then arrange strategy training sessions in a logical order and construct the sessions with appropriate activities. During this stage, the researcher may be perceived as bricoleur (Gravemeijer 1994), or tinkerer. The process is articulated within the research, with the practical result of the finished intervention in its first iteration, underpinned by theory outlined in the analysis and exploration stage.

Regarding implementation and spread, shown in the trapezoid at the top of the model, McKenney and Reeves (2013: loc 1981) note that the model is use-inspired, meaning that “interaction with practice is present from the start, and that the scope increases over time.” That is to say, practice may begin, for example, with initial discussion with practitioners, and then be realized in the implementation of the intervention. Bakker and Van Eerde (2015: 21) refer to the implementation of the intervention as the teaching experiment phase. This is when the designed activities and/or particular instructional methods are conducted and data is collected. This part of DBR is summarized as follows:

“We do not want to assess innovative material or a theory, but we need prototypical educational materials that could be tested and revised by teachers and researchers, and a domain-specific instruction theory that can be used by others… During a teaching experiment, data collection typically includes student work, tests before and after instruction, field notes, audio recordings of whole-class discussions, and video recordings of every lesson and of the final interviews with students and teachers. We further find ‘mini interviews’ with
students, lasting from about twenty seconds to four minutes very useful provided that they are carried out systematically.”

Bakker and Van Eerde’s concept of teaching experiment will be drawn on to collect data in this research.

The third phase of McKenney and Reeves’ model of DBR is the evaluation and reflection stage. As noted, evaluation may take place on the intervention, i.e. considering what did or did not work; or through the intervention, i.e. analyzing the outcomes of the research. Depending on the scope of the research (to be evaluated periodically in this research), of interest to a design-based researcher may be “soundness, feasibility, local viability, broader institutionalization, immediate effectiveness, and/ or long term impact” (McKenney & Reeves 2013: loc 1922). In line with Swann (2013), this research will focus on formative rather than summative evaluation. Formative evaluation refers to recognizing how the intervention might be improved. Summative evaluation refers to measuring the value of the intervention in various L2 learning contexts, and is beyond the scope of this research. Formative evaluation focuses mainly on the soundness and feasibility of the intervention by finding ways to improve the robustness of the design over the two iterations.

Regarding reflection, systematic consideration must be given to the culmination of research and development in order to enhance and improve both design principles, i.e. how to design the intervention, as well as the intervention itself (McKenney & Reeves 2013). Reflection is done in a cyclical, ongoing way throughout the research timeframe.

4.5 The hypothetical learning trajectory in DBR

More specifically, and especially useful in smaller scale projects such as a PhD thesis, when conducting DBR, Bakker and Van Eerde (2015) foreground the use of the hypothetical learning trajectory (HLT), a research instrument designed to help bridge the gap between theory and practice. A HLT consists of three parts: “the learning goal that defines the direction, the learning activities, and the hypothetical learning process— a
prediction of how the students’ thinking and understanding will evolve in the context of
the learning activities” (Simon 1995: 136). The HLT is informed by both theory and
informed guesswork from teachers and researchers. It can be referred to and used
throughout DBR, when designing, conducting and reflecting on an intervention, and
may develop and change during the DBR process. Bakker and Van Eerde outline the
HLT with regard to mathematics education for each phase of the DBR process. It will be
adapted here to suit my own research needs in the adult L2 research context. The
following outlines the function of the HLT when designing, implementing and reflecting
on an intervention.

4.5.1 Using HLTs to design an intervention

A HLT should first be established by considering how the focus of the research,
in the case of this research - group talk skills, has been approached in previous curricula.
Problems that students may face with group work should be investigated and
consideration given as to what should be learned. This will culminate in tentative L2
learning goals that underpin the initial intervention design and following redesigns. In
this design phase, the researcher’s duty is to formulate “hypotheses about students’
potential learning and about how the teacher would support students’ learning processes”
(ibid: 20). This will be done by asking students and teachers within my given context
how this can be done. As design progresses, tasks are designed and the HLT matures.

At the point of first iteration of the intervention, the HLT will articulate the L2
learning goals, the L2 learner’s starting point for learning, and likely prior understanding
and awareness of group talk for a given activity. It will also be necessary to articulate
“potential learning processes and about how the teacher could support these processes”
(ibid).
4.5.2 Using a HLT when implementing an intervention

The role of the HLT when conducting the teaching experiment is to guide the teacher and researcher towards “what to focus on in teaching, interviewing, and observing” (ibid). As the experiment is conducted the HLT may be referred to and adjusted depending on the outcomes to a given point in the experiment, for example, if learners do not complete a task as predicted, or a particular activity is too difficult. This process is seen as an advantage in DBR – that the intervention is open to adjustment and improvement, and as such should be carefully documented within the research, and ideally based on theory.

4.5.3 Using a HLT for evaluation and reflection

After the teaching experiment, the HLT may guide the researcher towards the analytical focus of the evaluation and reflection. In the previous DBR phases, the HLT has made conjectures about likely learning outcomes, it is the researcher’s role to then “contrast those conjectures with the observations made during the teaching experiment” (ibid: 18).

Referring to the Generic model for conducting design research in education (Figure 3), the HLT can be used to inform the two outputs of DBR, the maturing intervention, and theoretical understanding (McKenney & Reeves 2013). Results of evaluation and reflection can be fed back in to the iterative design process, helping to improve the intervention. If the intended effects of a task recur over iterations, the task may remain as part of the intervention. Equally, if the opposite is true, it may be removed, altered, or replaced. Furthermore, as the HLT – recorded data interface is compared and contrasted, claims regarding theory may be made. For example, when recurring use of certain intended language found in discourse analysis of a given task coincides with insights from teachers and learners, “these generalized patterns in learning or instruction and the insights of how these patterns are supported by instructional means can become part of the emerging instruction theory” (Bakker & Van Eerde 2015: 18). This will be developed further in the next section.
4.6 Retrospective analysis

Bakker and van Eerde (2015), suggest two methods of analysis that can be used to systematize and move a design-based research project forward, the first is a method of research that focuses on the tasks within the intervention and the second focuses on the intervention as a whole. Dierdrop et al.’s (2011) data analysis matrix, shown in Figure 4, has been used successfully to achieve the first aim, to analyse the tasks within an intervention.

**Figure 4 Data analysis matrix for comparing HLT and actual learning trajectory (ALT).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothetical Learning Trajectory</th>
<th>Actual Learning Trajectory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task Number of the task</td>
<td>Transcript of how students would respond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjecture of how students would respond</td>
<td>Clarification of how well the conjecture and actual learning matched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transcript of HLT and ALT: Qualitative impression of how well the conjecture and actual learning matched</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the data analysis matrix, the hypothetical learning trajectory “would include assumptions about students’ potential learning and about how the teacher would support students’ learning processes” (Bakker & van Eerde 2015: 22). The HLT is then compared to the actual learning trajectory to show the extent to which students successfully completed a task. Once task specific analysis has been completed, the comparison can then be used to redesign the intervention. Within the two cycles of analysis, each task in each session was run through the data analysis matrix. This allowed decisions to be made with regard to keeping, revising or disregarding the task,
thereby redesigning the intervention on a task by task bases.

The second approach involves looking at the data in a more longitudinal way, following the data ‘episode-by-episode’. The process is described as follows:

“With the HLT and research questions as guidelines, conjectures about students’ learning and views were generated and documented, and then tested against the other episodes and other data material (student work, field notes, tests). This testing meant looking for confirmation and counter-examples.” (ibid: 23)

Data within this research will include transcript data of the specific tasks, as well as other data, collected using field notes, student interviews, observations, and questionnaires. The methods of data collection will be described in detail in sections 4.9.1-4.9.5.

4.7 Reflection

McKenney and Reeves (2013) state the importance of reflection throughout the process of DBR. The term reflection has many meanings in education (Swann 2013) and must also play an important part in DBR. Part of reflection may be defined as ‘Satori’, a Japanese term which can be translated as a “flash of sudden insight or awareness” (McKenney & Reeves 2013: loc3620). It is referred to as a process of understanding and making connections that should be fostered, with the goal of intervention improvement. Swann notes that it is hard to justify inclusion of satori within a PhD thesis because it is relatively ungrounded, but nevertheless, it may contribute useful insights to development of the intervention.

McKenney and Reeves (2013) then further divide reflection into organic reflection and structured reflection. Organic reflection is loosely defined as deliberately giving yourself some space to contemplate on the intervention and its design. The authors suggest taking well timed breaks, discussing with un-likeminded partners and taking on background projects. Within my own context, this undoubtedly will mean
continuing with my own teaching work and talking to friends and fellow teachers about the project.

Structured reflection, considered to compliment organic reflection, serves to methodically organize reflection on the intervention. McKenney and Reeves draw on the work of Reymen et al. (2006) and Procée and Visscher-Voerman (2004) to shape the structured method of reflection. The method is based on Kant’s ‘four moments’ in judgement, quantity, quality, relation and modality, briefly defined as follows.

- **Quantity** – finding space to note down ideas. This will be done both by keeping a journal of notes and using a smartphone voice recording application to take field notes during the intervention.

- **Quality** – about reflecting on a particular moment in time from a variety of viewpoints.

- **Relation** – involves gaining insight from the points of view of other professional or social relationships.

- **Modality** – a process of meta-reflection to determine the quality of the reflection process itself.

These four methods of reflection form the basis of the model for structured reflection, shown in Table 8, which in turn provides a method of structured reflection on the intervention. As Swann (2013:84) points out, reflection in a PhD thesis differs considerably from that among a team of researchers. Nevertheless, the four strategies method of reflection offers opportunity to “prevent too-narrow interpretations” of results and gain a more structured reflective perspective on the development of the intervention.
**Table 8 Four strategies for structured reflection on educational design**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Preparation</th>
<th>Image forming</th>
<th>Conclusion drawing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Point (quantity)</td>
<td>Identify one or more data points from which unplanned insight may be gleaned and ask a question</td>
<td>Consider/discuss not potential lesson to be learned, but think about experience. Ask not only why questions, but also how and what.</td>
<td>Use the results to formulate new hypotheses, questions for investigation, or revised design ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>induction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line (quality)</td>
<td>Take an observed instance in time and choose a role; distinguish between actor, process, and product in that instance. Consider norms that can relate to each one and choose one or more norms that are suspected to hold importance.</td>
<td>Consider/discuss norm(s) in light of the actual instance in time. Given the intended intervention, how appropriate and useful is it to be governed by these norms?</td>
<td>Decide if norms need to be investigated further, or if changes in the intervention are necessary to reflect better alignment with, for example, pedagogical, cultural or social interaction norms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>norms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triangle (relation)</td>
<td>Select a finding or instance to focus on, and list the different (groups of) people whose perspectives are relevant to the finding or instance; then eliminate the least relevant.</td>
<td>Hypothesise, on the basis of experience and/or data, how these people frame meaning and justify these with examples; then compare them.</td>
<td>What can be learned from “trying on” these other perspectives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perspectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circle (modality) process</td>
<td>Identify the methods that have been used.</td>
<td>Describe issues, questions, or problems that have been ignored or insufficiently addressed by those methods; which ones were addressed well? What made that method work?</td>
<td>What can be done differently? What (more) do we need to investigate in order to make improvements? What can be learned from what did yield “eye-opening” or powerful findings?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.8 Reflexivity

Also of importance in is the concept of reflexivity (Mann 2016), which is narrower in focus than reflection and focusses on awareness of the self. Reflexivity is important in this research as I will be conducting the intervention in my own classroom, meaning that I must be aware of the efforts I make collectively as researcher, designer and teacher to help the intervention succeed. When addressing reflexivity, Mann (2016: 30) points to the need first to clearly define context, a “flexible, dynamic construct which is created by participants and which is constantly shifting”. This definition is preferred over the more traditional view of context as static. As a teacher-researcher, in order to gain a deeper understanding of my own local context, Mann further points to the need to achieve the minimum three conditions: a) that research is conducted in the classroom, b) that as a teacher-researcher, I reflect and act on what I observe and c) I engage in a process of dialogic reflection in order to gain a deeper understanding of the context.

Edge (2011) describes the role of reflexivity as to develop and become better at teaching and researching, by developing a deeper understanding of the processes and experiences of teaching and research. Here, Edge draws on four dimensions of reflexivity, outlined as:

- **Linguistic** – as reflexivity involves reflection on the self, it is important to distinguish the self linguistically as both whole and divisible; the self is “divisible into an ‘I’ and a ‘me’, a subject and an object, a nominative and an accusative” (Edge 2011: 29).
Psychological – reflexivity in the psychological sense should be a process of wondering at and wondering about the chosen role of teacher-researcher.

Philosophical – here, the notion of wondering ‘at’ and ‘about’ is developed into in interactive and mutually shaping process.

Ecological – reflexivity in an ecological sense refers to the awareness of the environment and surroundings, or context, in which reflexivity occurs and a further awareness of the affordances for learning that occur within it.

To sum up, reflexivity, linguistically, psychologically, philosophically and ecologically, is a process of “ongoing, mutually-shaping interaction between the researcher and the research” (Edge 2011: 35). Reflexivity is more specific than reflection and is concerned with the focus on the person doing the reflecting and an awareness of the change brought about on that person through their actions (Francis & Skelton 2008). In this research, reflexivity takes great significance, as I embody a triple role, not only as teacher-researcher, but also as intervention designer. Reflexivity is embodied in the analysis chapters, in my own notetaking on the teaching and learning taking place as well as on the materials that have been designed or chosen. Further processes of introspection and collaborative reflection with my tutor and colleagues also occurs (Finlay 2012). Reflexivity is further developed in the discussion chapters 8 and 9.

4.9 Rigor: Reliability and validity, trustworthiness and authenticity

Design-based research is conducted in the messy and complex classroom context and is indeed specific to its given context. For this reason, it may become difficult to assert causality. Furthermore, DBR does not have any predefined ‘method’ with which to proclaim rigor. Nevertheless, rigor is as important in DBR as any other method of research. Being rigorous in design-based research involves having concern for validity and reliability. Briefly, “validity concerns whether we really measure what we intend to measure. Reliability is about independence of the researcher” (Bakker & van Eerde 2015: 24). To overcome these issues, “reliability of findings and measures can be
promoted through triangulation from multiple data sources, repetition of analyses across cycles of enactment, and use (or creation) of standardized measures or instruments” (Design Based Research Collective 2003: 7). Validity and reliability, as relevant to DBR, are discussed as follows.

Validity can be divided into internal and external validity. The issues of internal validity “refers to the quality of the data and the soundness of the reasoning that has led to the conclusions” (Bakker & van Eerde 2015: 24). To this end, transcripts can provide a meaningful context, and can be compared against other collected data such as field notes and interview data.

External validity refers to the extent to which results are generalizable, or how a designed intervention may be useful to practitioners in other educational contexts. Addressing external reliability means “framing issues as instances of something more general [and] present the results (instruction theory, HLT, educational activities) in such a way that others can adjust them to their local contingencies” (Bakker & van Eerde 2015: 25). A further issue is that of transferability, which is the need to describe how what is better understood through one iteration can be applied in future iterations and, depending on the scope of the research, in other contexts.

Likewise, reliability can be divided into internal and external reliability. Internal reliability refers to “the degree of how independently of the researcher the data are collected and analyzed” (Bakker & van Eerde 2015: 25). This may be addressed using the following methods:

- Discussing data with colleagues.
- Noting the agreements and disagreements when data is discussed among researcher and colleagues.
- When data is coded, it should be ensured that the sampled data be large enough.

Finally, external reliability refers to how “the conclusions of the study should depend on the subjects and conditions, and not on the researcher” (Bakker & van Eerde 2015: 26). This is usually described as virtual replicability, in that it is incumbent on the
researcher to describe research so that it is transparent and trackable to the reader and failures, as well as success are noted.

Schwandt et al. (2007), however, asserts the limitations of applying traditional criteria to judge rigor in the controlled laboratory context to judge inquiry that is based in real world settings. Yet, the move away from the use of traditional criteria to judge rigor have often been criticized as a threat to rigor itself. Nevertheless, it is necessary to admit both the impossibility of applying such criteria and the need to devise a new set of criteria that allow for the maintenance of maximum rigor. The following draws on Guba and Lincoln’s (2007) attempt to address this problem in two ways. They first offer a trustworthiness criterion which ‘‘analogs’ to ‘scientific’ understandings of conventional notions of internal validity (credibility), external validity (transferability), reliability (dependability), and objectivity (neutrality)” (Schwandt et al. 2007: 12). In tandem, Guba and Lincoln also offer four authenticity criteria: fairness, ontological authenticity, educative authenticity, and catalytic authenticity. Both trustworthiness and authenticity will be will be outlined here respectively.

As noted, trustworthiness may be viewed as analog to the traditional concept of rigor. Within the framework of trustworthiness, Guba and Lincoln (2007) first state the need to address issues of credibility, which may be done in a variety of ways, i.e., through a. engaging with phenomena and respondents in a prolonged way b. continued and careful observation of salient elements of inquiry c. triangulating a variety of data d. engaging in discussion of the inquiry with disinterested peers e. looking for cases that are negative to emerging insights, and f. constant checking of information from all stakeholders.

Second, regarding transferability, Guba and Lincoln recommend developing a narrative with the use of thick descriptive data that may be cross checked by others. Finally, inextricably linked are the criteria of dependability and reliability. As research is externally audited, the examination of research results represents judgment of dependability. Likewise, when the product of the research is examined judgment of confirmability may be made.
Alongside a framework of trustworthiness, Guba and Lincoln assert the need for a further criterion of authenticity to be included in naturalistic research conducted in real world settings. Within the framework of authenticity, criteria of fairness, ontological authenticity, educative authenticity, and catalytic authenticity will be respectively discussed as follows.

The criterion of fairness represents the attempt to achieve balance among the pluralistic values of an inquiry. To achieve fairness, a. the different values and their underlying system need to be outlined, particularly when conflict arises within the research. Subsequently, b. there is a need to negotiate “recommendations and subsequent action, carried out with stakeholding groups” (Guba & Lincoln 2007: 21), done so in open and equal manner. c. The need for fairness also means fully informed consent is necessary between all parties to the evaluation of the research. Consent must also be renegotiated as necessary as the research develops. Finally, d. as outlined in the criteria for trustworthiness, a “member-check process” of all interested parties is needed to ensure fairness is present and is being achieved.

The second criteria regarding authenticity is ontological authentication. In this regard Guba and Lincoln (2007) assert the need for consciousness raising among both participants and researchers. In the present research this is done, for example through the making of guidelines for talk. These are decided by students and agreed upon by myself, in the role of teacher (and researcher), achieved through a dialectical process.

The third criteria for authenticity is educative authenticity. This entails a process of mutual appreciation among stakeholders of the views of others and their underlying value systems. Guba and Lincoln further note the need for “gatekeepers who can act to increase the sophistication of their respective constituencies”, in the case of this research, for example, teachers and students.

Catalytic authentication is the final criteria for authenticity. This refers to the need for research to enable action through dissemination (Guba & Lincoln 2007). This strongly parallels the aim of design-based research to bridge the gap between research and practice (McKenney & Reeves 2013). A further point outlined by Guba and Lincoln...
is the need for tactical authenticity, which works to safeguard the effectiveness of the action that is taken.

4.10 Data collection and analysis methods

The following section offers a brief description of the methods of data collection and analysis used in this research. Data is collected using surveys, interviews, field notes and audio recordings. The classroom audio recordings will be analysed using conversation analysis.

4.10.1 Surveys

Students were surveyed at the beginning of the first iteration to gauge the feasibility of the Talk Skills intervention with regard to students’ need for improved discussion skills and their attitude towards different elements of the Talk Skills intervention, for example, making ground rules or being taught strategies. The survey was translated into Korean and piloted before being administered.

Dörnyei (2003) points out the need to be aware of the potential limitations of survey use for data collection. Of those relevant to this research, firstly, while some respondents may put time and effort into their answers, others may be unmotivated to do so, as the process offers no actual benefit. Secondly, while the survey in this research was offered in Korean, the students L1, some respondents may still find the survey questions difficult to understand. Thirdly, the problem of self-deception (Hopkins et al. 1990) may also be relevant, in that students may, for example, deceive themselves into the belief that their L2 is better or worse than it is, meaning answers may not represent truth. Finally, in line with the acquiescence bias (Robinson et al., 1991), students may also simply agree with whatever they perceive sounds best. Providing the survey is well constructed, it will provide a generally reliable and valid source of data (Dörnyei 2003). Nevertheless, an awareness of the potential problems, and where possible, actions to guard against them, such as encouraging students to answer honestly, making clear the
anonymity of the surveys and making clear that responses would not affect any current learning, will help to guard against data misrepresentation.

4.10.2 Interviews

Following recommendations in Bakker and van Eerde (2015), two types of interview were administered during the iterations. The first was a relatively unstructured interview with one or two students at the end of each session of the intervention. These interviews were conducted by myself, in English, to gauge the students’ thoughts about a given session.

The second type of interview took the shape of semi structured interviews conducted at the end of the intervention, to attain an overall view of the intervention from two students each iteration. Each student was offered the use of a bilingual interpreter for the interview, but declined, stating that they were comfortable listening and responding to my questions in English. All interviews were audio recorded using MP3, or smartphone recording devices, then transcribed using Microsoft Word and Windows Media Player.

4.10.3 Field notes

During the designing phase of the intervention and throughout each iteration, I kept my own field notes, which were either audio recorded after sessions of the intervention, or written into a notebook. The field notes were logged systematically (Dörnyei 2007) at the end of each session and covered my thoughts about implementation of the intervention, how I felt the activities were received by the students and potential changes that would benefit the intervention, among other notes. All audio files of recorded field notes were transcribed using Microsoft Word and Windows Media Player.

4.10.4 Classroom recordings and transcriptions

Each session of the intervention was recorded using MP3 recording devices. An MP3 recording device was placed among all pairs or groups of students during each session of the intervention. All classroom interaction of each session was recorded.
Later, audio files were carefully played back and one or two examples of activities, plenaries and other instructional elements of each session were chosen for transcription. When choosing transcripts that would be presented in the thesis, best effort was made to include data that was representational of what generally went on among all groups within the class. Data was transcribed using Microsoft Word and Windows Media Player, using transcription conventions outlined in Ten Have (2007), see Appendix V. Transcriptions of classroom interaction were analysed using conversation analysis (CA) methods. CA as a method for analysing EFL classroom transcription data is outlined in the following section.

**4.10.5 Conversation Analysis for analysing EFL classroom discourse**

A major advantage of CA is that it is able to offer an emic, data driven perspective on the social, interactional nature of language (Sert & Seedhouse 2011). As such, CA aims to “discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of action are generated” (Hutchby & Wooffitt 1998: 94). Taking a CA approach to interaction allows for analysis on a turn by turn basis. This process has shown that turns at talk may operate on a number of levels:

“The utterance is a display of the learner’s analysis of the prior utterance of an interactant; it performs a social action in response and it positions the learner in a social system. It displays an understanding of the current context (sequential, social and L2 classroom context) and also renews it.” (Seedhouse 2005: 178)

As such, Seedhouse points out that turns within the discourse are complex and are used to talk the classroom context in and out of being. In other words, it is through the interaction that context is both shaped and renewed. Students also use their turns to show their position with regard to understanding the context in which they are in. It is essential to consider the sequential environment in which contributions to talk take place and in which participants are interacting, as it forms the interactional environment and therefore, all details of the interaction should be viewed as potentially important. With
regard to the current research, this means that CA can be used as a means to analyse the
turn by turn interaction that takes place during the intervention’s activities.

The incorporation of CA in SLA studies, though, has not been without criticism. Criticisms include “CA is a behavioral discipline while SLA studies is a cognitive
discipline” (Markee 2000: 30), the counter argument being that cognition may be viewed as socially distributed and observable in conversation, and therefore analysable through a CA perspective. One school of thought suggests that SLA is, at least partly, introspective, passive and singular. In this respect CA is not useful, as it cannot analyse what is not observable. He (2004: 573), however, argues that CA does become useful when SLA is considered not as passive and static, rather as “an active process of problem solving”, as is the case with much classroom interaction. This claim is advanced by Schegloff (1991) who argues that sequencing, turn taking and repair may be seen as socially distributed cognition.

A further criticism suggests that CA may be equipped to examine language use, but not language acquisition (Markee 2000). The negation of this claim, while accepting that language use is subsumed by acquisition, asserts that both are inextricably linked and that SLA studies would, in fact, be enriched by “conversational analysis of the sequential and other resources that speakers use to modify each other’s talk and thereby to comprehend and learn new language” (ibid: 32). The enrichment CA offers is in helping us to understand how the language is learned as it is being used.

The view of CA’s contribution to SLA taken in this current research is in line with Markee (2000: 44), who states that “CA can help refine insights into how the structure of conversation can be used by learners as a means of getting comprehended input and producing comprehended output.” Furthermore, the language learning classroom with language as both the means and the goal of the class, coupled with learners who are not fully proficient in the language, make language classroom participants “display of and orientation towards understanding... critical to the overall purpose and outcome of the talk itself” (Huth 2011: 300).

CA, then, may better our understanding of SLA, in as much as analysis is able to take on an emic perspective of participants’ interactional practices, describe them using fine grained transcripts, use such transcripts to identify evidence of learning and
understanding as they occur in conversational behavior and in doing so, add to our understanding of the social interaction hypothesis (Markee 2000).

This current research aims to use applied CA (Kasper & Wagner 2014) as a means of understanding how students interpret the activities within the talk skills intervention and illustrate the extent to which the hypothetical, planned learning trajectory of each of the activities met their respective actual learning trajectories when the activities were carried out by the students. Using CA in this research then, offers an attempt to gain insight into interaction within the given activities of the intervention, by attempting to show whether such interaction, among the members of the classroom is “‘doing’ what we expect [it] to, and how?” (Huth 2011: 300).

4.1 Context of data collection

Data were collected in my intermediate ‘English Conversation with Reading’ class at Konkuk University Language Institute in Seoul. ‘English Conversation with Reading’ is an independent 10-week course, in which students enrol independently each semester. The course is taught twice a year during spring and fall semesters from 7.50-8.40 a.m., Monday – Thursday with a one week break during midterm exams. The class level chosen for analysis was intermediate, as Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) have shown that this is the level at which students’ strategy use grows the fastest and the point at which students in their study reported the most strategy use. The course combines using a discussion based textbook with discussing current news articles. The aim of the course is to offer students opportunity to improve English conversation skills through classroom discussion. Students pay to attend the course and attendance is encouraged but non-mandatory. This means that inevitably, some students will either stop coming due to other commitments in their lives or attend sporadically during the course, while others will attend relatively consistently. Some students also join the class after the first day, but usually not later than the second week.

I have taught the class for more than 9 years and have often looked for methods of improving the way students talk to each other when they discuss issues in the class using their L2. The intervention developed in this research was born from the same such desire. The intervention was developed over two iterations, meaning it was implemented
in two courses. Each intermediate course ran independently, containing a unique set of students. The intervention contained 10 one class sessions, each session contained 2-5 activities. During and after the first iteration, I used the design-based research methodology to either systematically improve a given activity within the intervention or look for success of a given activity over both iterations. The following tables offer a summary of the intervention as it was implemented over the two courses, showing the title of each session in the intervention, the date of each session and the number of students that attended each session (each student represented by a random letter).
Table 9 Summary of intervention first cycle

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session title</th>
<th>Date of session</th>
<th>Students in attendance (student represented by random letter)</th>
<th>Group(s) chosen for transcription</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phase 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the need to talk and listen in language class</td>
<td>17th March 2015</td>
<td>PENJCAHF</td>
<td>FAH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to work effectively in a group</td>
<td>18th March 2015</td>
<td>HAEMFPNJ</td>
<td>PHJAH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phase 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejoiners and Follow up questions</td>
<td>23rd March 2015</td>
<td>LHMFJN</td>
<td>HMML</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td>25th March 2015</td>
<td>AJCPNHSF</td>
<td>HNPC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension checks</td>
<td>30th April 2015</td>
<td>EDHPFNSJL</td>
<td>PLN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for Help</td>
<td>2nd April 2015</td>
<td>NDHP</td>
<td>HPHPND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for details</td>
<td>6th April 2015</td>
<td>NDHLPJFE</td>
<td>PJ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging each other</td>
<td>9th April 2015</td>
<td>ANHLFPD</td>
<td>HNAANHLFPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreeing</td>
<td>13th April 2015</td>
<td>JFLN</td>
<td>LNL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving Opinions</td>
<td>22nd April 2015</td>
<td>JFLPD</td>
<td>LPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session title</td>
<td>Date of session</td>
<td>Students in attendance (student represented by random letter)</td>
<td>Group chosen for transcription</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phase 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the need to talk and listen in language class</td>
<td>15&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Sept. 2015</td>
<td>M B G S Y A</td>
<td>M G B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to work effectively in a group</td>
<td>16&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Sept. 2015</td>
<td>H J M B S E A</td>
<td>E S A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phase 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejoinders and Follow up questions</td>
<td>22&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Sept. 2015</td>
<td>A J H B M D G</td>
<td>M D H B G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td>30&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Sept. 2015</td>
<td>A J M B</td>
<td>A J B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension checks</td>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Oct. 2015</td>
<td>S D M</td>
<td>S D M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for Help</td>
<td>12&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Oct. 2015</td>
<td>M D S A</td>
<td>A S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for details</td>
<td>26&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Oct. 2015</td>
<td>M D S J D</td>
<td>D M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging each other</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Nov. 2015</td>
<td>J D S H</td>
<td>S H J D S H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreeing</td>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Nov. 2015</td>
<td>A S M D J</td>
<td>S A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving Opinions</td>
<td>11&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Nov. 2015</td>
<td>J H M S A</td>
<td>J H M</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.12 Research ethics**

The design-based research in this project is a type of qualitative classroom research that directly involves students in real language learning contexts. As has been shown in similar types of qualitative research (e.g. Khurram 2015), ethical
considerations must be given regarding, for example, the receiving of informed consent from the students, how to insure anonymity when using data related to the participants and how to build and maintain communication between myself as teacher/researcher and the students.

In this thesis, the students are protected by means of an informed consent, which is a type of ‘procedural ethics’ (Guillemin & Gillam 2004), as it is approved by the Warwick University ethics committee and is important because it informs participants of the research project and their role within it (Nagy Hesse-Biber & Leavy 2011). In this study, the informed consent letter was adapted from a generic Warwick University template to be relevant to my own project. Examples of ethical consent forms signed by students of iterations 1 and 2 are offered in Appendix III. By signing the letter, students agreed that their participation is voluntary and that they were free to opt out at any time during the study. Students were also informed that the collected data would be used strictly for the purposes of this study and may be published in educational journals. To address the issue of anonymity (Wiles et al. 2008), students were also informed that their real names would not be used in any part of the research so as it would not be possible to identify any given participant. In practice, this meant that all transcripts used random letters of the alphabet in replace of names. In this research, all students in both the first and second iteration agreed to participate in the study. All students agreed that this was a suitable level of anonymity.

As the intervention started and classroom interaction would, therefore, be recorded from the second day of the course, it was decided that on the first day the students would be invited to sign the informed consent letter. At that time, students were given an oral presentation about the project, its length, intentions and predicted outcomes. Student were then given a chance to read the letter and space was offered to address any concerns the participants had before signing the letter and before the beginning of the intervention.

In counterpart to procedural ethics, it is important for qualitative research to consider ethics in practice (Guillemin & Gillam 2004), which refers to the researcher
critically reflecting upon and taking care of ethical issues as they arise in the day to day undertaking of the research. I kept field notes during each iteration of the intervention, in part to critically reflect on and address ethical issues of the research, with reference to the ethical guidelines offered by the British Association of Applied Linguistics (2016).

The two major elements of data collection that affected the students during day to day running of the course were the audio recordings and student interviews. During the intervention sessions, all groups of students were audio recorded by placing an mp3 recording device on a desk in the middle of the group. At the beginning of the course, I made sure each student was comfortable being recorded in this way by asking each student directly. I felt that students quickly became used to and comfortable with the mp3 devices and that they did not interfere with classroom learning. This was reiterated in my own field notes, in which I noted in the third day of the course that “students seem fine being recorded”.

Regarding the student post session interviews, I invited one or two students to talk for 1 to 4 minutes after each session to reflect upon the activities and the session as a whole. I made sure students understood that the interviews were optional and were intended to gain student feedback on the intervention only. During the interviews, I made effort to strike the balance between questioning in a non-threatening and non-coercive manner and questioning in such a way that I could get useful feedback from the students. The same approach was taken with the final, post course interviews.

Finally, I made effort to make myself available both during and after the course for students to contact me at any time to privately discuss any part of the course. To do so, I gave students my phone number, email and Kakao Talk ID (a Korean messaging application) at the beginning of the course with instructions to contact me at any time if they wished to do so.
CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS 1: STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF ADULT L2 CLASSROOM DISCUSSION

Part of this design-based research study was to investigate the feasibility of the Talk Skills intervention to improve the way students discussed in groups. Literature review of L2 classroom talk explored in the previous chapters of this thesis has pointed to the value of engaging in exploratory talk for language learning in the L2 classroom and suggested the potential need for guiding students to improve their classroom discussion. The literature review has also pointed to successful L2 classroom interventions that raise awareness of effective classroom talk and train students in the use of communicative strategies. However, to gauge likelihood of the Talk Skills intervention succeeding in my own educational context, this short chapter presents a needs analysis of 26 students (the intermediate and high intermediate classes that were running at the time) at Konkuk University Language Institute. The students were surveyed using the survey instrument in Appendix II, to find out their perceptions of discussion in L2 classrooms and their openness towards an intervention designed to improve student L2 classroom discussion. The needs analysis was conducted before the first iteration of the intervention and acts as a precursor to the next two chapters of analysis. The results are discussed as follows.

Bearing in mind the potential limitations outlined by Hopkins et al. (1990), that students may be deceiving themselves that their discussion skills are weaker than they are, or indeed that students may simply be noting what they want the survey administrator (myself) to hear (Robinson et al., 1991), students were encouraged to answer honestly and it was clearly explained that a) the survey was anonymous and b) that the responses would not affect their current learning in any negative way.

The students surveyed had a positive attitude towards using group discussion in
their classes. 77% of students replied that they had a favorable or very favorable attitude towards group discussion in L2 classes. Furthermore, 87.4% of students also perceived themselves as having average, weak or very weak discussion skills, suggesting a potential need for helping students improve their L2 discussion. Some of the challenges that students responded they encountered when talking in a group included the following:

- To elaborate using more detail
- Speaking logically
- Using exact expressions to make others understand
- Speaking more
- Learning new patterns for conversation
- Making full sentences, making them longer
- Not pausing in English conversation

The challenges that students find during group discussion noted above, are those that would be addressed with a Talk Skills intervention aimed at improving their talk.

Students were then asked about the extent to which they trust and respect their classmates in English class. While the majority of classmates felt they trusted their classmates the right amount (53.8%) or a little too much (34.6%), with regard to respect, the majority of responses were that the students respected their classmates a little too much (69.2%), or too much (19.2%). Students perceptions of respect towards each other falls in line with the research on Korean students and oral interaction, that describes a somewhat passive learning style and that conforms to societal Confucian ideals of respect for elders that may problematize communicative language teaching (Finch 2013; Park 2012; Lim & Griffith 2003). This would suggest that such learners may benefit from help creating an environment conducive to asking a lot of questions, taking risks and challenging each other within their talk. This would also suggest that the learners may benefit from learning strategies for asking questions and challenging each other.
Next, students were asked more specifically about the concepts that would form the first iteration of the intervention. When asked about their attitude towards their class creating ground rules for talking in a group, most students responded positively. Some students felt that they were unsure (26.9%), however, the majority of students felt that this was either a good idea (57.7%), or a very good idea (11.5%). Students also responded positively to the idea of learning specific strategies aimed at helping them to talk more effectively in a group. All students felt that this would have at least some impact on their learning. 65.4% of students felt that this would be useful and 26.9% felt that this would be very useful.

Regarding each specific strategy intended to go in the first iteration of the intervention, students were asked about their perceived ability to use particular strategies that form exploratory talk for language learning. Their responses are summarized in the following table:


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Excellent %</th>
<th>Good %</th>
<th>Fair %</th>
<th>Somewhat Poor %</th>
<th>Poor %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Using follow up questions</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Requesting and giving clarification</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Checking for comprehension</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Asking for help</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Asking for more details</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Challenging an opinion</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Disagreeing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Volunteering an answer</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Elaborating</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using Bejarano’s (1997) distinction between modified interaction strategies (2, 3, 4) and social interaction strategies (1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9), students perceived their modified interaction strategies to be relatively better than their social interaction strategies. That is to say students perceived that they have developed at least some strategies for requesting and giving clarification, checking for comprehension and asking for help. These are the strategies that help L2 learners overcome linguistic problems that arise when talking in their L2.
The students felt that they were relatively weaker in using social interaction strategies i.e. 1, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9. These are the strategies that are needed to facilitate engagement in exploratory talk for language earning, which would suggest that more effort may need to be put on developing these strategies among the learners within the intervention.

Overall, students’ perceived weakness in L2 discussion skills and their openness to a) awareness raising of effective talk through making ground rules and b) learning ways to improve their group discussion, suggests that implementing the Talk Skills intervention is feasible in the context of Korean adult L2 classroom learning. The following two chapters analyse the development of the Talk Skills intervention across two iterations.
6.1 Introduction to the Talk Skills intervention analysis

To describe and analyse this Talk Skills intervention, it is necessary to break the intervention into two phases. Phase 1 comprises of two sessions offered to students in days two and three of the course that were aimed at raising awareness of the need to talk and listen in English conversation class and which culminated in the making of ground rules for talk. Phase 2 of the intervention covers the eight talk strategy sessions that were conducted during the semester. The following sections will describe and analyse phases 1 and 2 respectively.

6.2 Phase 1 of Talk Skills intervention: Intended to realized version

My initial plan for phase 1 of the intervention was to closely follow the first five lessons outlined in the first half of the Thinking Together project (Dawes et al. 2003), which were:

Lesson 1: Talk about talk
Lesson 2: Talking in groups
Lesson 3: Deciding on ground rules
Lesson 4: Using the ground rules
Lesson 5: Reasoning with the ground rules

Activities from these five lessons were selected either verbatim, or adapted or expanded upon, and further activities were added in order to create the predicted phase 1 cycle of the intervention that was initially intended to run over 4 class periods. The predicted
phase 1 is outlined in Appendix I.

The four lessons were drawn up prior to the first day of class. However, I decided to make changes to the planned phase 1 cycle after the first day of class and prior to the beginning of the intervention. The reason for the revision is that after meeting the students on the first day, it was clear that they were highly motivated to study English. I feared that running the intervention over four days would mean that too much unnecessary class time would be spent achieving the aim of making class ground rules. This was reiterated in my field notes directly after the first session, in which I stated that I “need to cut down the sessions”. Therefore, phase 1 of the intervention was readjusted into a two-day cycle. The intended phase 1 of the talk skills intervention is also offered in Appendix I.

During lesson 1, a pre-intervention discussion was included to understand and gauge students’ level rather than contribute to the lesson aims. This lasted longer than anticipated and was not an integral part of phase 1 of the intervention. This will not be included in the second cycle of the intervention and will not be analysed as part of the intervention. However, because the discussion lasted longer than anticipated, only exercises 1 and 2 were completed during lesson 1. Rather than scrap the remaining exercises, I decided to move exercise 4, ‘Question and answer memory activity to raise awareness of the importance for listening’, to the beginning of lesson 2, and delete the exercise that asked students to describe talk words.

Lesson 2 then began with the ‘Question and answer memory activity to raise awareness of the importance of listening’. This was followed by the intended exercises 1, 2 and 3. Because of a lack of time, the intended exercise 4 ‘Practice using ground rules by discussing “What would you do...?” dilemmas’ was not completed and was also left out of the first cycle of phase 1 of the intervention. The realized phase 1 of the Talk Skills intervention is shown in Appendix I. The following sections will analyse tasks using the adapted version of Dierdrop et al.’s (2011) data analysis matrix, noted in section 4.6, which contrasts the hypothetical learning trajectory: a description of the task, along with conjecture of how students would respond to its implementation, with
the actual learning trajectory, illustrated using transcripts, field notes and student interviews, to give a qualitative impression of how well the conjecture and actual learning matched for a given activity.

In presenting the analysis, two methods were employed to preserve space. Firstly, a loose distinction was made between activities that were deemed ‘insightful’ and those that ‘functioned as planned’. For all insightful activities, in depth analysis will be presented. It was decided that this would be offered for an activity if a) the activity provided an interesting illustration of how students were using the intervention for learning purposes or b) an activity was deemed to be weak and in need of improvement. For the activities that simply functioned as planned, it was deemed unnecessary to provide in depth analysis within the chapters. Instead, only a summary of the success of the activity is offered. Secondly, while in depth analysis using the data analysis matrix was conducted for each activity in the intervention, it was deemed unfeasible to present this in full in the following two chapters. Therefore, for other selected activities, a more concise summary of the analytic process is offered.

Each session will be organized as follows: a screenshot image of the activities for each session will show the formulation the tasks. This will be followed by analysis of insightful activities using the data analysis matrix and summaries of the other activities that functioned as planned. As noted in section 4.9.4, data was chosen on the basis that it best represents what generally took place within each class.
6.3 Analysis of intervention Phase 1

Phase 1 Lesson 1 ‘Talk about talk’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 1 Session 1

Lesson 1 ‘Talk about Talk’

Exercise 1

Discuss the following questions in groups, then be prepared to share your answers with the class.

1. Are you good at talking in your first language?
2. Who do you know that is easy to talk to? Can you say why?
3. What tasks can people do by talking to each other?
4. Are you good at talking in English? Why or why not?
5. In your other English classes, did you talk a lot or a little?
6. Why is it useful to talk and to listen in your everyday life?
7. Why is it useful to talk and listen in your English lessons?

Exercise 2

Brainstorm all the words related to talk you can think of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words associated with talk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>talk describe say …</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise 1 Discussion about the importance of talk

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

In this exercise, adapted from Dawes et al. (2003), it was anticipated that students would a) be able to talk at reasonable length about talking in their first language, their own talking style and understand and explain the things they can accomplish in their lives through talk and b) be able to discuss and understand the importance of talking and listening in language class through the questions. Halbach (2015) used a similar activity as part of her own intervention study, which showed that awareness raising in L2 classes has a positive effect of language learning.

It was further predicted that students would realize, in line with the interdependence hypothesis (Cummins 1979), that interacting skills in their first language, such as giving opinions or asking for clarification, are transferrable. Furthermore, talking about personal experiences has been shown to be a successful language learning technique (Taylor 1992).

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Working in groups of two or three, students found the questions in this activity difficult to understand and often misinterpreted the intended answers, as shown in Excerpt 1, showing group talk among F, H, A and teacher.

Excerpt 1

31. H: who do you know that is easy to talk to? can you say who
32. (.) who do you know.
33. F: who do you know? what?
34. A: who do you know. i think yoo jae suk?
35. F: uh easy. easy to talk to? uh, i think, ;jon jo young.
In Excerpt 1, the intention of the question was for students to discuss people in their real lives that they are able to talk easily with and, therefore, to think about things that make talking with that person easy – they have lots of things to say, or they are interesting, for example. However, students were somewhat confused to talk about talking in their first language and reinterpreted the question to ask them to name famous people that talk well.

Excerpt 2 shows one group, students F, H and A, changing a question from asking about what tasks people can do with language, to “What topic do you usually talking with your friends?”

**Excerpt 2**

38. H: okay. what tasks can people do by talking to each other.
39. i think this question is uh, what topic is (. ) what topic
40. can people do by talking each other? what topic do you
41. usually (. ) talking with your friends.
42. F: lol? league of legends. computer game.
43. H: you, you a ↑ game addict.
44. F: no, no. or, or another woman.
45. A: you have a girlfriend?
46. F: yeah, i have a girlfriend. uh i’m not talking, but my
47. friends talk the women hhhaha (. ) i just hear.

In line 38, H did not understand the somewhat abstract question and reformulated it to a more generic and easier one about topics discussed with friends. This meant other group members were able to formulate their own answers and contribute to the discussion.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**
That the questions were difficult for the students was reinforced in the post class interview with H, in which she states:

_Um I think, our group think that these questions is very difficult to thinking because it is not a not usually thinking think in first language and speak English is very hard... Yes, it’s difficult to answer the questions, so we make another question in our group and talking each other._

As such, the HLT did not match the ALT well. Therefore, in the second iteration, the questions will be simplified and revised to focus on eliciting from students the characteristics of successful L2 talk only. Furthermore, time will be allocated for a plenary to report the results of the group discussions and raise any interesting points.

**Exercise 2 Brainstorm words associated with talk**

**Summary**

This brainstorming activity was adapted from Dawes et al. (2003). Given that brainstorming is a recognized creative exercise that can develop thinking skills in L2 learners (Houston 2006), students were asked to brainstorm words associated with talk. Students successfully worked together to brainstorm a combined list of 32 words associated with talk. In the post session interview when asked whether it was good to learn words about talking, student H replied ‘yes’ and P replied ‘very useful’. I also noted the following in my own field notes:

_They seemed to enjoy the brainstorming of the language words and that was quite helpful to think about talk and it seemed to raise some awareness of talking about talk._

The notes and interviews reiterated that this exercise successfully met its aim, to raise students’ awareness of talk.
Lesson 2: How to Work Effectively in a Group

Exercise 1

Spend a few minutes thinking about your own answers to the questions in the table. Then interview your partner. Do not write down the answers, but listen carefully and try to remember as much as you can. Be prepared to report back to the class.

Things you do indoors and outdoors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your favorite thing to do at home?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What activities do you like to do with your friends?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where do you like to hang out with your friends?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you like to do in your free time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who is your favorite person to talk to? Why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What’s your favorite restaurant? Why?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the activity, be prepared to answer this question:

Who was good at listening? Why?

Exercise 2

Discuss the following questions in your group

1. Describe an effective group discussion you have had. Why was it good?
2. Now describe a poor group discussion you have had. Why was it not effective?
Exercise 3

*In your group brainstorm the characteristics of a good discussion. Can you think of five or more characteristics? Add them in the box below.*

*A good discussion has the following characteristics:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of effective group talk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• everyone listens actively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• people ask questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• people share relevant information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ideas may be challenged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• reasons are given for challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• contributions build on what has gone before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• everyone is encouraged to contribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ideas and opinions treated with respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• there is an atmosphere of trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• there is a sense of shared purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the group seeks agreement for joint decisions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Ground Rules for Talk**

Thinking about the characteristics of good group talk and the advantages of group work, now brainstorm a list of five ‘Ground Rules’ for when you talk in a group in your English class. These rules will help you to talk effectively in English, in your groups:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules for talking in a group</th>
<th>Reason why this would help us to talk better in a group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise 1 Question and Answer memory activity to raise awareness of the importance of listening

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

This exercise was designed by myself, with the purpose of raising awareness of the need to listen carefully for information when talking in a group. Cross (2010: 281) has shown that enhancing L2 learners’ metacognitive awareness of listening plays a beneficial role in “accelerating listening skill development and empowering listener autonomy.” It was anticipated that this activity would help to achieve this aim by encouraging students to remember interview information.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

As noted, this activity was completed on the second day because the discussion activity in lesson 1 overran. Although it functioned well, I believe it would be better placed in lesson 1 so that awareness raising of talking and listening can be combined and emphasized as important together. During the on-task phase, students could easily discuss the questions together and use the activity to share information about themselves. Once the on-task phase had finished, T began the plenary by asking students to share what they had found out about their partner, illustrated in Excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3

118. T: ...um, what about j, where does she like to hang out with her friends.
119. J: uh, i’m not yet.
120. T: oh you didn’t talk yet. ok, in that case, tell us about j’s activities, what does she like to do with her friends.
121. H: uh she goes to café, uh talk with her friends.
In line 118, T is asking H to share where J hangs out with her friends. Although students were given approximately five minutes for on task discussion, the students represented in Excerpt 3 only completed the first two questions. This is evident in line 120 in which J points out that she hasn’t given an answer to this question yet. This is an example of why the teacher must be aware of allowing enough time for students to complete the task. This is in line with Hinds (1999: 205), who has shown that teacher, as expert, may have “a cognitive handicap that leads to underestimating the difficulty novices face” in completing a task. Nevertheless, as teacher quizzed the students about their group members’ habits, the students were successfully able to remember information about their respective partners.

At the end of this part of the plenary, teacher T moved on to ask the whole group who was good at listening. Excerpt 4 illustrates this teacher fronted plenary phase.

**Excerpt 4**

126. T: ok, ok. good, good. ok, in your groups, who was good at
127. listening? who was a good listener? (2) ok.
128. ((laughter))
129. T: was everybody a good listener?
130. H: “everybody”
131. T: what, what hhhhh. can you explain why? can you explain
132. why? what were the good listening skills?
133. H: they remember me.
134. ((laughter))
135. T: so they were interested in you?
137. T: yeah right right. that’s good.
138. J: waiting?
139. T: yeah, waiting, yeah, yeah. not interrupting.
J: yes.
A: they can sometimes read my mind . i don’t know it.
T: oh making suggestions?
((laughter))
T: or do you mean=
A: =ah yes, yes.
T: ah that’s really important, yes. ah good. reading your
mind haha, ok. any other skill?
H: and my team have some ;curiosity.
T: ah yeah.
H: with my words.

By asking the group who was good at listening and why, T elicited from students responses such as that they remembered their partner’s information, they waited and did not interrupt, they made suggestions and they had curiosity. This was an important part of the activity as it served to raise awareness of good listening skills through student answers and teacher recasts.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

During student interviews after this lesson, both students agreed that this activity was useful. H further stated: ‘I learn about other’s skills of English’, suggesting that the activity served to raise her awareness of the listening ability of the other learners in the class. This suggests the HLT successfully matched the ALT, as students could both practice listening and raise awareness of good listening skills by coming to their own conclusions of what makes a good listener.
Exercise 2 Discuss examples of effective and poor previous group discussions

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

In this exercise, adapted from Emmerson and Hamilton (2005), the questions were formulated, as an opportunity for students to share experiences of group work. Ghaye (2011: 1) has shown that reflecting on such learning experiences helps learners to “understand the links between what we do (what we can call our practice) and how we might improve our effectiveness”. The exercise is not explicitly asking for group discussion in English lessons. Instead, it was anticipated that students would share experiences from their first language (and possibly L2) classes, assuming that the learners would easily understand that the skills needed for effective discussion in an L1, such as giving opinions, are transferrable into L2 discussion (Cummins 1979).

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 5 illustrates group talk in which J and H discuss J’s group talk experience in her major, design.

**Excerpt 5**

175. J: uh for me, for in my major group discussion=
176. H: =yes.
177. J: we discussion, we discussion for design (.) uh it is very
178. important to uh (.) personal opinion. so we discussion
179. very, very many times and no one person opinion. uh so we
180. many discussion people is make. it is very important.

J is explaining that giving personal opinion was important in her major class
discussions, an example of good group discussion technique. Here, the activity is also functioning as a lead in to the following activities that raise awareness of the characteristics of effective group discussion.

Excerpt 6 shows P discussing bad group talk characteristics with teacher.

**Excerpt 6**

211. T: what are you talking about here? bad discussion (.) yes.
212. P: i think uh interrupting, interrupting in other talking.
213. T: oh yeah (.) everybody interrupts. yeah, everybody
214. interrupts yeah.
215. P: interrupting in other people talking time.
216. T: yeah.
217. P: is very terrible manner in discussion.
218. T: okay.
219. P: i know.
220. T: yeah yeah (.) too much interrupting is quite rude i think.
221. P: very rude.

In line 212, P offers an example of interrupting as poor group discussion technique. T agrees that too much interrupting is bad for effective group discussion (in line with the concept of disputational talk as ineffective), followed by a short discussion on this point.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

The aim of the task was for each student to give a concrete example of a specific group discussion they have had in order to highlight good and bad group talk. However, as shown in Excerpt 6, students reinterpreted this to mean describe general characteristics of good and bad group discussion. In my field note data I did not see a problem with this, noting: “In the second activity students came up with a lot of points,
which was good.” Therefore, while there is some misalignment between the HLT and the ALT, the overall aim, to raise awareness of good and bad group talk is achieved.

**Exercise 3 Brainstorm characteristics of effective group discussions**

**Summary**

This is a relatively simple brainstorming activity, adapted from Dawes et al. (2003), aiming at co-construction of metacognitive awareness of exploratory talk for language learning, mediated through peer to peer dialogue (Cross 2010). Students had little difficulty in generating ideas of what would make effective group discussions, given that the previous exercise offered opportunity for the students to talk about their experiences of effective group discussion. After students brainstormed ideas in their groups, the whole group plenary was used to collectively share the following ideas:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>have a positive attitude</th>
<th>react</th>
<th>use active listening</th>
<th>don’t hesitate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be open minded</td>
<td>be engaged</td>
<td>don’t interrupt</td>
<td>concentrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focus</td>
<td>listen carefully</td>
<td>make good conclusions</td>
<td>show interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have creative ideas</td>
<td>give a variety of opinions</td>
<td>be considerate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After students generated this list, I handed out the characteristics of good group talk and briefly read and explained each point as a means of bolstering student knowledge of effective group talk. I believe the ALT for this activity met the HLT, to successfully raise awareness of effective group talk, as students both succeeded in generating the characteristics of good group talk and were introduced to the theoretical concepts of exploratory talk.

**Exercise 4 Ground rules activity: Use knowledge from Exercise 3 to generate ground rules in groups and use the best rules from each group to generate a class list of ground rules**
Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

I had some concern that students, as adults, would not take this activity very seriously and potentially view the activity as unnecessary, especially given that the activity, making rules, was originally intended for primary level L1 learners (Dawes et al. 2003). However, I did not anticipate that the students would find the activity overly challenging, as the activity is designed as an extension of the previous activity and a case of arranging and rewording the pre-discussed characteristics of effective group talk into a set of reasoned rules.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification, qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

Excerpt 7 illustrates two students, A and H, finalizing their five group rules and giving reasons for their choices. This pair began by making their list of five rules and later adding the reasons.

Excerpt 7

23. H: okay, and um (1) concentrate, concentrate, like,
24. concentrate
25. A: other opinion?
26. H: ((speaks korean)) concentration
27. A: to discuss?
28. H: ((overhears teacher saying “focus on the topic” with another group)) ah focus on the topic. and (. ) trust each
29. other. trust each other.
32. H: supporting ideas.
33. T: yeah, yeah have many ideas (.) give many ideas. give many ideas. that’s a good one give many ideas, yeah, yeah.
34. good, yeah, okay.
35. A: don’t hesitate to give speech. speak? speech?
36. H: ((reading instructions)) why is that important? ok respect each other (0.5) why is that important.
37. A: if you not=
38. H: =okay, it make, it makes member feel better.
39. A: mm.
40. H: it makes feel better. listen actively. speaker can, speaker can have confidence. (        ) give space to our group.

Here, the students generate rules including concentrate, focus on the topic, give many ideas, don’t hesitate and respect each other. Students then give reasons for their rules, for example, in line 40, H states that respecting each other is important because “it makes member feel better”. In line 42, H offers a reason why it is important to listen actively – “speaker can have confidence”. In the plenary stage of the activity, students were then asked to choose their top two rules, which were noted by teacher and used to create copies the following poster, copies of which were put up on the walls of the classroom:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Our Ground Rules for Talk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Everyone listens actively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ask many questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Focus on the topic when talking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Accept and encourage each other’s opinions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- Respect each other
- Give space (thinking time) to our group members

A printed copy of the rules was also distributed to each student. The rules represent students’ “shared understanding” (Dawes 2012: 3) of expectations for discussion.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

During the student interviews directly after the class, F suggested that the rules would help the ‘intensity’ of the discussion, while H noted:

‘We shared... the many opinion of the discussions way. So, I, I think the variety of ways do discussion.’

Here H suggests that the ground rules activity raised awareness of the various aspects of discussion that are needed for it to be successful. Furthermore, in the post course interview, P commented:

‘First class we made that rules, and that thought is based on after class, up till now, so that is good to make atmosphere to discuss or conversation, conversate other people.’

Here he suggested that the ground rules helped to create good atmosphere for discussion. In the second post course interview, F made the following comments on the ground rules activities:

*I like that because of ground rule is we make, is that we make a rule... We made it, yeah, by myself... Uh, every time, every time I think the ground rule and I follow the rule... I can, I can ch- I can have [pause] yes, I have many chance for speaking English sentence. Yeah [pause] And more, I can say more detail.”*

Here F notes that the ground rules were beneficial because they were created by the students themselves and that he could recall and follow the rules during class.
discussions. He also noted that within the class discussions, as a result of the ground rules, he felt as though he had much opportunity for discussion and speaking in more detail.

In sum, the HLT successfully matched the ALT, as the adult learners in this class were both capable of making ground rules and taking the process seriously, and found them useful with regard to their classroom discussions. The ground rules activity represents the final task in phase 1 of the intervention. The following section offers analysis of phase 2.

6.4 Analysis of intervention Phase 2

In the attempt to improve the way L2 learners talk in groups, phase 1 of the Talk Skills intervention was complemented with a second phase, which focused on improving individual oral communicative strategies. The second phase was created by drawing on various formal research into strategy training (Bejarano et al. 1997; Lam 2006; Nakatami 2005; Naughton 2006), EFL/ESL website activities and published strategy training textbooks (e.g. Kehe & Kehe 2013) to create eight strategy training lessons. The strategy training lessons were each designed to train the various characteristic skills needed to engage in exploratory talk for language learning. My own model of strategies to be taught in the Talk Skills intervention are as follows:

Table 12 The Talk Skills project model of oral communicative strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of strategy</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rejoinders and follow up questions</td>
<td>Rejoinders show that a speaker is listening, understanding and are interested in the preceding turn. Follow up questions keep the conversation going and show that we are interested in the talk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for and giving clarification</td>
<td>Asking for clarification is a way of clearing up misunderstanding and keeping a conversation flowing smoothly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Checking for comprehension</strong></td>
<td>Checking for comprehension is a way for the speaker to check that their fellow interlocutors understand what is being said and attempts to prevent breakdown in communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Asking for help</strong></td>
<td>Asking for help is a way for the speaker to overcome the problem of not knowing a word or phrase ‘in the moment’ by asking fellow interlocutors for help finding the word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Asking for more details</strong></td>
<td>Asking for more details is a way for interlocutors to ask for and receive more information on a topic during talk and, therefore, have richer, longer and more interesting discussions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenging and justifying</strong></td>
<td>This strategy encourages speakers to both challenge the assertions of other speakers and justify their own assertions. This strategy is important for making progress in discussions, understanding a topic and reaching agreement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disagreeing</strong></td>
<td>Disagreeing helps the speaker to show their fellow interlocutor they believe that what they are saying is wrong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Giving opinions</strong></td>
<td>Giving an opinion is a way for a speaker to say what they think about a topic and say why they think as they do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The decision to include these eight strategy training sessions was based on sessions offered in previous strategy training interventions, my own research into strategy training materials and other academic research into oral communicative strategy training. During reflection on published material and research into oral communicative strategy training, other individual strategies were considered for inclusion, namely,
doing repair, volunteering an answer, and elaborating. However, it was felt that these strategies were either sufficiently covered in the eight strategies already listed, or could occur frequently enough in natural classroom talk that students would have opportunity to practice the strategies as they arose through classroom talk. For example, the technique of elaborating was covered in the giving opinions lesson. Or, regarding repair, self-initiated other repair was covered somewhat in lessons 2, 3 and 4, and students would have opportunity to practice self-repair as it occurred naturally. As students are predominantly working in small groups it was also felt that, as a strategy of volunteering an answer did not need to be taught as an individual strategy, as opportunity to volunteer an answer while taking turns and contributing to the discussion would naturally occur. Furthermore, it was felt that strategies 6, 7, and 8 sufficiently offered the core strategies for contributing to group discussions.

During the design of phase 2, many questions related to its design and implementation were raised, such as how many strategies were appropriate to teach in a 10-week course? In what order should the strategies be taught? Should the strategy lessons be designed to be part of a larger lesson (e.g. 15-20 minutes) or should they be lessons in and of themselves? Should the lessons be put at the beginning of the course to quickly bolster students’ skills or spread out over the course? While these questions were considered before the initiation of the intervention, many of the answers only became clear during and after the intervention was implemented and through feedback from students.

In response to the questions above, it was decided that the order of the strategies should loosely follow Bejarano’s distinction between modified interaction strategies, i.e. those which aim to negotiate meaning in order to facilitate comprehension, and social interaction strategies, or strategies that “are necessary for maintaining the flow of a cohesive and coherent group discussion in which students react to each other and relate to what other members in the group said, rather than deliver their own independent or unrelated short speeches which results in non-interaction participation” (1997: 206). In phase 2 of this intervention, modified interaction strategies are represented in sessions 2, 3 and 4 and social interaction strategies are represented in sessions 5, 6, 7 and 8. Using rejoinders and follow up questions may be considered as a social interaction strategy,
but was placed first as I felt that it was a fundamental strategy that students should be aware of and integrate into their discussions from the beginning.

Using my own field notes and feedback from the students, it became apparent that the strategy training sessions were best implemented as follows:

- Strategy training sessions should take place once a week, on regular days. This was reiterated in the final student interviews when one student suggested “I think end of the week is a good time to study those skills... Good time to study more specific strategies”.
- Sessions should be complemented with regular discussions in other class periods, as this would provide opportunity for further strategy practice. This was reiterated in the final student interviews, with one student saying “uh I think uh saying a recently issue, for example hurricane or earthquake... we use that skills or strategy”. This refers to a discussion we had in a separate lesson on natural disasters, when the student had an opportunity to use the strategies we had previously practiced.
- Sessions should take up a whole 50-minute lesson (albeit with varying amounts of informal warm up talk at the beginning of the sessions). One interviewed student suggested that more time as necessary, saying “longer time is better, better than our class time. Very short time to study about that skills” When asked how much time he thought would be appropriate, the student answered, “about one hour or one hour thirty?” in other words, two lessons. However, my own field notes pointed to the need to integrate the strategy lessons into the main curriculum of the course, i.e. getting sufficient use of the set textbook as well as integrating other formalized discussions. Therefore, it was felt that one 50-minute session per strategy struck the right balance between integrating the strategy sessions and spending sufficient time on the core curriculum. Integrating the strategy instruction into a regular course is supported by Chamot who states that teachers “should probably integrate the instruction into their regular course work” (2004: 19).
• Strategy training session should allow opportunity for learners to recycle strategies covered in previous sessions. Using some of the activities from Kehe and Kehe (2013) meant that learners could practice previously taught strategies in the current strategy training session. The regular formalized discussion times also allowed freer practice of discussion strategies.

• Strategy sessions should include some form of plenary at the beginning of the session that raises awareness of the importance of the strategy and provide target language.

The following uses the data analysis matrix (Dierdrop et al. 2011), for comparing hypothetical and actual learning trajectory, to analyse the activities in each strategy training session in phase 2 of the Talk Skills intervention.
Strategy training session 1 ‘Rejoinders and follow up questions’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 1

Using rejoinders and follow up questions

Using rejoinders and follow up questions will help you to:

- Show you are listening
- Focus on the topic
- Keep the conversation going

Examples of rejoinders:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rejoinders:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I see.  Oh, yeah?  Really?  That’s Great!  That’s too bad.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rejoinders and follow up questions flow chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student A</th>
<th>Student B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A: What was the last movie you saw?</td>
<td>B: I saw the new Spiderman last week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B: Oh, yeah? What did you think of it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejoinder + Follow Up Question</td>
<td>Answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B: It was really entertaining.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Answer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise 1

Match the conversation turns to make five short conversations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>What did you eat for dinner yesterday?</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>I had chicken with my friends.</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Oh yeah? Was it good?</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Yeah it was delicious.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>What are some good points about your brother?</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>He always helps me with my homework.</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>That’s great! Is he very smart?</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>Yes, he got a scholarship to university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Did you pass your English exam?</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>No, I got an F.</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>That’s too bad. Did you study for it?</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>Not really. I’ll have to study harder for it next time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>What was your favorite subject at school?</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>I liked biology.</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I see. Why did you like that subject?</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>I enjoyed finding out about the human body.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 2

Student A

In groups of two or three take turns asking questions to the other members of your group. Respond to their answers with a rejoinder and follow up question to elicit a further response.

**Rejoinders:**
I see. Oh, yeah? Really? That’s Great! That’s too bad.

**Questions**

Did you __________________________ yesterday?

When you were in high school, did you ever ____________________________?

Have you ever ____________________________?

What are some good points about ____________________________?

Which would you rather visit, a museum, a park, or a zoo?

_____________________________?
Student B
In groups of two or three take turns asking questions to the other members of your group. Respond to their answers with a rejoinder and follow up question to elicit a further response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rejoiners:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I see. Oh, yeah? Really? That’s Great! That’s too bad.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Questions**
What time do you prefer to ____________________________?
Do you have any ____________________________?
Where have you ____________________________ recently?
Were you a good student when you were young?
Which member of your family ____________________________?
Are you ____________________________?

**Exercise 2**

Student C
In groups of two or three take turns asking questions to the other members of your group. Respond to their answers with a rejoinder and follow up question to elicit a further response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rejoiners:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I see. Oh, yeah? Really? That’s Great! That’s too bad.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Questions**
Have you ever had ____________________________?
Would you like to ____________________________?
What are you most worried about ____________________________?
Do you know how to ____________________________?
Is/are ____________________________ important to you?
What is more important for a job: salary, vacation, or high status?

Note: This strategy training session takes the more general definition of rejoinder to mean any short reply, such as ‘oh yeah?’ ‘I see’ etc. rather than the more common definition of a particularly witty or sharp reply.
Exercise 1 Sort and practice mini dialogues

Summary

In this exercise, designed by myself, students were asked to sort the cards into mini dialogues and practice the dialogues. Sorting is recognized as an effective task within the task based learning methodology literature (Willis 1996). The aim of the activity was simply to introduce rejoinders and follow up questions to students, show how they may be used in dialogue and offer students a controlled and comfortable ‘first practice’. Students had little trouble sorting and practicing the mini dialogues. After the practice phase, the teacher asked the pairs to repeat the dialogues to the class, during which time, the teacher also reemphasized the importance of using rejoinders and follow up questions. In sum, the HLT matched the ALT.

Exercise 2 Complete and ask questions. Respond to answers using rejoinders and follow up questions

Summary

This activity, adapted from Kehe and Kehe (2013), includes several of the categories Nation and Newton (2009) suggest should be considered when designing speaking tasks, namely, planning and preparation time, a message focus, repetition of target language and topics that fall within the learner’s experience. During the activity, however, despite explicit instructions asking students to produce short dialogues that included rejoinders and follow up questions, some of the opening dialogues were messy and did not include the rejoinder and follow up turn. Teacher scaffolding within this task helped the dialogues to become more focused on the use of both rejoinders and follow up questions, in line with Gibbons (2002) who has shown that teacher scaffolding can positively influence L2 classroom interaction. In the latter stages of the activity, students more readily produced turns that included rejoinders and / or follow up questions as part of fluid talk in which students built off each other’s turns, conducting inquiry and supporting each other through the talk.
The aim of the exercise was met as students could a) practice the target language and b) produce talk reminiscent of exploratory talk for language learning, in which students support each other and build on each other’s turns to find out information. However, future iterations need to legitimize the option to use either a rejoinder or a follow up questions as a turn (as well as a combination of the two) through model dialogues at the beginning of the exercise. Furthermore, in the post session interview, M stated ‘When I see some blank what should I, what should I write on the line... I think I have to just think about more... and show my interest’. Like M, students need to be given more time to fill in the blanks with creative and relevant ideas during the preparation phase.
Strategy training session 2 ‘Requesting and giving clarification’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 2

**Asking for clarification: Information sheet**

- Asking for clarification is a way of helping you understand what your partner is talking about.
- Knowing how to ask for clarification is important for checking things you don’t know in English.
- Clarification checks will help keep discussions going and improve your fluency.

**Here are some simple expressions that will help you ask for clarification**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did you say _______?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You said ______ right?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who/What/Where did you say _______ is?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You did what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pardon?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excuse me?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m sorry, I don’t understand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Look at the following ‘Asking for clarification’ mini dialogue:**

A: My favorite restaurant is Outback Steakhouse.  
(Beginning sentence)

B: Did you say Outback?  
(Clarification check)

A: Yeah, I love it.  
(Answer)

B: Oh yeah? Why do you like it?  
(Rejoinder and follow up)

A: Their steak is delicious!  
(Answer)
Exercise 1 Student A

Fill in the sentences with your own information.
Use the sentences to have mini dialogues with your partner. Respond to your partner’s opening sentence by asking for clarification. Then use a rejoinder and follow up question to keep the conversation going.

Sentences
I’m planning to buy __________________________ this year.
Someday, I’d like to meet __________________________.
The movie I think you should see is __________________________.
__________________________ is a big problem.
Could you help me? I need help with __________________________.
When I was a child, I spent a lot of time __________________________.
Three things I really hate are __________________________ and __________________________.
If I had one month left to life, I would __________________________.

Exercise 1 Student B

Fill in the sentences with your own information.
Use the sentences to have mini dialogues with your partner. Respond to your partner’s opening sentence by asking for clarification. Then use a rejoinder and follow up question to keep the conversation going.

Sentences
In the future, I want to work __________________________.
I think computers are __________________________.
This coming weekend, I think you should __________________________.
If I could change one thing about myself, I’d change __________________________.
My favourite __________________________ is __________________________.
If I were an author, I would write about __________________________.
I / my friend got angry because __________________________.
I need some advice about __________________________. Could you advise me?
Exercise 1 Fill in statements and use statements to practice asking for clarification

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

Asking for clarification is an element of Long’s (1996) interaction hypothesis, and a method for language learning through negotiating meaning in discussion. Providing good preparation was achieved, it was anticipated that the students would have little difficulty in using the statements, adapted from Kehe and Kehe (2013), to practice clarification checks and if possible recycling rejoinders and follow up questions.
Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Students engaged in dialogue that a) included clarification checks, rejoinders and follow up questions and b) provided a context for long and relatively complex turns in which students explored differing opinions on a topic and respectfully challenged each other – characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning. This is highlighted in Excerpt 8, between N, H and teacher.

Excerpt 8

20. N: oh and uh. i think computers are gradually going
21. unexpensive.
22. H: oh, you said gradually going unexpensive?
23. N: yes. yes. the, the uh future of electronic machines i
24. think.
26. N: um (. ) many corporation um (.) study about how to. how to
27. make it unexpensive. or technically. so, as time goes by
28. many machines are cheaper than the ( )
29. H: i, i saw some article. in article said that there will be
30. (. ) machine is more upgrade than now or upgrade
31. design. but it is it has expensive. so very good. very
32. upgrading. upgrading. so it’s expensive but even
33. companies can ( ) even people can buy it. can buy
34. it very easily. so they. the corporation (. ) iyeong?
36. H: corporation will make another, another thing, model. so
37. people can buy that.
38. N: i say i said uh. uh. computers are gradually going
39. unexpensive.
40. T: oh getting less expensive. getting cheaper, getting
41. cheaper, getting less expensive, getting less expensive.
42. N: but she said, i don’t agree this. the electronic machines
43. are getting expensive because of uh because they are
44. consist many, many part. uh, for example. this smartphone
45. has camera, and phone, and usb. it getting expensive.
46. T: oh okay.
47. H: ah. i saw it in article.
48. T: oh yeah?
49. H: if, if the machine will be, will be expensive, but usual
50. people can buy it, very, very, it’s not like usual people
51. can’t use phone. like that. it’s more (.) useful than
52. before, and people can buy it very expensive. but
53. companies can make another same, same technology and you
54. can buy it.
55. T: oh okay.
56. N: okay.
57. H: i heard that. i just read that hhhaha.

In line 20, N begins with a statement that computers will become cheaper in the future. In line 22, H uses her turn to check for clarification. In line 23, N gives his answer, reiterating his belief about computers getting cheaper in the future. In line 25, H produces a rejoinder and follow up question and in line 26, N gives another answer, again reinforcing why he believes that computers will become cheaper in the future. These turns represent the students fulfilling the requirements of the task, however, what is interesting is the way in which H then challenges N’s position, by arguing that machine technology will be upgraded in the future meaning therefore that they will become more, not less expensive. This leads to several more long, complex turns, also including the teacher who joins in the conversation (although remaining objective and acting in a guiding role, rather than picking one side of the argument), in which the three interactants debate whether or not technology will become more or less expensive.
Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

This activity achieved its aim of allowing students to both practice clarification checks and recycle rejoinders and follow up questions, as well as incidentally providing a locus for dialogue with characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning. Therefore, the HLT met the ALT in this activity.

Exercise 2 Prepare a short talk, partner asks for clarification where necessary

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

This exercise was designed by myself, however, there is potential for students to become confused or misinterpret this activity because of its less restricted or controlled nature. The main anticipated problem was that the partner will simply listen passively while the speaker gives their talk on their chosen topic. However, provided the aims of the activity were made clear, it was anticipated that students should be able to practice asking for and giving clarification in a freer context that allows space for the “interactional adjustments” (Foster & Ohta 2005: 405) that promote language learning.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 9 shows P talking with C on his chosen topic during the task, extracted from a larger dialogue that lasted 56 turns.

Excerpt 9

27. P: i want to go to japan. (.) uh my topic is my favorite
28.    trip.
29. C: oh okay.
30. P: my favorite trip is german trip because it is my first
31.    time to go to trip abroad. and=
32. C: =oh excuse my uh what (.) did you say abroad trip right?
33. P: yes. abroad trip.
34. C: okay.
35. P: and i feel it is very awesome. so in german trip i could
36. see different cultures from korea. and see many stranger.
37. C: can you say, can you say that again.
38. P: ok. i feel it is very awesome. in germany trip i could
39. see many culture from korea and see any strangers. it is
40. very curious and i feel like i am very free in their
41. country.
42. C: free? what do you mean by free?
43. P: i feel like free uh in contrast to korea.
44. C: ah ah ah i’m free.
45. P: i feel like free, very free. and so. uh. uh it is uh. in
46. korea, i know many people uh someone like my friends,
47. parents.
48. C: yeah.
49. P: but in other country. i like alone in the country. so i
50. feel like very free.

While the purpose of this activity is to practice clarification checks, the nature of the activity leaves the listener relatively free to use them. Nevertheless, C here regularly checked for clarification, for example, in turns 32, 37 and 42, furthermore using different clarification check phrases. While it is not known the extent to which C genuinely wants to check for clarification, or whether he is simply fulfilling the aim of the activity, the clarification checks serve to clear up any difficulties C has in understanding meaning and maintain the flow of the dialogue.

In terms of output as collaborative dialogue, the transcript provides an example of “language learning (knowledge building) mediated by language (as a semiotic tool)” (Swain 2000: 104). In line 43, for example. P is explaining that he felt free during his trip to Germany. In the following turn, C uses the target language to ask for clarification of the word free. P then clarifies by contrasting his freedom during his travel experience in Germany to his normal life in Korea. This prompts C to show his new understanding of the word by using it in his own newly formulated phrase “ah ah I’m free”, suggesting
a new depth to his knowledge of the word ‘free’. In P’s following turns, he attempts to reinforce the way ‘free’ can be used in this way, by paraphrasing his original point that he felt free during his trip to Germany, to which C shows clear understanding in line 48. In sum, this provides an example of how social interaction helped to overcome the linguistic problem of how free can be used in the context of describing a travel experience (Swain 2000).

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

The HLT met the ALT as students could successfully practice clarification checks in a freer context. Furthermore, student interviews reinforced the success of the session as a whole, as when asked whether they found the session useful, P answered ‘yeah, very useful’ and H answered ‘yeah useful and, it is, uh fun’.
## Strategy training session 3 ‘Comprehension checks’

**Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 3**

### Exercise 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your train leaves at 3.30 pm, <em>okay</em>?</td>
<td>3.30, <em>okay, got it!</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When you make spaghetti, you must boil the water before you add the noodles, <em>understand</em>?</td>
<td><em>Okay, I understand</em>. Boil the water first.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You must study hard if you want to pass your exam, <em>do you understand</em>?</td>
<td>Yes mom, <em>I understand</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In basketball, a slam dunk is worth 2 points, <em>got it</em>?</td>
<td>2 points for a slam dunk, <em>okay got it</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had to break up with my boyfriend because I am moving away. <em>Does that make sense</em>?</td>
<td>Yes, <em>that makes sense</em>, but I’m sure he was upset.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We need eggs, tomatoes, rice and sugar, <em>have you got it</em>?</td>
<td><em>Okay, got it</em>. See you when I get back from Emart.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You’ll need to bring an umbrella because it’s raining, <em>okay</em>?</td>
<td>Yes, I will do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise 2

Language for checking comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comprehension Check</th>
<th>Giving confirmation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Do you understand?</em></td>
<td><em>Yes, I understand.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Understand?</em></td>
<td><em>Yes.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Have you got it?</em></td>
<td><em>Okay, got it.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Got it?</em></td>
<td><em>Got it.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Okay?</em></td>
<td><em>Yes, okay.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Does that make sense?</em></td>
<td><em>Yes, that makes sense!</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Checking for comprehension

1. Prepare to explain a five step process to your partner. Add details to each step. Choose from the following:
   - How to make a dish (Not ramyson!)
   - The order of things you do when you get up in the morning
   - Your schedule for today / tomorrow / yesterday
   - How to get from class to your home.

2. At the end of each point, check your partner understands using a comprehension check.

3. At each point your partner will ask for clarification one time.

4. Help your partner to understand.

5. When you have finished, test your partner to see if they can remember the steps in order.
Exercise 1 Sort and practice conversation pairs

Summary

Comprehension checks are another element of Long’s interaction hypothesis (1996) and practice is offered in this activity through ‘sorting’, a recognized task based learning exercise (Willis 1996). In the activity, designed by myself, cards were first laminated and cut up, then distributed to pairs of students. Students matched two
dialogue turns and practiced the varying dialogue pairs. The cards were intended to be relatively simple and represent an introduction to what comprehension checks are and how they may be used in talk. Learners had little difficulty matching and practicing the pairs, and in as much, the HLT met the ALT.

**Exercise 2 Prepare to explain a five-step process. Check for comprehension at the end of each step.**

**Summary**

This exercise was designed by myself. However, despite several elements being integrated into the activity, it was anticipated that students would relatively easily fulfill the core aim of the activity, to prepare and give a talk on a process, while integrating comprehension checks in the form of talk as performance (Richards 2008).

During the practice phase, students were indeed able to effectively integrate various comprehension checks into their talks. However, students tended not to quiz their groupmates at the end of their talks. In one transcribed instance, it was only after T interrupts the next speaker from beginning their turn that the previous speaker is prompted to quiz his groupmates. The quiz was a useful way to check that comprehension genuinely has been achieved and provided extra purpose to the activity. Therefore, a further reminder should be written in underneath the fifth and final step to remind the speaker to quiz the listeners. With minor revisions, the HLT met the ALT for this activity. Furthermore, in the post session interview, P stated “I can’t hear the English conversation so I need that sentence”, suggesting that he found the target language useful.

**Added Exercise**

There was approximately 15 minutes left at the end of the session as the activities finished earlier than anticipated. In this space, I used a text from the students’ English textbooks to ‘ad lib’ a further activity that practiced comprehension checks. The activity was loosely based on a similar activity I had briefly looked at while preparing
this strategy training session. For the activity, students were placed in triads and asked to read two paragraphs each of a six-paragraph text. At the end of each paragraph, students were asked to check for comprehension and, as listeners, ask for clarification. The following excerpt shows students beginning to practice the activity.

**Excerpt 10**

151. P: and uh alexander bega. a **banker in new york city**, jogs
152. almost every evening after work in central **park**. I never
153. get bored and the park is so big. it’s a public space.
154. yeah. it can be completely private. got it?
155. L: yes. i got it. um he’s a banker and every evening he jogs
156. in **central park**. and he feels uh completely private in,
157. in **central park**.

The excerpt shows that, despite being an ‘ad lib’ extension activity to fill time at the end of the session, it nevertheless provided opportunity to further practice clarification checks. A similar type of activity will be formalised and included in future iterations of the clarification check strategy training session.
Strategy training session 4 ‘Asking for help’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 4

Exercise 1
Match the phrases (A) that ask for help with the responses (B) then practice the conversation pairs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the morning I usually wash the dishes in the… Do you know the word for the place where you wash dishes?</td>
<td>I think you mean the sink.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reading says that there was a hurricane in Australia. Do you know what hurricane means?</td>
<td>Yeah, hurricane is a type of storm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you call the thing that you make toast with?</td>
<td>That’s called a toaster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What’s the word for the thing a robber does?</td>
<td>A robber steals things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yesterday I ate a delicious fruit. It looks like an apple but it’s sweeter…</td>
<td>Do you mean pear?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m looking for the word for the thing that wakes you up in the morning.</td>
<td>You mean an alarm clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I read that last Christmas there were fewer… How do you say people who buy things</td>
<td>I think you can say consumers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 2 - Asking for help
In the following activity, you will practice asking for help when you don’t know the word. Here are some phrases for asking for help when you don’t know the word for something:

- Do you know the word for…?  
- Do you know what ________ means?  
- What do you call the thing that…?  
- What’s the word for…?  
- It looks like…?  
- I’m looking for the word for…?  
- How do you say…?
The aim of this exercise is to practice asking your group members for help. Prepare a talk for 2 minutes. Include the three words in your talk BUT instead of using the words, ask your partners for help finding the words.

Example:

Topic: **Holidays**

Words:

a. Beach  
b. Elephant  
c. Hotel

“Last year I went on holiday to Thailand. In Thailand, we visited the **what’s the word for the place that has sand and ocean?** (Yes beach). We took a ride on, **how do you say the really big animals with long noses?** Yes **elephants**. And we stayed in a really big and luxurious, **what’s the word for the big building where you sleep and eat?** (Yes **hotel**.)”

Student cards:

Spend 2 minutes preparing a talk about the following topic: **Olympics**

Include the following words in your talk,

a. Silver medal  
b. 100 meter sprint  
c. Archery

**But** pretend you don’t know these words. During your talk, ask your group members for help finding the words.

Spend 2 minutes preparing a talk about the following topic: **Christmas**

Include the following words in your talk,

a. Presents  
b. Santa Claus  
c. Christmas tree

**But** pretend you don’t know these words. During your talk, ask your group members for help finding the words.
Spend 2 minutes preparing a talk about the following topic: **Living in the city**

Include the following words in your talk,

a. Neighbors  
b. Convenient  
c. Transportation  

But pretend you don’t know these words. During your talk, ask your group members for help finding the words.

Spend 2 minutes preparing a talk about the following topic: **Using a computer**

Include the following words in your talk,

a. Keyboard  
b. Web surfing  
c. Social network  

But pretend you don’t know these words. During your talk, ask your group members for help finding the words.

**Exercise 3**

**Free practice**  
Now try to talk for one minute about one of the following topics. Include as much detail as possible. When you don’t know a word or phrase, ask your partner for help. Practice asking for help three or more times.

**Topics:**

- My favourite sport  
- My last vacation  
- My dream job  
- My best friend  
- My favourite subject at school
Exercise 1 Sort and practice conversation pairs that ask for help finding words

Summary

Asking for help is a way of making conversational adjustments (Long 1980) that progress understanding during interaction. Exercise 1 is another simple matching activity in which students were placed in pairs and asked to match, then practice conversational adjacency pairs (Wong & Waring 2010) that include language for asking for help. The activity successfully achieved its aim of giving students exposure to and controlled practice of the target ‘asking for help’ language, as students completed the activity with little difficulty. Such success was further supported by P’s comment to his speaking partner during the activity, noting: “Do you know the word for? What do you call the thing, maybe uh very useful words for English class.” Here P recognises the importance and usefulness of the target language. In sum, the HLT successfully met the ALT.

Exercise 2 Give a short talk on given topic. Use vocabulary prompts to ask for help.

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

The main anticipated problem for this activity, adapted from Naughton (2006), is that at first, it seems counter intuitive to ask for help finding words that are given within the activity instructions. However, in her own cooperative learning intervention, Naughton showed that her version of the activity was a successful method of practicing asking for help. It was hoped that teacher modeling of the activity through the ‘holidays’ example, would help students to successfully grasp the aim of the activity. Another potential problem was that students may feel anxiety if the correct help was not received when asked for, potentially leading to communication breakdowns. However, it was thought that most students would be able to overcome any unanticipated communication breakdowns.
Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

After teacher modelling and once students had shown understanding of the task, time was given for students to prepare their own talks. Following on, Excerpt 11 shows the practice phase of the activity, in which P gives his talk about Christmas, while T monitors.

Excerpt 11

115. P: and my topic is christmas. and christmas has many symbolic things. most of children expect something uh, do you know
116. the word for something? like packaged by box. and someone
117. brings=
118. H: =i know.
119. T: what is it?
120. H: present.
121. P: ah right ha ha. and they believe someone brings their present ah uh what’s the word for someone who brings the present in christmas?
122. H: i know, it’s santa. santa.
123. T: santa? ok good.
124. P: oh ↑genius.
125. ((laughter))
126. P: so they hang socks on the. how do you say they (. ) the thing they hang the socks?
127. N: it is tree?
128. P: yeah uh yes.
129. T: ah good yeah. ok good, well done, good, good.
In line 115, P begins his turn by making the other group members aware of his topic (this is a strategy used by all the students within this group during their respective turns). In the same line, P uses the target language to ask for help finding the word ‘presents’, to which H responds with the correct word. In the turn beginning in line 122, P continues with his talk, asking for help finding his next word, Santa, to which H again responds with the correct word. Finally, in line 129, P finishes his talk by asking for help finding his final word ‘tree’, in the following turn, N replies with the correct word. The excerpt shows that P was able to achieve the aim of the activity, to give a short talk and use the vocabulary prompts to practice asking for help. In fact, all subsequent talks proceeded in a similar way with all the members of this group successfully talking on their topic while asking for help finding their vocabulary prompts.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

The nature of the talk in this activity may be described as somewhat contrived and formulaic, which may be considered a drawback, however, this was necessary to create the controlled environment in which the students could comfortably practice the target language. While this type of language would be considered inauthentic when contrasted with natural conversation, it nevertheless may be considered authentic *in the language classroom setting* as it is co-constructed by the learners with the pedagogic purpose of learning the strategy (Külekçi 2015). Therefore, despite limitations, the HLT matched the ALT in this activity.

**Exercise 3** Free talk on a given topic. Ask for help when necessary. Ask at least three times.

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

**Conjecture of how well students would respond**

In the final activity, designed by myself, students were asked to ‘free talk’ on a topic chosen, asking for help at least three times. Ernst has shown that a similar style of free talking activity, the talking circle, “creates opportunities for learners to engage in
meaningful communication, on the one hand, and to practice recently acquired social and linguistic knowledge, on the other” (1994: 293). It was anticipated that speaking without preparation may be problematic for a small number of students.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 12 illustrates H’s turn to talk about her chosen topic, her hobby.

Excerpt 12

231. H: my hobby.
232. T: okay.
233. H: uh, my hobby is uh. yoga and uh watching a diet, diet video program, diet video. because two years ago i went to china about one year but i got a lot of weight. so come back korea have to. do you know the word for, word for, word, how to very down the weight. ah it’s diet.
234. 235. 236. 237.
238. T: diet, hahaha.
239. ((laughter))
240. H: uh i have to diet so, so for take a two months. i watch uh i watch diet video program and take a yoga class. i (.). how to, do you know what. ania. do you know the word for diet for losing the, losing the weight? what is the word for parosed? 241. 242. 243. 244.
245. T: oh uh losing fat. weight loss. weight loss diet or something. weight loss is ok. losing weight.
246. 247. 248.
249. T: successful?
251. ((laughter))
252. H: it was successful so i weighed my weight, i weighed my weight. and until today my hobby is yoga and watching a diet program.
253. 254.
255. ((applause))
While the talk in this activity remains somewhat unnatural as it has a ‘for learning’ purpose - to integrate asking for help while talking about a given topic, the activity pushed the students’ language output further than the previous activity by taking away the vocabulary prompts and thinking time. This is illustrated in H’s turns in lines 233, 240 and 247, which were long and complex, while achieving the aim of asking her groupmates for help. During H’s talk, T monitors and joins in the activity by offering model responses. Such modelling has been shown to be important for language learning as it acts as a “guide on how the additional language is used in a natural environment” (Thomson 2012: 9). In this way, T’s modelling both legitimised H’s strategy use and acted as a guide for responding appropriately.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

Despite the artificial (yet authentic) nature of the talk, the HLT met the ALT as the activity provided space for students to further practice asking for help. During the post session interview, N emphasised the usefulness of the activity, noting: “Yes, useful. It is very useful because I need to say uh, when I don’t know the word... It is I, I often use, ah I think I will use this sentence.” Furthermore, in my own field notes I reflected that “today’s class was quite well constructed. Starting with the matching activity and then the second activity moving on to the more controlled practice.” The session benefitted from loosely following the structure of presentation, practice, production (PPP) methodology (e.g. Harmer 2001), allowing students to move from controlled to freer practice of the target language.
Strategy training session 5 ‘Asking for more details’

Asking for more details

Asking for more details will help you to find out new information and keep a conversation going. This activity will help you to practice asking for more details.

Questions for asking for more details

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can you say a bit more about that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you give me some more details about ___________________________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you give me an example of _______________________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you mean by _______________________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you explain _______________________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you tell me why/who/what _______________________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like to know more about __________________________.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 1 – ask for details about your partner’s best friend

1. You will find out about your partner’s best friend brainstorm as many wh-questions as possible to find out information about your partner’s best friend. Your aim is to find out about as much information about your partner’s best friend as possible. Then your partner can find out about your best friend.

2. When you’re ready take it in turns to ask questions and find out about your partner’s best friend. As you ask each question, note down the information. Your partner must answer your questions but they may only give information you ask for and no more. You can ask for extra details any time by saying ‘can you say a bit more about that’ or ‘can you give me more details?’

3. When you have finished, your partner will find out about your best friend. When you have both finished, see who has found out the most information. Then you can tell the class about your partner’s best friend.
Activity 2 Complete the statements. Use the statements to practice asking for more details

Fill in the blanks with your own ideas. Use the statements to have short conversations with your partner. After you say a statement, your partner will ask you for more details. Answer your partner’s questions with as much detail as possible.

Student A

1. If I could have one thing that would improve my life, it would be _______________________________

2. The thing I’m most afraid of these days is _______________________________

3. One thing I’d like to change about the world is _______________________________

4. In my opinion, the students in this class _______________________________

5. ______________________________ is the best time of day to ______________________________

________________________________________
Activity 2 Complete the statements. Use the statements to practice asking for more details.

Fill in the blanks with your own ideas. Use the statements to have short conversations with your partner. After you say a statement, your partner will ask you for more details. Answer your partner’s questions with as much detail as possible.

Student B

1. _______________________________ makes me angry.

2. When I’m at a party, I _______________________________.

3. One thing I’d like to change about my childhood would be _______________________________.

4. If I get married I want my spouse to _______________________________.

5. I wish _______________________________.

was still alive today.
**Exercise 1** Interview a partner about their best friend. Use target language to ask for more details.

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

Asking for more details is an important part of exploratory talk for language learning as it is a mechanism for building cumulative knowledge as learners work to understand ideas together (Chappell 2014). In this activity, designed by myself, it was anticipated that students would have little difficulty preparing questions and conducting
the interview. However, one anticipated problem was that students would misinterpret
the aim of the activity, to focus on the interview itself as the primary aim, rather than
understanding the intended aim of practicing asking for more details.

**Actual learning trajectory**

**Transcript excerpt, clarification**

In the beginning of the P’s interview, with simple questions such as ‘what is the
name of your best friend?’ P did not use follow up questions, nor were they needed. It
should be made clear in the instructions that these kinds of simple questions do not
require follow up questions. However, in the later phase of P’s interview, shown in
Excerpt 13, P does regularly use the target language to ask for more details:

**Excerpt 13**

35. P: uh when did you meet your best friend first?
36. J: uh we (.) in middle school?
37. P: middle school?
39. P: old friend. and uh (.) can you say a bit more about that?
40. uh what grade?
41. J: ah first grade in middle school.
42. P: wow. and mm (.) what do you do with your best friend?
44. P: =talking a lot?
45. J: uh, um (0.5) many drink, many drink.
46. P: many drink? hhaha.
47. J: because she hhhaha.
48. P: many drink.
49. J: mm, many drink.
50. P: drinking mate?
51. J: huh?
52. P: drinking mate?
54. P: wow. interesting. can you give me more details about what kind of drink?
55. J: uh just like (. ) soju. ((korean alcohol))

Excerpt 13 highlights two instances of P asking questions and asking for more details. For example, in line 35, P asks ‘when did you meet your best friend first?’ In line 39, he follows up by asking for more details, saying ‘And uh, can you say a bit more about that? Uh what grade?’ Then, in line 42, P asks ‘what do you do with your best friend?’ Interestingly, this results in several turns checking for clarification and helping each other to understand meaning, thereby, recycling strategies from previous sessions. In line 54, P again asks for more details, by saying ‘Can you give me more details about what kind of drink?’ This results in several light-hearted turns about Korean alcohol, soju.

In the final plenary stage of the activity, T gave each student one minute to describe their partner’s best friend to their class members. Excerpt 14 illustrates P describing his partner during the plenary.

**Excerpt 14**

142. P: good. uh her best friend name is ji soo and she live in gimpo. Kyungido. and she met uh her best friend first time in middle school and one grade. and uh, she uh (.)
143. she think about her best friend that um. ah. uh. they had many secrets so uh they are best friends.
144. 
145. T: OH.
146.  
147. P: and when they meet uh. they drinking a lot and soju.
148. T: haha.
149.  
150. P: she’s twenty-four years old and best memory is in middle school. memory. and go going to school together and playing with her best friend.
151. T: good, good, ok.
At this time, P was able to successfully summarize to the class the information he found out about his partner’s friend.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

When P was asked about finding out about his partner’s best friend, he stated “It’s good, it’s interesting issue” and agreed that he had much opportunity to use the target phrases. Therefore, as illustrated in both the transcript and post interview data, the HLT in this activity met the ALT. Nevertheless, two changes should be made: a) it should be made clear in the instructional phase that students should only ask for more details when it feels natural to do so as asking for more details when a question has been fully answered can result in confusion for the interviewee. Furthermore, b) it was clear that asking for more details appeared quite naturally within the dialogue, therefore, the instruction for the interviewee to ‘only give the information asked for and no more’ is redundant and should be taken out in future iterations.

**Exercise 2 Prepare statements. Group members listen to statements and ask for more details.**

**Summary**

As this activity (as well as the session target language) was adapted from Kehe and Kehe (2013) and designed similarly to previous activities that were administered successfully, it was anticipated that students would have little difficulty completing and using the statements as a point from which to practice asking for more details. Allowing students to complete the statements with their own ideas was an attempt to make the activity learner centered (Nunan 1996) as this allows students to practice talking about topics from their real-world lives.

In this session too much time was spent on exercise 1, so that only five minutes remained to complete exercise 2. It is important to note then that correct time management for each activity is important in order to fully exploit the activity in future iterations. This was reiterated by P in the post session interview, who stated ‘we have litt
le chance to use theme sentence’. Nevertheless, students used the activity to practice asking for more details, and respectively give reasons and elaborate on their statements and in this sense, the HLT matched the ALT for this activity.
Strategy training session 6 ‘Challenging’

In this lesson will focus on challenging what other people say. Being able to challenge the assertions of other members of your group is important skill for making progress in your discussions, understanding a topic and making right decisions.

Look at the following questions you can use for questioning and challenging your partner’s assertions, then study the flow chart.

Questions for challenging the speaker

**About reasons for believing:**
- Why do you think so?
- What’s your evidence for that?
- What makes you say that?

**About importance:**
- How is that good?
- How is that bad?
- How is that important?
- Why does that matter?

**When you want more details about a reason:**
- Can you explain why?
- Can you be more specific?

**When you want another reason:**
- Give me another reason why . . .

---

Challenge the Assertion flow chart. Example dialogue.

**Statement**

A: It’s a nice day today.

**Justification**

A: The sun is shining.

B: What’s your evidence for that? **Challenge**

A: We need sunshine.

B: How is that good? **Challenge**

B: Can you explain why? **Challenge**

A: We become sad without the sun . . .

**Justification**
**Activity 1 Challenge the Assertion**

Student A begin by choosing and saying a statement from your statement box. Student B use the questions above to challenge your partner’s assertion. Student A justify your assertion and keep going until the ideas run out and your partner can say no more. When you have finished, switch roles and practice again.

**Statements for Student A**

- Hair is useful.
- Trees are beneficial.
- Prisons are necessary.
- Sunshine is beneficial.
- For a working person, cats are better pets than dogs.
- Doctors do a lot of good.
- Exercise is beneficial.
- It’s useful to be able to speak a few languages.
- Taxes are necessary.
- Car racing is a dangerous sport.
- Science has given us a lot.

**Statements for Student B**

- Rats are pests.
- Drug addiction is bad.
- Every house needs a roof.
- Inexpensive public transport is necessary.
- Shoes are useful.
- Women are more law-abiding than men.
- People should eat less junk food.
- Caring for a baby can be time-consuming.
- School is useful.
- Car racing is a dangerous sport
- Everyone should brush their teeth.
Activity 2 Just a minute!

- Start by making groups of three or four. I will begin by giving one team member a topic. That person will have to talk for one minute on that topic when I say start.
- If they can talk for one minute, they get 10 points!
- It is the job of the other team to try to challenge that person while they are talking.

These are the ways you can challenge:
- *False!* We did not have spaghetti yesterday.
- *Grammar!* She said, ‘Yesterday I have been . . .’, The grammar is wrong.
- *Not relevant!* The topic is school lunches, not her favourite food.
- *Pronunciation!* Not hotel, hotel.
- *Repetition!* You said that before.
- *Hesitation of more than three seconds

- If the challenge is correct, your team gets one point. If you can correct the challenge your team gets two points.
- You cannot lose points for incorrect challenges.
- If your team cannot correct the other team gets a chance to correct.
- Every legitimate challenge means the topic passes to the other team for one member of that team to continue.
- The clock is stopped during challenges.
- The team who is speaking at the end of the minute gets ten points.
- Points are tallied at the end of each round.
Just a Minute! Topics (For Quizmaster)

1. School lunches
2. Coming to school in the morning
3. Watching television
4. Things people do during their holidays
5. Visiting relatives
6. Street food
7. Movies
8. Membership training
9. Computers
10. Free speech
11. Sometimes war is the best solution to a problem
12. Global warming
13. Exams are stressful
14. English language
15. Telephone etiquette / good behavior
16. Smartphones mean we are too connected to each other
17. Art is important
18. Equal pay for women
19. Mothers
20. Studying abroad
21. People are reading less books
22. Smoking in public should be illegal
23. Students should protest
24. Why we should protect nature
25. Too many people are studying at university
Activity 1 Challenge your partner’s assertions

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

Respectfully challenging peers during interaction is an important part of exploratory talk because through challenging “knowledge is made more publicly accountable and reasoning is more visible in the talk” (Mercer 1996: 369). In this activity, adapted from Lindstromberg (2004), although the assertions are relatively fun and light hearted, it was anticipated that some students may have difficulty answering a challenge by justifying a given assertion if it was not a statement the student knew or cared much about.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Seven students participated in this class, meaning students were grouped into pairs and threes. Excerpt 15 illustrates H, A and N during the practice phase of the activity.

Excerpt 15

47. H: m::m. exercise is beneficial.
48. A: what makes you say that?
49. H: in these day, in these day, many people have to a lot of work. so they have very a lot of pressure. so i think doing exercise can less the stress.
50. N: m:m. how is that important?
51. H: uh (. ) if people have had have a lot of stress, people can’t do can do their best, can’t do their best. for work.
52. A: can you be more specific?
53. H: ok uh (l)
55. H: and doing exercise can improve our body, body power. ok haha.
56. A: you guys have so ( ) so i feel employer.
The excerpt shows students offering and justifying assertions. H begins in line 47 with the assertion “exercise is beneficial”. She is then challenged by A in lines 48 and 55, and by N in line 52. A and N both use the target language phrases for justifying. The challenging offered space for H to practice expanding on and justifying the assertion and often resulted in longer, more complex turns, for example, turns 49 and 53. Interestingly, in line 60, A likens the activity to the question and answer context of a job interview, suggesting that she is relating the activity to a kind of role play. Role play in L2 classroom learning has several advantages including promoting student activity and interest and discipline to complete tasks (Livingstone 1985).

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

Students were able to use the target language and practice challenging within a controlled context, therefore, the HLT successfully met the ALT. The success of the activity was reiterated by H in a post session interview, stating:

*It is very useful and it is quite fun... Because the topic is not uh not usually thinking about that so-... Like uh hair is important.*

H states that the activity was useful and fun and offered an opportunity to think about and discuss unusual topics.

**Activity 2 Just a minute!**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

**Conjecture of how well students would respond**

The IATEFL website (2012) has shown that Just a minute! is an established method of practicing speaking skills in the L2 classroom. However, the activity, also adapted from Lindstromberg (2004), is a complex game with a lot of rules, meaning there is much scope for students to misunderstand and potential for breakdown in communication. Some confusion at the beginning of the game was anticipated.
Furthermore, enough time must be allocated for somewhat extensive instructions at the beginning of the game. However, because the activity was premised as a game, it was anticipated that students would enjoy the activity and use the opportunity to challenge each other in a light-hearted way.

**Actual learning trajectory**

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

As predicted, students were somewhat confused at the beginning of the game. For example, it was not until after the first challenge in the opening round, that students realised that a challenge resulted in the challenger taking over the role of speaker and this resulted in a reluctance to challenge due to some anxiety over speaking in the game. Because of the reluctance to challenge in the first round, T revised the points system so that a challenge scores five points. T was also required to strongly guide students into the role of challenger.

However, as the game progressed and understanding of the rules became clear, and students grew in confidence. Excerpt 16 highlights interaction in the final round.

**Excerpt 16**

265. T: well done. ten points excellent. Good. ok last one last one. final round ok. final round ok. uh movies, movies.
266. D: your team. D. ready. movies. ok go.
267. D: u:h my favorite movie is harry potter. the main character is very interesting and the story is very adventurous.
268. uh i think.
269. H: oh hesitation.
270. T: hesitation, yes hesitation good. alright.
272. T: ok. go.
273. H: i like watching a movie (.). so i usually go to a movie theater to watching a movie. especially i like uh fantashi
L: grammar.
((laughter))
T: uh pronunciation fantashi uh but yeah ok. i don’t know but ok. yeah good. ready (. ) GO.
L: uh nowaday:s. i’m too busy so i didn’t went to theater.
H: oh grammar.
T: grammar. i didn’t went to. yes. alright read::y (. ) go.
H: i like a movie about harry potter.
((laughter))
H: because my favorite character is harry potter. he can use a magic and can fly, can fly.
T: ok stop.
H: hhaha
T: one minute. ding ding ding. well done.
((applause))

Here, D begins the round by talking about movies. The round included three autonomous challenges, by H in line 270, L in line 277 and again by H in line 282.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched
The scoring system was not well thought through and needs to be improved in future iterations. Furthermore, it should be noted that the game did not give students the opportunity to use the target language or practice any particularly natural turn taking mechanisms, which may be viewed as a limitation of the activity in the context of the session. Nevertheless, the activity did provide students with the opportunity to enter into the act of challenging itself, suggesting the HLT matched the ALT, strengthened by H’s post session interview in which she noted second activity is very fun.
Strategy training session 7 ‘Disagreeing’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 7

Strategy training session 7: ‘Disagreeing’

Exercise 1 Disagreeing

Procedure: Write one of these phrases up on the board.

*English food is the best in the world.*
*Real Madrid are the best football team in the world.*
*Japan is better than Korea*
*English is a pointless language*

Say the statement aloud and pause for dramatic effect.
Tell the students that you want them to think of how they would disagree with you if they heard you say this in conversation.
Give them a few seconds to think of something.
Go round the group, repeating the statement to each student in turn.
Allow them to say their responses.
As students disagree write up their phrases on the board.
Repeat process one more time if appropriate
At the end review all their phrases and techniques.
Hand out the following disagreeing expression sheet and go through the expression. Compare these expressions with the ones the students gave to you.

**Phrases for Disagreeing**

**Standard phrase (strong)**
- I’m sorry, I can’t agree with you.
- No way.
- I totally disagree.

**Standard phrase (polite)**
- I’m not sure I agree with you.
- That’s not always true. / I don’t think that is always true
- That’s not always the case. / I don’t think that’s always the case.
- No, I’m not so sure about that.

**Yes, but**
- I can see what you’re saying, but . . .

**Open question**
- Really? Do you think so?

**Negative question**
- Don’t you think that . . .?

**Introductory phrase to prepare the listener**
- Actually, . . .
- To be honest, . . .
Exercise 2

Student A picks up a card and reads it. Student B will disagree with their statement. Student A will try to defend their statement. Keep going until you cannot go anymore. Change roles, B picks up a card and continues. Have dialogues like this:

Disagreeing discussion flow chart

A: I cycling is the best form of exercise

B: *I totally disagree.*

A: oh really? Why is that?

B: I think team sports like basketball are much more fun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cats make the best pets</th>
<th>Learning English is easy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The air in Seoul is really clean</td>
<td>Everybody should go to university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All junk food should be banned because it is unhealthy.</td>
<td>People should not drink alcohol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When choosing a career, money is the most important factor</td>
<td>Exercise is boring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University tuition fees should increase.</td>
<td>Grammar is the most important part of learning English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean people should only go on holiday in Korea</td>
<td>Winter is the best season</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball is the best sport in the world</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity 1 Make your own controversial statements. Use the statements to practice disagreeing.

Write one assertion for each of the following categories and give a reason for the assertion. Be as controversial as possible. Read your statements to your partner. Your partner will practice disagreeing with you. When possible, use the disagreement as the basis for discussion.

Student A

Hometown
______________________________ is the best place in the country because
__________________________________________________________.

Best food
I think best food is ________________________________ because
__________________________________________________________

Best sports team
I think the best sports team is ________________________________ because
__________________________________________________________

Best season
I think the best season is ________________________________ because
__________________________________________________________
Activity 1 Make your own controversial statements. Use the statements to practice disagreeing.

Write one assertion for each of the following categories and give a reason for the assertion. Be as controversial as possible. Read your statements to your partner. Your partner will practice disagreeing with you. When possible, use the disagreement as the basis for discussion.

Student B

Best music group / singer

I think the best music group / singer is ___________________________ because _______________________________________________________.

University

I think university is pointless because ____________________________

___________________________________________________________.

The best profession

I think the best job in the world is ____________________________ because _______________________________________________________.

Fashion

I think the best fashion brand is ____________________________ because _______________________________________________________.
Exercise 1 Disagree with the statements

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond.

The activity, adapted from Emmerson and Hamilton (2005), offers space for students to practice using phrases for disagreeing in a whole class context and raise awareness of the target language. According to Nation and Newton (2009), this type of whole class activity can develop disagreeing as a speaking skill. As this was a short activity, it was predicted that students would be able to easily understand and achieve the aim, to produce phrases for disagreeing with the controversial statements. It was anticipated that teacher would be able to elicit several phrases for disagreeing.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

The aim of the activity was for teacher to elicit phrases for disagreeing, however, this was not made clear enough to the students at the beginning of the activity. This resulted in students misunderstanding the activity, illustrated in Excerpt 17.

Excerpt 17

01. T: ... to begin with today i’m going to give you some phrases. and
02. i want you to disagree with me, ok. and tell me how you do it.
03. ok, so first sentence. **english food is the best** in the world.
04. ((laughter))
05. T: do you agree?
06. F: no.
07. T: no? so how would you disagree? what would you say to me? give
08. me some phrases.
09. F: english food has, has many-
10. T: ok, yes. how would you disagree? how would you disagree? i
11. want some phrases for disagreeing.
12. L: i don't think so.
13. T: i don't think so. good, good, what do you think?
In line 1, the activity begins by T giving a short introduction to the activity. A lack of further and more clearly elaborated explanation meant students did not understand, and were unwilling to offer disagreement phrases. Nevertheless, T waits for responses from the students but none are forthcoming. In line 5, T then asks “do you agree?” to which F answers “no”, then in line 10, after being asked how he would disagree, F attempts to give a reason why he does not think English food is the best in the world, meaning that no disagreeing phrases were elicited. In line 17, T tries with the next statement by saying “Real Madrid, Real Madrid is the best football team in the world. Agree? Disagree?” to which F agrees. This is a poorly chosen statement to use in this context as it is easy to agree with. In line 21, N shows further misunderstanding by saying “Actually, I don’t under- I am not interested in football.” T’s assumption when planning the activity, that students would have strong views on elite Spanish football are shown to be misguided, highlighted in the response by N that he is not actually interested in football.

The following excerpt is a continuation of the dialogue, showing the final effort by T to elicit some disagreement phrases.

**Excerpt 18**

24. T: ok, ok, ok. well here is one for you, japan is better than
25. korea.
26. ((laughter))
27. T: disagree?
29. T: how do you disagree? how would you say? how would you disagree?
hello? hello. how would you disagree? actually m, m actually
not m, h can you join m so you are working with a partner. how
would you disagree? how would you disagree. what would you say.
japan is better than korea. what would you say to me in
english?
J: korea is better.
T: korea is better? ok, ok. alright, ok. let me give you some
phrases, give you some phrases and i'll tell you what i mean.
ok. have a look at these phrases ok, um these are phrases that
you can use to disagree, ok. you can say things like, i'm
sorry i can't agree with you, ok. no way, i totally disagree,
ok...

At this point, T’s attempt is met by laughter from the students, it is clear that the activity has failed to achieve its aim of producing disagreement phrases. Of note throughout the dialogue is the large amount of teacher talk, as T persists in attempting to help students produce the disagreeing phrases. Furthermore, in line 29, T is latching (Walsh 2002) one turn on to another to keep the talk going. This does not allow for any student contribution, and ultimately results, in T’s turn in line 36, in which he offers the disagreement phrases to the students. At this point students are “‘being fed the lines’ instead of being allowed time and space to formulate… responses” (ibid: 16), a non-effective interactional strategy from T.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

The HLT did not match the ALT well in this activity. This is reiterated in my field notes in which I said:

I did not give good enough instructions in the beginning of the class. The aims were not made very clear. Also, the first activity, my instructions were not very clear – I must make it very clear that I’m looking for explicit phrases for disagreeing and try to elicit them in a better way than I did.
Nevertheless, the aim of the activity offers a potentially useful method of introducing the target language as well as allowing students to be aware of their current ability to disagree, and is therefore an improvement on simply giving students language sheets. For the activity to be successful in future iterations, a) better, more carefully chosen statements need to be chosen so that students can disagree more easily. b) The activity needs to be premised with better instructions so that the activity’s aim, for students to offer various phrases for disagreeing, is made clear to students at the beginning of the activity.

**Exercise 2 Use controversial statement cards to practice disagreeing**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

Being able to disagree is an important part of exploratory talk for language learning (Mercer 1996), however, disagreeing is a dispreferred reaction that can cause discomfort among speakers (Garcia 1989). This activity, designed by myself, aims to help learners practice disagreeing in a controlled context. One anticipated problem was that students would simply agree with the statement, therefore, nullifying opportunities to practice disagreeing. However, it was anticipated that most students would relatively easily and successfully make disagreement dialogues using the cards.

**Actual learning trajectory**

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

The practice phase of this activity lasted for approximately eleven minutes meaning students had extensive time to practice disagreeing. Excerpt 19 highlights one turn between N and L near the beginning of the practice phase of the activity.
Excerpt 19

47. L: don't you think in korea. money is the most important factor?
48. N: no i i'm not so sure about that.
49. L: oh really? why do you think so?
50. N: there are many important things better than money uh (.)
lake your dream or uh and uh uh (. ) surrounding hwangyung?
51. L: haha. circumstance?
52. N: circumstance. and reason why you work in your job.
53. L: ok. uh...

The turn begins with L in line 47, who picks up and reads a new card, saying “Don't you think in Korea, money is the most important factor?” In line 49, N uses the target language to disagree, saying “No, I’m not sure about that”. In the following turn, L challenges N’s disagreement, to which N justifies why he disagrees, giving the reason that “There are many important things better than money uh like your dream or uh and uh uh surrounding hwangyung?” At the end of this turn, N asks for help finding a Korean word he does not know, recycling a previously practiced strategy. In the following turn, L scaffolds N’s talk by offering the English translation, ‘circumstance’, thereby illustrating one of Ko et al.’s (2003) six functions of scaffolding: to control N’s minor frustration at not knowing the English word. The turn comes to an end in line 55, as L agrees with N’s point of view about why there are more important things than money.

Although the focus of this session is disagreeing, in this activity several features of exploratory talk for language learning are talked into being within the discourse, i.e. disagreeing, respectful challenging, giving reasons, scaffolding and coming to agreement. Here the “reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction” (Seedhouse 2010: 2) is highlighted. In other words, the transcript shows how the pedagogical focus of the activity, primarily to practice disagreeing and secondarily to
enhance exploratory talk for language learning, is transformed into interaction (ibid).

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

Students could extensively practice disagreeing with their partner using the cues in the statement cards. Incidentally, the activity also offered a suitable context for practice of several features of exploratory talk for language learning as well and the recycling of previously practiced strategies. For these reasons, the HLT successfully matched the ALT in this activity.

**Exercise 3 Make your own controversial statements**

**Summary**

For exercise 3, designed by myself, students had already used the target language in the previous activities and by now understood the aim of the session – to practice the strategy of disagreeing. It was, therefore, predicted that students would be able to achieve the aim of the activity, producing statements and using them as a basis for dialogues that integrate the target disagreeing language. It was again hoped that allowing students to plan their own controversial statements would help language production “because it allows part of the work to be done before the task so that there are less things to attend to while the task is being performed” (Nation & Newton 2009:117).

During the practice phase, the activity offered space to practice the target strategy, but also recycle several elements of exploratory talk for language learning, for example asking questions and reaching agreement (Mercer & Littleton 2007). This meant that the aim of the activity, to practice disagreeing in a more flexible context than the previous activity, was achieved. Students had control over the content of the statements, making them relevant to their own lives. Moreover, the activity offered
incidental practice of elements of exploratory talk for language learning. Therefore, the HLT met the ALT in this activity. The success of the session as a whole was reiterated in the post session interview with M, who when asked what she thought of the session as a whole, replied “It was good, uh disagree is really need”, suggesting that M felt the session was useful.
Giving Opinions

Giving your opinions about a topic allows you to express what you really think about a topic and say what you really want to say. In this lesson, you will practice giving your opinion on simple topics using the target language.

Giving opinions language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I think that ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I don’t think that ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In my opinion ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My opinion is (that) ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In my experience ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like to say (that) ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can I answer that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can I respond to that?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise 1

Fill in the questions using the school subjects in the box. Then ask your partner's opinion using your questions. Your partner will give their opinion and also give a reason why. Use the worksheet to note down your partner's opinion and reason why they think so. Try to ask follow up questions and make conversations using the questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Art</th>
<th>Business Studies</th>
<th>Drama</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Geography</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Math</td>
<td>Social Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>PE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Do you think ________________ is difficult?
2. How do you feel about ________________?
3. Do you prefer ________________ or ________________?
4. What do you think about ________________?
5. Do you think that ________________ is easy?
6. What's your opinion of ________________?
7. Are you interested in ________________?
8. Do you think ________________ is boring?
**Make notes about your partners answers here:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Opinion</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Exercise 2

Pick an opinion card, use the card to give an opinion about the topic on the card. Practice giving reasons for your opinions. Your partner will ask follow up questions and clarify and ask for comprehension if necessary. Use the cards to have conversations about the topic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. watch / TV ...</th>
<th>2. learn / English ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. boring.</td>
<td>a. easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. entertaining.</td>
<td>b. difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. a waste of time.</td>
<td>c. important for my future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. ride / a bicycle ...</th>
<th>4. travel / by air ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. healthy.</td>
<td>a. expensive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. hard work.</td>
<td>b. quick.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. good for the environment.</td>
<td>c. convenient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. use / social networks ...</th>
<th>6. live / alone ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. enhances social interaction.</td>
<td>a. easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. reduces social interaction.</td>
<td>b. boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. addictive.</td>
<td>c. lonely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. go / abroad ...</th>
<th>8. play / computer games ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. a great experience.</td>
<td>a. a lot of fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. expensive.</td>
<td>b. boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. a luxury.</td>
<td>c. addictive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9. watch / movies ...</th>
<th>10. shop ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. entertaining.</td>
<td>a. fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. a waste of time.</td>
<td>b. boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. relaxing.</td>
<td>c. expensive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>11. save / money ...</th>
<th>12. do / regular exercise ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. hard.</td>
<td>a. beneficial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. easy.</td>
<td>b. hard to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. pointless.</td>
<td>c. time-consuming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13. do / homework ...</th>
<th>14. cook ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. important for my studies.</td>
<td>a. easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. not important for my studies.</td>
<td>b. difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. boring.</td>
<td>c. only for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise 1 Give your opinion about school subjects

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

Given that most students in the class had only recently left school, it was anticipated that in this activity, adapted from Adams (2014), students would be able to form coherent and interesting opinions about school subjects that could then be developed into opinion based dialogue. However, one anticipated problem was that students may not move beyond the simple answers to questions and not exploit the full potential of the activity. Students may, for example, lack motivation to engage in discussion about school subjects.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 20 highlights one turn of the activity, in which L and P are giving their opinion about English as a school subject.

Excerpt 20

22. L: ok. how do you feel about english?
25. P: because english is not only language study.
27. P: i think english is uh, about cultural (0.5)
29. P: about learning culture too. i’m interested in different
30. culture. uh, uh i feel english is very interesting tool.
31. L: about what culture do you, did you like?
32. P: europe and america.
33. L: oh.
34. P: but language is so difficult hhaha. yeah, so i have
35. trouble.
36. L: oh yes. me too.
37. P: trouble to learn.
38. L: i think especially speaking is difficult.
41. P: uh when i saw american drama. i don’t understand that context.
42. L: oh. you don’t understand their thinking?
43. P: yes...

The excerpt begins with L using the activity question to ask, “How do you feel about English?” P then uses the target language to give his opinion, that English is very interesting. In line 25, 27 and 29, P then develops his opinion by giving a reason why, that learning English also means learning culture. However, in line 34, P caveats his opinion by saying that English is difficult. L then agrees with P in line 36 and in line 38 is also able to give her opinion on English as a subject – that it is difficult. P expands on this in line 41 by saying that he finds it difficult to understand the way native English speakers think, to which L then agrees. The turn ends when, in line 41, P gives the example that he doesn’t understand the context of American dramas as an extension of his previous point that English speakers thinking style is difficult to understand to which L clarifies through paraphrasing – a previously covered strategy, and P agrees. Interestingly, the example also gave students opportunity to share their English learning experiences, thereby entering into the experiential learning process (Kolbe 2014) of reflecting and learning from those real-world experiences.

*Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched*

My field notes indicated that including a model dialogue may have been beneficial:
“I think what was lacking today was a model of at least 4 or five turns of a dialogue that they can use to practice. It would be a good idea also to recycle some of the follow up questions and have those available in the class today.”

A model dialogue would provide an opportunity in the introduction phase to make students aware of the target language in context as well as to guide students to use this activity as an opportunity to recycle follow up questions. One, therefore, should be included in future iterations of the activity. Furthermore, the students did not use the grid to note their partner’s responses. Instead, they used the practice phase to simply practice the dialogues. Future iterations should simply allow for free dialogue and not instruct students to make arbitrary notes during the practice phase. Nevertheless, the activity successfully met the aim of allowing students to use the target language to practice giving opinions, as well as offering opportunity for incidental recycling of previously practiced strategies and enter into experiential learning by reflecting on previous real world learning experiences.

Exercise 2 Use opinion cards to create mini dialogues

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

It was conjectured that this activity, adapted from Josiah (2014), would be somewhat more challenging than exercise 1 as students were expected to form opinions ‘on the fly’, therefore, with less thinking time to consider their opinions. It was anticipated that students may struggle more in this activity, however, would be able to achieve the aim of practicing giving opinions within dialogue. Furthermore, the task offers opportunity to talk on a variety of topics, which would encourage students to use diverse vocabulary and not be restricted by any one topic on which they may only have limited background knowledge (Nation & Newton 2009).
Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 21 represents one turn in exercise 2 between L and P.

Excerpt 21

233. L: ok. i, i, i don’t think that playing computer game is funny.
234. P: why?
235. L: because i, i have played on twice but i don’t addictive about computer games, but i like playing smartphone games,
236. yes. uh computer games not my style.
237. ((laughter))
238. L: but i think that-
239. P: i like, i very very like computer games very well.
240. L: oh.
241. P: uh, when i studied sunung. ((korean sat exam))
243. P: uh. in school i studied hard and coming back home. i was playing, i played computer games all night.
244. L: hahaha all night?
245. P: yes. uh i like it.
246. D: i also think uh, computer game, playing computer games is very addictive.
247. L: m::m.
248. D: when i was twelve years old. at that time i played games almost every day.
249. ((laughter))
250. D: so i can’t study hard. so i uh, i don’t like playing computer games these days. so.

In line 233, L picks up a card and, using the target language states her opinion; that she does not think playing computer games is funny. P then challenges L to give a reason why, to which L gives her reason, that she doesn’t get addicted to them and they are not
her style. In line 241, P offers his own, different opinion on the topic; that he enjoys computer games, followed in line 242 with L’s change of state token, “oh” (Heritage 1998), to show that the new information has been received. P then gives his own reason, that they offer relaxation after studying all day. In line 249, D also uses the target opinion language to offer his own opinion on the topic; that he finds computer games addictive, however points out, in line 255, that for this reason, he does not like playing computer games these days. Laughter also occurs in several places within the dialogue (lines 238, 246 and 253). Lynch (2010: 146), has shown that “laughter may serve as a signal that we share the joke teller’s beliefs, biases or preferences”. As all the students in the group had a common interest, playing computer games, they were able to laugh at ideas, such as not being addicted to games, playing games all night, or playing every day to relieve exam stress, finding the truth in these assertions funny. Such laughter may have a positive benefit, in that it can “function to facilitate in-group bonds” (Lynch ibid: 147).

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

The activity achieved its aim, for students to practice giving opinions and using them for opinion based dialogue. Incidentally, students used the space within the activity to respectfully challenge each other as well as give reasons for their opinions, characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning. Furthermore, students could find common interests and laugh together at each other’s preferences and biases, potentially reinforcing in-group bonds. Therefore, the HLT met the ALT in this activity.

6.5 Iteration 1 reflection

McKenney and Reeves’ (2013) description of design-based research highlights the need for structured reflection at the end of an iteration. Table 4 in chapter 4 describes the ‘four strategies’ method of structured reflection which aims to cultivate improvements to both the intervention and practices within the research. The following
offers structured reflection at the end of the first iteration of research.

Point reflection

Data points are emphasized in point reflection in that they may form the basis of unplanned insight. The data taken for reflection on the first iteration are the transcript Excerpts 8 and 19, taken from the strategy training sessions. The insight from these excerpts is that language produced during these activities incidentally contained many of the characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning. In Excerpt 8, while the primary aim of the activity is to ask for clarification, students also respectfully challenged each other while exploring the topic of whether or not computers will get more expensive. Furthermore, in Excerpt 19, during an activity designed to practice disagreeing, students were also able to give opinions, offer reasons, scaffold each other’s language and reach agreement. What is highlighted here is that both the activity’s primary focus of strategy practice and the secondary focus of developing student ability to use exploratory talk for language learning are achieved within the interaction. The unplanned insight here is that strategy training activities may, therefore, have more benefit than the stated aim of simply practicing the targeted oral communicative strategy; they may also provide space for students to develop exploratory talk for language learning more generally, as and when this secondary pedagogical focus is transformed into interaction (Seedhouse 2010) within the space of the activity.

Line reflection

Line reflection involves investigating a particular instance in time during the intervention and consider the norms, related to ‘actor, process and product’ in order to improve the intervention in future iterations. The chosen instance for reflection in the first iteration was the point in phase 1 of the intervention, in which I, as teacher, instructed students to make ground rules. I was worried that students would associate the concept of making rules with the kind of activity found in elementary schools and that
the students, as adult learners not take the activity seriously. The following excerpt highlights my instructions to the students:

Excerpt 22

01. T: ...ok we are going to try to make some rules. ok rules for talking and they are going to be our class rules, ok.
02. this is not, it’s not like it’s different to um elementary school, it’s not elementary school, or anything, this is like u:m class discussion. i don’t care about, don’t do this, don’t do that. it’s not what’s important ok. what is important is to try to encourage each other to do our, you know, to do the best quality of talk, ok...

My concern is evident in the instructions as I make explicit that students should not treat this as an elementary school activity. To remediate this, I then pointed out that I wanted students not to include rules that use ‘don’t’ and instead focus on things that students can ‘do’ in order to engage in exploratory talk for language learning in their discussions. The Thinking Together project (e.g. Dawes et al. 2003) also emphasizes the need to make only positive rules and I would suggest that this is particularly critical when creating ground rules for talk in adults. Instructions should emphasize the need for students to create rules that reflect conduct they would hope to embody in a high standard of academic discussion. Students should know that the rules are more than a set of arbitrary do’s and don’ts that as adults they have moved beyond, and instead be representative of a standard of discourse that they are expected to achieve in the adult language learning context.

Triangle reflection

Triangle reflection requires considering an issue by looking at it from the perspective of different participants and reflecting on what can be learned. The point chosen for further consideration at this triangle reflection point is the issue of how many
and how often strategy sessions should be taught over the 10-week course (briefly referred to at the beginning of the analysis of phase 2). During the first iteration, the eight strategy sessions were taught simply at points that felt appropriate during the semester, for example at the end of a unit of the course book. Contrasting perspectives were collected on this issue, including student post session and final interviews and my own field notes.

Of the two students who were interviewed at the end of the course, student F, when asked whether there were enough strategy training days, stated that he wanted to do more strategy training than was offered in the course and that he liked using the target language phrases and speaking often in class.

The second student, P, similarly was asked about the timing and placement of the strategy session, and replied that longer time, up to two instead of one classes, should be spent learning strategies. However, when asked whether the class studied enough strategies, P agreed that the eight opinions covered in class were enough. He also pointed out that he felt an appropriate time for the sessions was at the end of each week.

Moreover, during the post ‘giving opinions’ strategy session interview, student J felt that while the strategy training session was useful, she emphasized the need for book work in class, saying “Yes activity is ok, but, but I like writing, I think using the book is very useful, useful yeah”. This was perceived as an attempt to ask the teacher to spend more time using the course book.

This was also a concern of mine as there are (albeit loose) institutional constraints that teachers are expected to make good use of the course textbooks, as students buy the textbooks and may complain if they are underused at the end of the course. By extension, my concern was for how the sessions would fit in with the preexisting curriculum. My field notes suggested that having the sessions approximately once a week, run over one lesson at the end of a textbook unit provided a point that was not overly intrusive into the preexisting curriculum. While the data by no means provides conclusive evidence, the need for a balance between preexisting curriculum
and reasonable integration of the strategy sessions, means that I will continue to teach
the sessions as taught in the first iteration. However, the new course syllabus, issued to
students will make clear that weekly sessions are part of the course so that students are
aware from the outset of the course.

Circle reflection

Circle reflection represents consideration of the methods used to identify issues
and problems that are in need of address. I was somewhat disappointed at my own
inability to produce detailed field notes throughout the first iteration. My field notes
comprised of occasional note taking in class and smartphone audio recordings taken
directly after each session of the intervention. However, the audio recordings rarely gave
much insight into the success or failure of any given session. Notes were often overly
general for example “students were engaged in the activities quite a lot” or “students
understood the activities quite well”.

This issue was raised during a tutorial session, in which I made the following
notes: “Field notes should be ethnographically richer. I should try to recall specifics of
what made an activity good or bad, be more specific and go into more detail”. Indeed,
in my future field note taking, I will try to recall more specific points of interest that
arise throughout the sessions and try to reflect on the good and bad moments in more
detail.
CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS 3: TALK SKILLS INTERVENTION

ITERATION 2

7.1 Phase 1 of Talk Skills intervention: intended to realized version

The second cycle of phase 1 continued to be offered in two lessons. However, after implementing the first iteration, it became clear that reorganization of the lessons was necessary in order to fit the activities in their most appropriate session. It was also noted that in the first iteration the terms task, exercise and activity were used somewhat interchangeably. For consistency, only the term ‘activity’ is used in the second iteration.

In this second iteration, session 1 began with activity 1, a discussion talking in English, followed by activity 2, brainstorm words associated with talk. Activity 3 was cut out of the first cycle because of time restraints, but added in to this cycle. The activity asked students to describe talk words and use them in a relevant sentence. Activity 4, asking students to find out if they are good listeners, was moved to session 2 in the first cycle, again because of time limitations, but kept in session 1 in this cycle.

Session 2 began with activity 1, a discussion in which students give examples of effective and poor group discussion. Activity 2 asked students to brainstorm characteristics of good group discussion. This was then compared and contrasted with my own characteristics of effective group discussion. Finally, in activity 3, groups of students created ground rules for effective group discussion, the groups then chose their most important rules which became ground rules for the class. The structure of session two was therefore improved in two ways: a) this freed up more time for students to spend discussing each activity in more depth and b) the activities were more clearly thematised, in that the activities in session one were all related to the need to talk and listen in English class, while session 2 developed students’ understanding of good group talk.
Analysis in this chapter again uses the adapted version of Dierdrop et al.’s (2011) data analysis matrix outlined in chapter 7. In this second iteration, a distinction is made between ‘unchanged’, ‘revised’ and ‘new’ activities. Revised activities are those that have been modified from their previous version in the first iteration. Unchanged activities are those which are used again and not changed from the first iteration. New activities are those added for the first time in the second iteration.
7.2 Analysis of Intervention Phase 1

Phase 1 Session 1 ‘Understand the need to talk and listen’

_Screenshot image of materials: Phase 1 Session 1_

**Language Skills: Lesson 1 Understand the Need to Talk and Listen**

**Activity 1 Discuss these questions about talking in English**

1. *In your other English classes, did you talk a lot or a little?*
2. *Do you think you are good at talking in English? Why or why not?*
3. *When you speak in English are you talkative or quiet?*
4. *Do you enjoy talking in English? Why or why not?*
5. *Why is it important to talk and listen in your English lessons?*
6. *In what way do you think talking helps thinking?*

**Activity 2 Brainstorm words associated with talk**

Brainstorm all the words related to talk you can think of.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words associated with talk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>talk, describe, say, …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discuss</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity 3 Describe talk words

In groups, take turns to pick a talk word card, define the word and use it in an example sentence. Help each other with any difficult words!

Activity 4 Are you a good listener?

Spend a few minutes thinking about your own answers to the questions in the table. Then interview your partner. Do not write down the answers, but listen carefully and try to remember as much as you can. Be prepared to report back to the class.

**Things you do indoors and outdoors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your favorite thing to do at home?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What activities do you like to do with your friends?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where do you like to hang out with your friends?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you like to do in your free time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who is your favorite person to talk to? Why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What's your favorite restaurant? Why?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the activity, be prepared to answer this question:

Was your partner a good listener? Why?
Activity 1 Discuss talking in English (Revised)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

According to Eslami-Rasekh (2005: 199), discussion is a useful method teachers may use to “relay information drawn from research.” Indeed, the intention of this discussion was to help learners understand that it is important to use English within their language classes in order to improve (e.g. Swain 2000; Lantolf 2000; Johnson 2004), with revisions to the activity reflecting this assumption. The revisions a) developed questions that aimed to help raise student awareness of themselves as English learners and speakers, and b) cut out any questions that enquired about the students as first language speakers as this was a source of confusion in the first iteration. It was anticipated that this change would make it easier for the learners to reflect on themselves as language learners and become more aware both of their previous language learning endeavors and why it is important to talk and listen actively in language class. It was hoped that the activity would give students the opportunity to learn through Dewey’s (1933: 3) notion of reflective thinking: “the kind of thinking that consists of turning a subject over in the mind and giving it serious and consecutive consideration”.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 1 highlights one group of three students answering question 2, ‘Do you think you are good at talking in English? Why or why not?’ G begins by asking the question to his group members in line 53. The question opens up a ten turn discussion, as shown below:

Excerpt 1

53. G: do you think you are good at talking in english? why or
54. why not.
55. M: i don’t think. because i think i’m not good at talking
every subject. i mean, i think i’m good at talking some
subjects that is my field, but it’s (.) like physics or
something like that. because i’ve studied a little bit
hard learning. but in other subjects i’m not good at it
(.) how about you?
G: i think i’m not good at talking English (.). i’m going to
go australia on this vacation.
B: you are going to go there?
G: yes. so, to volunteer in our university.
M: you mean the volunteer?
G: yes. the volunteer program at konkuk university. so i
went to new zealand and australia and i have a chance to
speak english, but it’s very hard to. so i take this
class.
M: i think you can improve you’re english very well.
G: hahaha.
M: how about you b?
B: um, i don’t think i am good at talking english. um, i
forgot words ( ) during my speaking english. uh,
and i’m a little bit nervous around people.

M answers the question first in line 55, by stating that the quality of his language
depends on the topic or field he is talking about. If the topic of discussion is one that he
knows well, he can speak well about it. However, if the topic is unfamiliar to him, he
cannot speak well. G then answers in line 61, by saying that he is not good at speaking
in English and it is very hard. However, he is taking the class in order to prepare for a
trip to New Zealand and Australia. Finally, in line 73, B answers by saying that he is
also not good at speaking English because he sometimes forgets words while speaking
and is a nervous speaker. All three speakers used the question as an opportunity to
reflect on their English speaking abilities and explain their difficulties when using their
L2.
Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

By using the revised discussion questions, students were able to successfully express their thoughts about themselves as English language speakers, highlighted in the long turns students used to reflect on whether or not they thought they were good English speakers. The success of the activity was reiterated in my field notes in which I wrote:

Students were engaged in the activities throughout. The first activity was much, much better than the one in the beginning of last semester because students could talk especially about English. It was a good chance to raise their awareness of talk... There may be some anxiety about perceived lack of English ability and talking about it in activity 1 may help assuage the anxiety to good effect. Sharing language learning experiences has benefit.

I felt that students showed interest in and benefited from this kind of self-reflection. I also felt that by sharing their weaknesses and limitations, students could reduce some of their anxiety about talking in English, which may in turn help them to speak more in class discussions. This belief was also shared by Horwitz et al., who found that that “student discussion of concerns and difficulties in language learning” (1986: 128) helped to identify sources of anxiety, offered support to students and helped to alleviate anxiety within the language classroom.

Student M in the post session interview, also thought the activity was useful, stating:

Very useful, yeah... First thing is, I can talk, I can speak in English, that’s the most important part... I can remember even I didn’t try, even I didn’t speak English... so, just a chance to talk English is best... And second, second important thing is just discuss with other people... I can hear other peoples have opinion... that’s b- uh that’s so nice.
M believed he benefitted from the activity both because he could speak in English at length and because he could hear other people’s opinions when answering the questions. As such, the HLT met the ALT in this activity.

**Activity 2 Brainstorm words associated with talk (Unchanged)**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

Students responded well to the brainstorming activity in the first iteration and it was predicted that this set of students would also respond well by thinking together to generate various talk vocabulary words.

**Actual learning trajectory**

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

Excerpt 2 illustrates A, C, H and S brainstorming words associated with talk.

**Excerpt 2**

07. A: question.
08. T: ((looks at c’s activity sheet)) ok. **friend.** ok, **express**, **speak** very good. share, share opinions.
09. C: other people can be here. because we talk, we need the other people.
10. A: m::m.
11. C: m::m.
12. S: question. talk. ↑ teaching?
13. A: teaching?
14. C: m::m.
15. S: shout.
17. S: shout hahaha. **oh** how do you spell shout?
The excerpt begins in line 7 with A offering the word ‘question’ to C, the designated note taker in the group. T then reads the words friend, express, speak and share from C’s sheet, offering positive feedback on the words. C continues by stating that other people can be noted down as we need other people in order to talk. Next, S offers the words question and talk, then also suggests the word teaching which is accepted by C. S also then suggests the word shout. Finally, in line 19, H offers the word confident. In all the students brainstorming lasted for 39 turns and the group independently generated 18 words.

During the whole class plenary students from both groups shared their words. Collectively, students produced 32 words shown in the box below:

**Words generated from Activity 2**

| confidence | eye contact | friend | language | discussion | listen | express | speech | sing | body language | teaching | language | friend | lecture | shout | tone | practice | conversation | talkative | focus | chance | topic | scold | pronounce | argue | opinion | question | emphasize | grammar | opera | facial | expression |
|------------|-------------|--------|----------|------------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------------|----------|----------|--------|---------|-------|-------|----------|--------------|-----------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-----------|-------|---------|----------|-----------|---------|-------|--------|

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

The HLT met the ALT successfully in this activity as students in both groups were able to generate words and phrases associated with talk, which, I felt, in turn facilitated awareness raising of the ways in which talk is used. My field notes pointed to the success of the activity, in which I stated:

*Students understood the aim of the activity well and coming up with brainstorming words was a good way to think about talk and the different ideas associated with talk.*
I believe the activity had a similar effect as that which was found by Flaitz et al. (1995) when attempting metacognitive awareness raising in Spanish classes, that brainstorming “dynamically involved students in developing a general overarching awareness of language learning strategies”. In the case of this activity, the brainstorming successfully offered general awareness raising of the different concepts and ideas associated with talk.

**Activity 3 Describe talk words (New)**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

This activity, adapted from Dawes et al. (2004), was taken out of the first iteration because of time limitations, but included here in the second iteration. The activity is taken directly from the *Thinking Together* programme (2004) and asked students to take turns picking a ‘talk word’, describing it and putting it in an example sentence. The aim of the activity was for students to learn about the different things you can do with talk by defining and using talk words in English. It was anticipated that the activity was appropriate for L2 learners as a) students are exposed to the meaning, form and use of talk words (Nation 2005) and b) because “appropriately focused attention to language items can make a very positive contribution to learning” (Nation & Newton 2009: 2).

To prepare students for the activity, T first introduced the words on a PowerPoint slide. Students were also encouraged to help each other with definitions and example sentences if difficulty arose during any particular turn.

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

Excerpt 3 illustrates M, G and B working together to offer definitions and example sentences of the word persuade.
Excerpt 3

384. G: ↑persuade?
385. M: uh. move other people’s mind to ___ something.
386. B: example. uh i persuade someone to help me.

M begins by reading the word persuade from the laminated card. In the following turn, G repeats the word with raised intonation, which leads to M offering a definition of the word in line 385. In the following turn, B puts the word into an example sentence. The excerpt shows the group working together as a group to generate both a definition and an example sentence of the word persuade. Similar turns continued throughout the activity, at times with contributions from myself as teacher.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

Students successfully completed the activity by working together to generate definitions of talk words put them into example sentences. That the activity was a success was reiterated in my field notes, in which I wrote:

Putting the words into sentences and into context helped to really understand the meaning of the words and why they were important.

I felt that the activity helped students to better understand words associated with talk, thereby raising awareness of things we can do with talk. When M was asked what he thought of the activity, he noted:

That’s useful because we can uh we can describe words and we ca- we talk, uh we put that words in the sentence and it makes something... I mean we put that words into a sentence and we describe that word’s meaning that was really good.

Here, M is saying that he found the activity useful because he could make sentences with the words. In sum, the aim of the activity was met and both student and I found the activity to be beneficial, therefore the HLT met the ALT.
Activity 4 Are you a good listener? (Unchanged)

Summary

In iteration one, this activity was successful as students could practice their listening and through this, become more aware of good listening skills. The activity is unchanged and it was anticipated that the activity be successful for the same reasons.

While the on-task phase worked similarly well, in the plenary, as teacher, I took a slightly different approach to eliciting the characteristics of good listeners. Whereas in the first iteration I elicited characteristics of good listeners from the whole class at the end of the activity, in the second iteration, I asked individual students why their partner was a good listener, which did not work well. Students simply stated their partner remembered therefore was a good listener and an opportunity to discuss the various characteristics of good listeners that a whole class plenary offers was missed. The whole class plenary is therefore a necessary and important part of the activity as it is the point at which students can become more richly aware of the characteristics of good listeners, more so than is possible than by asking students individually.

When asked about the activity in the post session interview, M stated: That was good. I think I like to talk in English so I think I like all activities related with English. While this is positive, no mention was made of any raised awareness of good listening. Likewise, my field notes pointed to a similar conclusion:

The final activity, talk about listening seemed to be quite good. The problem with the activity was that students found it quite difficult to say why their partner was a good listener. Perhaps in the future, you could have a bit of a plenary about why listening is important and the characteristics of good listening.

This means that while the ‘on-task’ phase of the activity worked well, it is crucial to ask the whole class for characteristics of good group talk rather than ask students individually. With this caveat in mind for future iterations, the HLT met the ALT.
Phase 1 Session 2 ‘Understand the need to talk and listen’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 1 Session 2

Lesson 2: How to Work Effectively in a Group Activity Sheet

Activity 1 Discuss examples of effective and poor previous group discussions

Discuss these questions. Give examples of your own experiences.

1. Describe an effective group discussion you have had. Why was it good?
2. Now describe a poor group discussion you have had. Why was it not effective?

Activity 2 Brainstorm characteristics of effective group discussions

In your group brainstorm the characteristics of a good discussion. Can you think of five or more characteristics? Add them in the box below.

A good discussion has the following characteristics:
Characteristics of effective group talk

• *Everyone listens actively*
• *People ask questions*
• *People share relevant information*
• *Ideas may be challenged*
• *People give reasons*
• *People talk together to understand ideas*
• *Everyone is encouraged to contribute*
• *Ideas and opinions treated with respect*
• *There is an atmosphere of trust*
• *There is a sense of shared purpose*
• *The group seeks agreement for joint decisions*
## Ground Rules for Talk

### Activity 3 Make ground rules for our class discussions

*Thinking about the characteristics of good group talk, now brainstorm a list of five ‘Ground Rules’ for when you talk in a group in your English class. These rules will help you to talk effectively in English, in your groups:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules for talking in a group</th>
<th>Reason why this would help us to talk better in a group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now choose your top 2 ground rules and tell the class. These will become our ground rules for talk.
Activity 1 Discuss examples of effective and poor previous group discussions (Unchanged)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

Activity 1 invited students to discuss and give examples of effective and poor group discussion experiences. The activity draws on experiential learning theory, summarized as follows:

Experiential learning indicates that it is the product of reflection upon experience, with the nature of the reflection and the quality of the experience, [that is] significant to the overall learning. The outcomes of experiential learning appear to be diverse; ranging from the acquisition of a new skill or personal development through to social consciousness raising. (Fowler 2008: 427)

In this way, it was anticipated that learners will be able to develop their understanding of good and bad group discussion by reflecting on their own experiences.

In the previous iteration, while students reinterpreted the activity to describe general characteristics of good and bad group discussion, this was found to be suitable reinterpretation as it still met the wider goal, to raise awareness of what it means to be in a good (and bad) discussion. The activity questions were therefore unchanged. It was anticipated that the students would have little trouble discussing the questions, but that the questions would potentially be open to similar reinterpretation.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 4 shows A working with group members S and E to describe a poor group discussion.

Excerpt 4

36. A: uh. you talk about effective group discussion. i
37. describe poor group discussion. in my experience.
During the on-task phase of the activity, students made the correct interpretation of the task and gave specific examples of their good and bad discussion experiences. In this excerpt, A is describing his poor group discussion experience. He is explaining in his long turn beginning in line 39, that older group members stifle his ability to contribute to the discussion. This is further highlighted in lines 48 and 50, in which A respectively points out that in his previous discussion, he cannot describe his own ideas and that the senior members usually thought their ideas were right. Here, A is explaining a common issue within the Korean tertiary education learning context, that “the hierarchical relation between superiors and subordinates or between the old and the young is deeply reflected in Korean tertiary education” (Lee 2001: 15). In other words, older students in Korean group discussions tend to hold a hierarchically authoritative position of leadership, which may result in a tendency of elder members to control and dominate group discussions resulting in younger members feeling unable to contribute to the discussion meaningfully. In line 46, E attempts to show understanding by summarizing A’s problem, suggesting that she is also aware of this issue.
raising awareness (Fowler 2008) of what should and should not be happening during their own L2 discussions.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

Coughlan and Duff (1994) have shown that the same task, when given to different sets of students, can produce quite different results. This was also the case here as, while students in the first iteration reinterpreted the task instructions to mean discuss general characteristics of good and bad group discussions, students in the second iteration carried out the task as was intended by myself, the task designer, using the space as an opportunity to share their own experiences of good and bad group discussions. This in turn, provided opportunity to reflect on and become more aware of what students should and should not do in order to produce good group discussion. Furthermore, I wrote in my field notes that within the activity students “gave interesting examples that highlighted the characteristics of group talk,” adding weight to its success. The HLT, therefore, met the ALT in this activity.

**Activity 2 Brainstorm characteristics of effective group discussions (Unchanged)**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

This activity functioned as planned in the first iteration as students effectively worked together in groups to brainstorm characteristics of good group talk. It was anticipated that this second iteration will produce a similar outcome.

**Actual learning trajectory**

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

Excerpt 5 shows S and E working together to generate characteristics of effective group talk.
Excerpt 5

129. S: good group discussion. **active**, be active.
130. E: about the same goal. they have to figure out the
131. **emotion**.
132. S: try to find the way of the active. and in my case. i
133. think give the ideas as much as possible. that means
134. very freely.

The excerpt begins with S suggesting that in good group talk, students should be active. In the following turn, E suggests that firstly, students should share the same goal, but that it is important to ‘figure out the emotion’, possibly meaning students should work together to create a positive atmosphere, although clarification cannot be made. S then reiterates her previous point about being active and supports this with a personal example, that she tries to offer ideas in a discussion as much as possible. The excerpt highlights how students were focused and working towards completing the activity during the on-task phase.

In the whole class plenary, students shared their characteristics of effective group discussion, shown in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>active participation</th>
<th>active listening</th>
<th>effort</th>
<th>same goal</th>
<th>keeping promise</th>
<th>preparation</th>
<th>much ideas</th>
<th>choosing the ideas</th>
<th>passion</th>
<th>free atmosphere</th>
<th>leadership</th>
<th>positive attitude</th>
<th>no language barrier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The activity was followed up with teacher fronted talk, listing the characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning using the *Characteristics of effective group talk* page of the lesson materials.
**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

In the second iteration, students successfully completed the task by brainstorming characteristics of effective group talk. Indeed, Khodadady et al. have shown that brainstorming has a positive effect on students’ critical thinking, noting that “it does improve learners’ critical thinking skill in general and their ability to reach deductions in particular when they express themselves in the foreign language” (2011: 59). Through the activity, students thought critically about and became more aware of what constitutes good group work; shared their ideas as a class and compared them with my own ideal list of positive characteristics, which, by showing similarity and overlap, acted as an attempt to legitimize their own brainstormed ideas. Therefore, the HLT met the ALT in this activity.

**Activity 3 Make ground rules for class discussions (Unchanged)**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

**Conjecture of how well students would respond**

The concept of setting ground rules was successful in the first iteration of this intervention. This is congruent with Brookfield and Preskill (1999), who also advocate the creation of student generated ground rules in adult discussion classes, albeit in the L1 context. The authors draw on cooperative learning theory (e.g. Johnson et al. 1991a, 1991b), to note “we cannot assume that students possess the social and communicative skills necessary for collaboration; these need to be taught” (Brookfield & Preskill 1999: 44). Therefore, the activity was left unchanged in the second iteration. The aim of the activity was for groups to generate a list of ground rules with reasons why each rule was important, then use the rules the groups judged most important to create a class set of ground rules for talk. It was anticipated that students would successfully be able to complete the task and generate the rules from which the class rules can then be established.
Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

During the on-task phase of the activity, groups worked together to generate ground rules for talk and offer reasons why the rules are important. The following excerpt shows A, E and S generating the rule ‘respect each other’ and discussing why respect is important.

Excerpt 6

225. A: i think we need to respect about each other.
226. E: m:m, so ( ) not like discussion. like debate
227. hhaha. so you can respect each other. so show respect.
228. S: m:m. yes. so what to write down?
229. E: show respect.
230. A: if you don’t respect each other (. ) i don’t remember
231. word.
232. E: maybe i think it uh, make the discussion poor. uh what
233. do you think. the reason for show respect.
234. S: respect, uh, natural thing i think. natural.
235. E: oh yeah.
236. S: without respect, we can’t hear freely our ideas. because
237. without respect (. ) patience, uh respect. it can be a
238. little thick atmosphere, thick atmosphere, and um
239. ( ).

The excerpt begins with A suggesting that students should respect each other. In the following turn, E states that respect is a characteristic of debate, in which it is important to show respect in order for talk not to turn into dispute. In line 232, E offers a further reason why respect is important, because without respect, discussion may be poor. In line 234, S suggests that respect is a natural thing, and that without respect, it becomes difficult to listen to and share ideas, and that a lack of respect may produce a ‘thick
atmosphere’. The excerpt highlights how students were able to talk together, give their own opinions offer reasons for their opinions, and build on each other’s turns (characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning), as the activity intended.

The final list of ground rules the students generated is shown in the following table.

### Class ground rules

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideas may be challenged</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ask many questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyone listens actively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give reasons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate actively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek agreement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the lesson, A gave the following feedback on the activity:

_I think rule, rule. That word is some difficult... To make rule is some difficult but we share about our opinion about group discussion so it is good._

Here I interpret A’s feedback to mean that, while the process of sharing opinions in the activity was positive, the concept of making ‘rules’ is somewhat loaded as is implied in the following Cambridge dictionaries online definition: “An accepted principle or instruction that states the way things are or should be done, and tells you what you are allowed or are not allowed to do.” A was concerned that making ‘rules’ may have been perceived as overly restrictive to adult learners, who may not respond well to being told what they are or are not allowed to do. This was also a concern of mine before the first iteration.

I also stated in my own field notes for the lesson:

_Just spoke with A, he was saying the word rule has a difficult meaning. So it’s a little bit, you may have to try to change that a little bit for adult speakers... You_
might have to change the word rule to guideline, that might be an interesting development.

I noted that I agreed with A and that a possible future development would be to change the aim of the activity to making guidelines instead of rules in order to avoid possible negative interpretation of the word rule. However, with regard to the success of the activity, J noted in his post class interview ‘Yeah it will be useful and it will be useful in the later days.’ J felt that establishing the ground rules would be useful, and benefit future classes.

In the final post course interview, on the usefulness of the ground rules activity, A noted:

I think that is needed to motivate. You know we are printed it, wall. Every time we are see the rule so we are motivated from that. That is useful, but sometimes I think that we are already motivated.

Here A suggests that the rules were useful for motivating students, however he also pointed out that in the course, the students were already motivated to learn, as it is a class in which students register voluntarily and in which students are keen to learn. When asked if he looked at the rules on the wall, A further stated:

Sometimes maybe. You know when I come the morning in the class, no one was here in that class, just alone, when I was in the morning, then I see the rules...

While A did not always look at the rules, he was able to reflect on them at certain times, such as when he arrived early for class.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

Future iterations of the activity should change the concept of making ‘ground rules’ to making ‘guidelines’ for talk, to avoid possible negative interpretations of the word ‘rule’. Nevertheless, the activity offered two benefits; a) it allowed students to practice offering their own opinions, giving reasons for their opinions, scaffolding each
other’s language and building on each other’s turns. Students also felt the ground rules generated in the activity would / did benefit them and improve their class discussions. Therefore, with the caveat of the above stated change, the HLT met the ALT in the activity.

Activity 3 represents the end of phase one.

7.3 Analysis of Intervention Phase 2

The second iteration of phase 2 of the intervention followed the same eight session trajectory as the first iteration, namely:

1. Rejoinders and follow up questions
2. Requesting and giving clarification
3. Checking for comprehension
4. Asking for help
5. Asking for more details
6. Challenging and justifying
7. Disagreeing
8. Giving opinions

As recommended from analysis in iteration 1, the sessions were 50 minutes long (1 lesson), integrated into the course once a week, or at the end of a textbook unit. Changes were made to the individual sessions that arose from analysis in the first cycle. As in the analysis of phase 1, each activity in this second cycle will be noted as either ‘unchanged’, ‘revised’ or ‘new’.
Strategy training session 1 ‘Rejoinders and follow up questions

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 1

Using Rejoinders and Follow Up Questions: Information Sheet

Using rejoinders and follow up questions will help you to:
- Show you are listening
- Focus on the topic
- Keep the conversation going

Examples of rejoinders:

|-------------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|----------------|

Rejoinders can be used alone:
A: My favorite city is Seoul
B: Oh yeah?...

Or with a follow up question:
A: My favorite city is Seoul
B: I see. So why do you like it?

Rejoinders and follow up questions flow chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student A</th>
<th>Student B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A: What was the last movie you saw? (Question)</td>
<td>B: I saw the new Spiderman last week. (Answer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: Oh, yeah? What did you think of it? (Rejoinder + Follow Up Question)</td>
<td>B: It was really entertaining. (Answer)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using Rejoinders and Follow Up Questions Activities

Activity 1 Sort and practice mini dialogues that practice rejoinder and follow up questions.

Rejoinder and follow up question sorting cards (to be cut up and laminated)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What did you eat for dinner yesterday?</td>
<td>I had chicken with my friends.</td>
<td>Oh yeah? Was it good?</td>
<td>Yeah it was delicious.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are some good points about your brother?</td>
<td>He always helps me with my homework.</td>
<td>That’s great! Is he very smart?</td>
<td>Yes, he got a scholarship to university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you pass your English exam?</td>
<td>No, I got an F.</td>
<td>That’s too bad. Did you study for it.</td>
<td>Not really. I’ll have to study harder for it next time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What was your favorite subject at school?</td>
<td>I liked biology.</td>
<td>I see. Why did you like that subject?</td>
<td>I enjoyed finding out about the human body.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity 2 Complete and ask questions. Respond to answers using rejoinders and follow up questions.

Student A

Fill in the questions with your own answers, then take turns asking the questions to the other members of your group. Respond to their answers with a rejoinder and follow up question to elicit a further response.

|------------|--------|------------|--------|--------------|----------------|

1. Did you __________________________ yesterday?
2. When you were in high school, did you ever __________________________?
3. Have you ever __________________________?
4. What are some good points about __________________________?
5. Which would you rather visit, a museum, a park, or a zoo?
6. __________________________?
Activity 2 Complete and ask questions. Respond to answers using rejoinders and follow up questions

Student B

Fill in the questions with your own answers, then take turns asking the questions to the other members of your group. Respond to their answers with a rejoinder and follow up question to elicit a further response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rejoinders:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I see.</td>
<td>Oh, yeah?</td>
<td>Really?</td>
<td>That’s Great!</td>
<td>That’s too bad.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. What time do you prefer to ____________________________?
2. Do you have any ____________________________?
3. Where have you ____________________________ recently?
4. Were you a good student when you were young?
5. Which member of your family ____________________________?
6. Are you ____________________________?
7. ____________________________________________?
Activity 1 Sort and practice mini dialogues (Unchanged)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

This relatively simple activity was unchanged, meaning that, as in the first iteration, students sort a series of five conversations that include two adjacency pairs in the form of question, answer, rejoinder and follow up question, answer, with the
expectation that students practice and become aware of rejoinders and follow up questions in context.

**Actual learning trajectory**

**Transcript excerpt, clarification**

The following excerpt represents D and M practicing the mini dialogues and T giving a short post task plenary to sum up the activity.

*Excerpt 7*

50. D: what was your **favorite** subject at school?
52. D: m:m. i see. **why** did you like that subject?
53. M: i enjoyed finding out about the human body.
54. T: good. okay, okay that’s good. alright. so you can see
55. there that in these conversations, what we’re doing. we
56. started off asking a question. and then you get a
57. response. and then the c, in the c turn you can see this
58. person is using a rejoinder, oh yeah, oh that’s too bad,
59. i see. and a follow up question to keep the conversation
60. going. and it’s quite a good strategy to use when you
61. have your conversations. alright?

After a short time sorting the cards, M and D began practicing the dialogues. The excerpt shows one example of a practiced dialogue, beginning in line 50, where D asks a question. M answers in line 51. The follow up turn is practiced in line 52 and answered by M in line 53. This dialogue is representative of the activity in which M and D practiced the dialogues in turn, alternating between asking questions and giving answers.

In the plenary, beginning in line 54, T summarizes the conversation sequences and explains that asking follow up questions is a good strategy for keeping a conversation going.
**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

Regarding sorting activities, Willis (2008: paragraph 15) points out that “although they give valuable exposure to relevant topic-based language… they rarely stimulate much learner interaction as they stand”. That the activity was not stimulating for the student is evident in M’s post class feedback, in which he noted that: “*activity 1 is boring… I’m sorry to say that… Yeah, it’s too simple and just straight thing.*” Willis (2008) suggests making sorting activities more stimulating by adding a further step such as giving reasons or justifying a decision, or explaining to another pair or to the whole class how they did an activity.

Likewise, future iterations of this activity, should attempt to be more stimulating for students. Instead of the teacher giving a monologic plenary at the end of the task, the activity may be improved by asking two pairs of students to join together and generate reasons why they think rejoinders and follow up questions are important in discussion. This can then be integrated into a more dialogic plenary (Mercer 2003) in which students are included in discussing the benefits of rejoinders and follow up questions.

**Activity 2 Complete and ask questions. Respond to answers using rejoinders and follow up questions. (Revised)**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

**Conjecture of how well students would respond**

At the beginning of the activity, the class read through the *Follow Up Questions* information sheet, including the example dialogue. Students were then instructed to prepare and use their questions to have similar dialogues to the example and were also instructed to keep their conversations going as much as possible. It was anticipated that this would offer space for students achieve the aim of the activity, to practice the target strategy of using rejoinders and asking follow up questions in a free context.
Actual learning trajectory

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

Excerpt 8 shows G, B and H during the on-task phase of the activity. Students were placed in groups of three and instructed to practice asking their questions to both members of their group. Prior to the excerpt, B had asked H his question “have you ever been abroad?” The beginning of excerpt 8 shows B asking G “how about you?” in reference to this question. The resulting dialogue is the development of G’s answer.

*Excerpt 8*

68. B: how about you.
69. G: i have some about vacation, last vacation. because of
70. new frontier in konkuk university program.
71. B: oh dormitory?
72. G: no ( ).
73. B: ah ( ).
74. G: so i went to **singapore**, and **new zealand**, and **australia**
75. **about** two weeks.
76. B: yeah.
77. G: so (. ) just good experience.
78. B: m:m. i see. what do you do in there? just study English?
79. or volunteer? or=
80. G: =uh volunteer maybe.
81. B: or just travel? just travel?
82. G: yes. with other major.
83. H: school travel?
84. G: yes.
85. B: i think it’s just travel or something in another world,
86. another uh. country. uh but what is good thing, to got
87. here?
88. G: uh (. ) down to **earth**.
89. B: down to earth. yes.
90. G: it was very fresh. very-
91. B: m:m.
92. G: cold. we are summer and-
93. B: ah they are winter?
Heritage (2012: 48) suggests the epistemic engine as the driving force of talk, in that an “expression of K− and K+ positions can be sequence initiating—the first movers of an epistemic seesaw motion that will tend to drive interactional sequences”. In other words, interactants are either in a state of having knowledge or having a lack of knowledge and it is the desire to impart or receive knowledge that drives talk.

Indeed, this can be seen in the excerpt, as B’s question in line 68 places him in a K− position with regard to whether or not G has been abroad, and likewise places G in a K+ position. The rejoinder and follow up moves that the students are instructed to practice, such as B’s turns in line 78 and 96, serve to drive along the talk about G’s trip abroad, until B, and to a lesser extent H are in a position of knowing about G’s trip abroad. The sequence takes on a somewhat authentic nature because G points out in line 69 that his trip was organized through Konkuk University, the students shared institution, meaning that the information may be useful to all members of the group.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

Given that “giving and receiving information are normative warrants for talking” (Heritage 2012: 49), allowing students to practice using rejoinders and asking follow up questions enriches their authorization for doing so. Activity 2 offered the opportunity for students to integrate follow up questions into long and complex sequences in which students shared information with each other. This view was shared by M in his post session interview, stating “I can ask very deep questions... Second one was really
great... there’s a lot of variable thing... I will try to use”. M found the activity useful because he could talk deeply on variable topics, and stated that he would try to use the strategy in his future discussions. Therefore, as the aim of the activity was met and students found the activity useful, the HLT met the ALT.
Strategy training session 2 ‘Asking for clarification’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 2

Asking for clarification: Information sheet

- Asking for clarification is a way of helping you understand what your partner is talking about.
- Knowing how to ask for clarification is important for checking things you don’t know in English.
- Clarification checks will help keep discussions going and improve your fluency.

Here are some simple expressions that will help you ask for clarification

Did you say _______?
You said _______ right?
Who/What/Where did you say _______ is?
You did what?
Pardon?
Excuse me?
I’m sorry, I don’t understand.

Look at the following ‘Asking for clarification’ mini dialogue:

| A: My favorite restaurant is TGI Friday’s.  | B: Did you say TGI Friday’s?
| (Beginning sentence)                        | (Clarification check) |
| A: Yeah, I love it.                        | B: Oh yeah? Why do you like it?
| (Answer)                                   | (Rejounder and follow up) |
| A: Their steak is delicious!               |                           |
| (Answer)                                   |                           |
# More Clarification Expressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expressing a lack of understanding</th>
<th>Asking for clarification</th>
<th>Clarifying your point or idea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>When you fail to understand what has been said to you can use these expressions:</em></td>
<td><em>You can ask for clarification using the following expressions:</em></td>
<td><em>To clarify your idea you can use the following expressions:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. I beg your pardon?</td>
<td>a. What do you mean by _____?</td>
<td>a. Let me explain that...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. I’m sorry, but I don’t quite understand.</td>
<td>b. Do you mean _____?</td>
<td>b. Let me explain that in more detail...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. I’m not sure what you mean.</td>
<td>c. Could you say that again, please?</td>
<td>c. Let me put it in another way...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. I’m not following.</td>
<td>d. Could you repeat please?</td>
<td>d. Sorry, let me explain...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. I don’t see what you mean.</td>
<td>e. Could you clarify that, please?</td>
<td>e. In other words...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. I’m not sure I got your point.</td>
<td>f. Could you explain what you mean by _____?</td>
<td>f. To say this differently...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Sorry, I didn’t get your point.</td>
<td>g. Could you give me an example?</td>
<td>g. To put it differently...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Sorry, I didn’t quite hear what you said.</td>
<td>h. I wonder if you could say that in a different way.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity 1 Complete the statements. Use the statements to practice asking for clarification.

Student A

**Asking for clarification expressions**

- Did you say _______?
- You said _______ right?
- Who/What/Where did you say _______ is?
- You did what?
- Pardon?
- Excuse me?
- I'm sorry, I don't understand.

Fill in the sentences with your own information.

Use the sentences to have mini dialogues with your partner. Respond to your partner's opening sentence by asking for clarification. Then use a rejoinder and follow up question to keep the conversation going.

**Statements**

I'm planning to buy ____________________________ this year.

Someday, I'd like to meet ____________________________.

The movie I think you should see is ____________________________.

__________________________ is a big problem.

Could you help me? I need help with ____________________________.

When I was a child, I spent a lot of time ____________________________.

Three things I really hate are ____________________________ and ____________________________.

If I had one month left to life, I would ____________________________.
Activity 1 Complete the statements. Use the statements to practice asking for clarification.

Student B

Asking for clarification expressions

- Did you say ______?
- You said ______ right?
- Who/What/Where did you say ______ is?
- You did what?
- Pardon?
- Excuse me?
- I’m sorry, I don’t understand.

Fill in the sentences with your own information.

Use the sentences to have mini dialogues with your partner. Respond to your partner’s opening sentence by asking for clarification. Then use a rejoinder and follow up question to keep the conversation going.

Statements

In the future, I want to work ____________________.
I think computers are ____________________.
This coming weekend, I think you should ____________________.
If I could change one thing about myself, I’d change ____________________.
My favorite ____________________ is ____________________.
If I were an author, I would write about ____________________.
I / my friend got angry because ____________________.
I need some advice about ____________________ Could you advise me?
Activity 2 Prepare a 1-2 minute talk on a chosen topic. Listeners practice asking for clarification.

Brainstorm and make notes for a 1-2 minute talk on one of the following topics. Include at least three points.

Topics:

- My first trip
- Eating healthy food
- Living in the city
- My favorite restaurant
- Playing a musical instrument
- Something that annoys me

When you are ready, talk about your topic to your group members. While you are listening, try to interrupt and ask the speaker for clarification, or let them know that you don’t understand using the expressions in the information sheet. As a group, ask for clarification three or more times. If you are speaking, help your group members to understand by clarifying your point or idea. Then continue talking about your topic.

Activity 1 Complete statements. Use statements to practice asking for clarification. (Unchanged)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

It was anticipated that the success of the activity would depend on the students completing statements in an interesting way that would generate authentic opportunity to check for clarification within dialogue that emulated exploratory talk.
Actual learning trajectory

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

Excerpt 9 shows B offering a statement from his list, that some Korean internet forum websites such as Ilbe and OU are a problem in Korean society. Korean forum websites such as Ilbe and OU are a current issue in Korean society as they offer a context in which Korean citizens may propagate hate speech against women.

*Excerpt 9*

99. B: i think korean internet creative sites is a big problem.
100. A: what did you say big problem?
101. B: i think there are many korean sites, korean sites, such as ilbe or ou, like that, and i think there have No (.) there have no real name so they chat so much. bully. and they use so many slang and i think uh. that is very big problem.
107. J: but is that the problem. what is the problem like using slang in chatting or like that?
108. B: m:m. slang with friends or somebody or they are close to each other. i, i know that sites are the some people use (.). uh i understand only with only with the community. only the person who are in it they didn’t come out of it much, so i think it’s ok to use it.
116. B: mm, i think using freely is good. but i think so much it means there are so attract, uh offended to each other, somebody. then. i think they are out of their mind. like that.

After B offers his statement in line 99, A asks B to clarify what he means by ‘big problem’. This gives B the opportunity to elaborate on why he considers such forum websites a problem, i.e. they offer anonymity to the user and a context for the user to, in
B’s terms, bully and use slang. Interestingly, J then, in line 107, asks for further clarification to explain what B means by ‘slang’. When B hesitates in line 109, J follows this up in his next turn by stating that using slang is not necessarily a problem in and of itself if users are talking to each other within their own community. B then further clarifies his opinion, that while using the site to speak freely may not be a problem, users are wrong to use the site to offend others.

J’s clarification check in line 107, and continued in line 110, was also a request for B to give a reason for his opinion that the forum websites are a big problem in Korean society. B then offers his reason in the following turn beginning with the phrase “I think”, a linguistic feature of exploratory talk (Wegerif et al. 1999).

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

The activity offered space for students to ask for clarification while discussing complex issues such as internet anonymity and regulating website forums. Discussing such issues also generated authentic opportunity to explore the topic, practice the target ‘asking for clarification’ language, offer opinions and be asked for and give reasons for the opinions, in other words engaging in exploratory talk for language learning.

In student feedback, J stated that “it was good but it was a little bit hard for me because the example of it didn’t contain all of it because it has possibility about... lots of different things... We have to transit [respond] for something that people [say] first.” Here J is trying to say that there was a lack of example phrases to use when practicing asking for clarification. The ‘More Clarification expressions’ sheet was distributed at the beginning of the second activity, however, J found this sheet useful and pointed out that it would have been useful at the beginning of the activity. In my field notes, I agreed, stating “perhaps it would be a good idea to give all of the examples at the beginning of class, rather than save those till later, prepare a better sheet of expressions, for the beginning”. On reflection, I believe that offering the expressions at the beginning of the session would improve the session overall. Therefore, with the caveat of offering a fuller
range of expressions at the beginning of the class, the aim of the activity was achieved and the HLT met the ALT.

**Activity 2** Prepare a 1-2 minute talk on a chosen topic. Listeners practice asking for clarification. (Unchanged)

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

The activity requires one group member at a time to give a short talk on a given topic. However, the success of the activity would depend on the other group members’ ability to focus on integrating requests for clarification while listening to the respective talks.

**Actual learning trajectory**

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

Excerpt 10 shows B beginning to give his talk on eating healthy food, while other group members A and J and the teacher listen.

**Excerpt 10**

140. B: uh (.). i say about eating healthy food (.). uh recently i
141. go to my fitness center and i talked about my trainer,
142. and they just about eating. he, he talk about eating
143. healthy food and he said i have to go on a diet and
144. you eat any **protein**, and many vegetable, and don’t eat
145. any fat. like that.
146. T: i’m so-
147. A: i’m **sorry**. you mean healthy food is **vegetable** or
148. **protein**?
149. B: it is also uh (.). i say that **protein** is just ingredient.
150. J: i’m not following. is there some health problem for
151. you or just for keeping health?
152. B: uh pardon? what?
153. J: yeah. you mean there is some health problem for you? or
154. just have, just care about your body?
155. B: ah. it is my care of my body. i am a little problem.
156. my weight is so many and my muscle is so weak.

After B’s opening turn, he begins to talk about his experience in his fitness center in which his trainer told him to eat a diet of protein and vegetables and to cut down on fat. T then begins to ask for clarification, but willingly does not complete his turn, allowing A instead to ask for clarification as to whether vegetables and protein are part of a healthy diet. A’s overlap of T’s turn signifies some competition (Burns et al. 1996) from A to clarify, suggesting that A is somewhat keen to practice the target language. B then clarifies that protein is in fact just an ‘ingredient’ i.e. something that is present in certain foods. In turn 150. J asks for further clarification using an expression on the ‘More Clarification Expressions’ sheet, asking B to clarify whether he has a health problem or whether he is simply keeping fit. B does not understand J’s request for clarification and responds by asking for clarification himself in line 149. J then clarifies his question, allowing B to respond that he is eating healthily in order to take care of his body.

Excerpt 11 shows A’s talking on his first trip to Canada, the final talk in the group.

**Excerpt 11**

177. B: ↑ where is it? where is quebec?
178. A: uh. from in Osaka. uh three hours travel in car. and
179. going to right, right, Osaka is the most east and
180. quebec is right side.
181. B: i’m sorry you say Osaka? it’s Japan?
182. A: ah no ottawa.
183. B: ah ottawa.
184. A: i’m sorry about that.
A had been describing his time in Quebec, and in line 177, B asks where it is. In line 178, A explains that Quebec is three hours away from Osaka, then, in line 182, B asks A to clarify whether or not he actually meant Osaka, as that is a city in Japan. The request for clarification allows A to realize his mistake and make the appropriate repair, that he instead meant Ottawa. Excerpt 11, therefore, highlights an example of an authentic and genuine clarification request.

The excerpt also offers an example of output as collaborative dialogue among the group members (Swain 2000). Noting the distinction between ‘saying’, and ‘what is said’, A’s cognitive activity (his saying) in his response to B’s question, beginning in line 178, results in the linguistic ‘product’, his offering of the location of Quebec. This product, or what was said, then becomes available for reflection. At this point, B notices a problem and attempts to solve it through the use of a request for clarification, and the correct knowledge is then built through collaboration within the dialogue.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

In J’s post session interview, he offered positive feedback on activity 2, stating “I really like it because it was real conversation... So maybe I could use when I go to the USA”. This would suggest that, in line with Excerpt 11, J also found the activity was a chance to practice using authentic language. When asked to give more detail about why he liked it, he pointed out that “It has a lot of example and I could choose... Yeah, it was more easier to practice examples and the more examples I have so I could only transport some words in this situation”. J found the ‘More Clarification Expressions’ sheet useful as he could choose and practice different clarification expressions. This was also my view in my field notes: “it was definitely good, and they could get in those expressions and the expressions helped to maintain the natural conversation”. The data suggests that the activity offers genuine, authentic practice of the target language, a positive characteristic of language learning materials (Burns et al. 1996), therefore, the HLT met the ALT for this activity.
Strategy training session 3 ‘Checking for comprehension’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 3

**Checking for Comprehension**

Checking for comprehension:
- makes sure your partner understands what you say.
- prevents breakdown in communication.

**Language for checking comprehension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comprehension Check</th>
<th>Giving confirmation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you understand?</td>
<td>Yes, I understand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand?</td>
<td>Yes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you got it?</td>
<td>Okay, got it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Got it?</td>
<td>Got it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okay?</td>
<td>Yes, okay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does that make sense?</td>
<td>Yes, that makes sense!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comprehension check discussion flow chart**

A: To make ramen, first you need
to put some water in a pan and
boil the water on the stove. *Got it?*

*Comprehension check*

B: You said boil the water first, right?

*Clarification check*

A: Yes, that's right.

*Answer*

B: Okay, got it.

*Giving comprehension*
### Activity 1: Sort and practice comprehension check mini dialogues

**Comprehension check cards (laminate and cut up).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Your train leaves at 3.30 pm, okay?</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.30, okay, got it!</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>When you make spaghetti, you must boil the water before you add the noodles, understand?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Okay, I understand.</strong> Boil the water first.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>You must study hard if you want to pass your exam, do you understand?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Yes mom, I understand.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In basketball, a slam dunk is worth 2 points, got it?</strong></td>
<td><strong>2 points for a slam dunk, okay got it.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>I had to break up with my boyfriend because I am moving away. Does that make sense?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Yes, that makes sense,</strong> but I’m sure he was upset.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>We need eggs, tomatoes, rice and sugar, have you got it?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Okay, got it.</strong> See you when I get back from the supermarket.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>You’ll need to bring an umbrella because it’s raining, okay?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Yes, I will do.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity 2 Check for comprehension while describing a process

Choose a process from the list below and explain it to your partner in five steps. Add details to each step.

Choose from the following:

- How to make a dish (Not instant noodles!)
- The order of things you do when you get up in the morning
- Your schedule for today / tomorrow / yesterday
- How to get from class to your home.

1. At the end of each point check your partner understands, using a comprehension check.
2. When listening, either give confirmation to show you understand or ask for clarification if necessary.
3. Help your partner to understand.
4. When you have finished, test your partner to see if they can remember the steps in order.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*When you have finished giving your talk, ask your group members if they can remember your process in the right order!*
Activity 3 Read an article to your partner and practice comprehension checks

Student A - Part 1

Read this article to your partner. After every sentence use the comprehension check questions to check if your partner understands. When your partner asks for more information, give them the information they need to understand.

Flight Attendant Hero

1. This article is about a 31 year old flight attendant.  
   Do you understand this first sentence?
2. The flight attendant works for British Airways.  
   Understand sentence 2?
3. She was on a flight over the Atlantic Ocean on the way from London to New York.  
   Do you understand this third sentence?
4. As the plane was flying over the ocean, the flight attendant looked out the window and saw some black smoke on the water  
   Got it?
5. It was very cloudy, but for 20 seconds, it was clear, so she was able to see smoke.  
   Understand sentence 5?
6. Flight attendants are trained to report anything unusual, so she told the pilot about the smoke on the water.  
   OK?
7. The pilot turned on the emergency channel of his radio, and he could hear a signal from a fishing boat saying it needed help.  
   Got the seventh sentence?
8. The pilot called the police in Boston, and they sent a ship to rescue the fisherman on the boat.  
   OK?
9. Also, there was a helicopter in the area taking pictures of whales. They heard the pilot’s call and rescued the fisherman.  
   Do you understand what I just said?
Factual questions about the article. Quiz your partner.

1. What airline did the flight attendant work for?
   Answer: British Airways

2. Where was the plane flying to?
   Answer: New York

3. Was it a sunny day or a cloudy day?
   Answer: Cloudy

4. What did the flight attendant see out the window?
   Answer: Smoke

5. What did the pilot do after the flight attendant told him about the smoke?
   Answer: Called the police on Boston

6. Who rescued the fishing boat
   Answer: The helicopter

Discussion questions

When you fly on a plane, do you usually feel nervous?

Have you ever wanted to be a pilot or flight attendant? Why or why not?

Have you ever seen an accident?

Have you ever been to the ocean? What did you do there?
Student B Part 2

Clarification questions – Ask your partner

1. Did you say it took place in North America?
2. What did you say was in the middle of the rain forest?
3. What sickness did the uncle get? And could you spell it?
4. Why did they eat wild fruit?
5. Could you repeat that please?
6. You said that there were snakes, crocodiles and what?
7. Did the jaguar kill them?
8. I didn’t understand that. Could you repeat it?
9. What did they have on their bodies?
Activity 3 - Read an article to your partner and practice comprehension checks

Student B - Part 1

Listen to your partner read you an article. After every sentence, your partner will check if you understand. Every time your partner checks for clarification, ask a question to get more details form your partner.

Clarification questions

1. Could you tell me what a flight attendant is?
2. Which airline?
3. Where was the plane going?
4. Could you repeat that, please?
5. Did you say it was cloudy or clear?
6. What did she tell the pilot?
7. I didn’t understand that. Could you explain it?
8. Could you explain what the word rescue means?
9. Did you say the helicopter was taking pictures of fish?
**Student B Part 2**

Read this article to your partner. After every sentence use the clarification questions to check if your partner understands. When your partner asks for more information, give them the information they need to understand.

**Lost in a jungle**

1. This story took place in the Amazon rainforest in South America.  
   **Do you understand this first sentence?**

2. Two sisters, one 9 and the other 13, were going on a walking trip with their uncle. They were going from their home to his farm, which was in the middle of the rainforest. The uncle’s farm was about 320 kilometers from their home.  
   **Understand this next part?**

3. The uncle suddenly died from malaria, so the sisters had to walk back to their home through the rainforest by themselves.  
   **OK?**

4. They hadn’t brought any food with them, so they had to eat wild fruit and sometimes fish.  
   **Do you understand this fourth part?**

5. They had only one box of matches and they found some wax or gum from a certain tree. They used it to cook and made candles for light.  
   **Do you understand what I just said?**

6. In the rainforest there were lots of snakes, crocodiles, and jaguars (a big cat).  
   **OK?**

7. They had a frightening experience when they saw a jaguar run towards them. Fortunately they were able to climb a tree to escape.  
   **Understand this seventh part?**

8. After 31 days in the rainforest, someone saw them and saved them, but one sister was very sick because she drank dirt rainwater from a river.  
   **Got it?**

9. When they were found, the girls had big red mosquito bites all over their bodies. Now, however, they are alright.  
   **Do you understand this last part?**
Factual questions about the article. Quiz your partner.

1. Where did the story take place?
   Answer: in the Amazon rainforest.

2. Why were these girls in the rainforest alone?
   Answer: Their uncle died of malaria.

3. What were some dangerous things in the rainforest?
   Answer: snakes, crocodiles, jaguars.

4. How many days were they alone in the rainforest?
   Answer: 31.

6. What kinds of food did they eat?
   Answer: wild fruit and fish.

7. In the end, did the sisters have any health problems?
   Answer: no, they are alright now.

Discussion questions

Have you ever gotten lost? What happened?

Do you enjoy outdoor activities like hiking or camping? Why or why not?

Describe a scary experience you have had

Which underdeveloped part of the world would you like to visit?
Activity 1 Sort and practice conversation pairs (Unchanged)

**Summary**

Activity 1 asks students to match and practice conversational pairs that included the target language of checking for and giving comprehension. Students easily arranged the cards and practiced the conversation pairs. At the end of the on-task phase, T offered a short plenary pointing out that comprehension checks are used to make sure other speakers understand the speaker’s meaning. As noted in activity 1 p.226, sorting activities such as this offer exposure to the target language, but little stimulation for students (Willis 2008). This problem arose at the end of the activity in that T offered only a brief monologic plenary to point out the benefits of checking for comprehension. Therefore, while the general aim of the activity, to raise awareness of comprehension checks, was met, the activity would be improved with a more dialogic plenary or further communicative phase after the sorting and practicing phase, allowing students space to think and reason for themselves why checking for comprehension would benefit them in their discussions.

Activity 2 Check for comprehension while describing a process (Revised)

**Summary**

The aim of the activity was to offer the speaker opportunity to practice checking for comprehension using various target language phrases. The activity was revised slightly to emphasize that students should quiz their group members at the end of their talk, as students did not naturally do so in the first iteration. However, during the on-task phase, the problem that students did not naturally quiz their partners persisted; T again had to initiate this part of the activity in the beginning rounds. Nevertheless, when used, the quiz phase offered opportunity for group members to show they comprehended the speaker’s talk and should remain part of the activity. Providing T is aware of the need to encourage the quiz phase, the task achieved its aim of allowing students to practice
checking for comprehension and giving confirmation while also offering opportunity for recycling previous strategies such as asking for clarification.

**Activity 3 Read an article to your partner. Practice comprehension checks. (New)**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

*Conjecture of how well students would respond*

Activity 3 was inserted into the session in response to the extra time in iteration one. The activity, from Kehe and Kehe (2013), asks students in pairs to a) read an article, checking for comprehension using given questions after each sentence, b) for the partner to ask for clarification each time the speaker checks for comprehension, c) for the speaker to ask factual questions at the end of the article and d) to have a discussion after the factual questions have been asked. The activity therefore integrates varied language use, a potentially positive attribute (Howard & Major 2004). Due to its many phases, the activity is complex, with scope for student misunderstanding, therefore, it was anticipated that clear explanation from teacher in the beginning of the activity would be important, especially to emphasise the distinction between the three phases of the activity. Furthermore, Wang and Roopchund (2015) have shown that a lack of confidence about the content of questions may become a source of anxiety. Given that students do not have flexibility in the questions they are expected to use when checking for comprehension or asking for clarification, being forced to ask and respond to questions may become the source of anxiety for students. Therefore, it was predicted that the activity would only be successful providing students did not allow the asking or answering of predetermined questions to become a source of anxiety.
Actual learning trajectory

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

Excerpt 12 shows two turns of S reading her article to D during phase 1 of the activity.

*Excerpt 12*

196. S: it was cloudy. but for 20 seconds it was clear so she
197. was able to see smoke. do you understand?
198. D: did you say it was cloudy or clear?
199. S: ah. it was very cloudy but for a second, 20 seconds, it
200. was clear. so she was able to see smoke. then flight
201. attendants are trained to report anything unusual. so
202. she told the pilot about the smoke on the water. ok?
203. D: wh- what did she tell the pilot.
204. S: mm. she told that the smoke, about the smoke. so (. ) she
205. trained uh. she trained to report anything unusual so
206. she told that one, so she told the pilot about the
207. smoke...

The activity enabled controlled use of the primary target strategy of using clarification checks. As the excerpt shows, S simply read the given comprehension check phrase at the end of each sentence in the article, for example in lines 197 and 202. Likewise, as a secondary, recycled strategy, D also simply read his given clarification checks. However, interestingly, the result of the sequence in which S checks for comprehension and D follows up with a request for clarification, S responds by paraphrasing her previous sentence, itself a useful oral communication strategy that “might enable learners to overcome potential communication problems” (Lam 2006: 144).

Excerpt 13, below highlights the point at which S asks her final comprehension questions and begins the discussion phase of her turn in the activity.
In line 258, for her final comprehension question, S asked D who rescued the fishing boat enabling D to answer correctly that the helicopter rescued the boat. The comprehension questions acted to show D understood S’s article. The activity is then moved on by S in line 253 to the discussion phase as she prefaced her first discussion question with the word “discussion”. This discussion phase allowed D and S to enter into talk that embodied many of the characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning. For example, D responds to S’ question about whether he feels nervous when flying by responding that he worries when the plane is shaking. S responds in line 258 “yeah because of the air”, here S is building cumulative knowledge about turbulence (Chappell 2014). In line 259, D asks S to talk about any experience she has had with turbulence, which allows S to reflect on her own experiences of flying.
Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

The activity met its primary aim of offering students opportunity to practice various comprehension checks. This was achieved by controlling the points at which the student checked for comprehension and giving them the phrases to do so. In his post session interview, D expressed that this was beneficial to him, stating “You give us the detailed step. It was helpful”. In my own field notes, I also noted that “third activity worked well, students benefitted from having control over the strategy language and spoke a lot in the discussions”. The activity also achieved a number of secondary aims including recycling clarification checks and offering space for students to effectively discuss the issues raised in the articles.
Strategy training session 4 ‘Asking for help’

*Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 4*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity 1</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Match the phrases (A) that ask for help, with the responses (B)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A</strong></td>
<td><strong>B</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the morning I usually wash the dishes in the... <em>Do you know the word for</em> the place where you wash dishes?</td>
<td>I think you mean the sink.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reading says that there was a hurricane in Australia. <em>Do you know what hurricane means?</em></td>
<td>Yeah, hurricane is a type of storm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>What do you call the thing that</em> you make toast with?</td>
<td>That’s called a toaster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>What’s the word for</em> the thing a robber does?</td>
<td>A robber steals things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yesterday I ate a delicious fruit. <em>It looks like</em> an apple but it’s sweeter...</td>
<td>Do you mean pear?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I’m looking for the word for</em> the thing that wakes you up in the morning.</td>
<td>You mean an alarm clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I read that last Christmas there were fewer... <em>How do you say</em> people who buy things</td>
<td>I think you can say consumers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Asking for Help**

In this activity you will practice asking for help when you don’t know a word. Here are some phrases for asking for help when you don’t know the word for something:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you know the word for….?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you know what ______ means?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you call the thing that…..?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What’s the word for…..?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It looks like…..?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m looking for the word for….</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you say…..?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Activity 2 Practice asking for help when you don’t know a word**

The aim of this activity is to practice asking your group members for help. Prepare a talk for 1-2 minutes. Include the three words in your talk BUT instead of using the words, ask your partners for help finding the words.

Example:

**Topic: Holidays**

**Words:**

- a. Beach
- b. Elephant
- c. Hotel

Last year I went on holiday to Thailand. In Thailand, we visited the *what’s the word for the place that has sand and ocean?* (Yes beach). We took a ride on, *how do you say the really big animals with long noses?* (Yes elephants). And we stayed in a really big and luxurious, *what’s the word for the big building where you sleep and eat?* (Yes hotel).

Spend 2 minutes preparing a talk about the following topic: **Olympics**

Include the following words in your talk,

- a. Silver medal
- b. 100 meter sprint
- c. Archery

**But** pretend you don’t know these words. During your talk, ask your group members for help finding the words.
Asking for Help

In this activity, you will practice asking for help when you don’t know a word. Here are some phrases for asking for help when you don’t know the word for something:

Do you know the word for….?
Do you know what __________ means?
What do you call the thing that…..?
What’s the word for….?
It looks like….?
I’m looking for the word for….?
How do you say….?

Activity 2 Practice asking for help when you don’t know a word

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Spend 2 minutes preparing a talk about the following topic: Christmas

Include the following words in your talk,

  a. Presents
  b. Santa Claus
  c. Christmas tree

But pretend you don’t know these words. During your talk, ask your group members for help finding the words.
Asking for Help

In this activity, you will practice asking for help when you don’t know a word. Here are some phrases for asking for help when you don’t know the word for something:

Do you know the word for….?
Do you know what ___________ means?
What do you call the thing that…..?
What’s the word for…..?
It looks like…..?
I’m looking for the word for….
How do you say…..?

Activity 2 Practice asking for help when you don’t know a word

The aim of this activity is to practice asking your group members for help. Prepare a talk for 1-2 minutes. Include the three words in your talk BUT instead of using the words, ask your partners for help finding the words.

Example:

Topic: Holidays

Words:
  a. Beach
  b. Elephant
  c. Hotel

Last year I went on holiday to Thailand. In Thailand, we visited the **what’s the word for the place that has sand and ocean?** (Yes beach). We took a ride on, **how do you say the really big animals with long noses?** Yes elephants. And we stayed in a really big and luxurious, **what’s the word for the big building where you sleep and eat?** (Yes hotel.)

Spend 2 minutes preparing a talk about the following topic: Living in the city

Include the following words in your talk,

  a. Neighbors
  b. Convenient
  c. Transportation

But pretend you don’t know these words. During your talk, ask your group members for help finding the words.
Asking for Help

In this activity, you will practice asking for help when you don’t know a word. Here are some phrases for asking for help when you don’t know the word for something:

Do you know the word for....?
Do you know what ________ means?
What do you call the thing that......?
What’s the word for....?
It looks like....?
I’m looking for the word for....
How do you say....?

Activity 2 Practice asking for help when you don’t know a word

The aim of this activity is to practice asking your group members for help. Prepare a talk for 1-2 minutes. Include the three words in your talk but instead of using the words, ask your partners for help finding the words.

Example:

Topic: Holidays

Words:
   a. Beach
   b. Elephant
   c. Hotel

Last year I went on holiday to Thailand. In Thailand, we visited the *what’s the word for the place that has sand and ocean?* (Yes beach). We took a ride on, *how do you say the really big animals with long noses?* Yes elephants. And we stayed in a really big and luxurious, *what’s the word for the big building where you sleep and eat?* (Yes hotel.)

Spend a 2 minutes preparing a talk about the following topic: Using a computer

Include the following words in your talk,
   a. Keyboard
   b. Web surfing
   c. Social network

**But** pretend you don’t know these words. During your talk, ask your group members for help finding the words.
Activity 3

Free practice

Now try to talk for one minute about the following topics. Include as much detail as possible. When you don’t know a word or phrase, ask your partner for help. Practice asking for help three or more times.

Topics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My favorite sport</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My last vacation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My dream job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My best friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My favorite subject at school</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity 1 Sort and practice conversation pairs that ask for help finding words (Unchanged)

Summary

In the first iteration, this activity achieved its aim of offering exposure to the target language by matching conversational pairs that included the target asking for help language and was deemed simply successful. It was anticipated that students would again have little difficulty matching and practicing the conversation pairs.

Students were able to straightforwardly read the cards and practice using the target language. However, as in previous matching and sorting activities in this iteration, this activity would be improved with a more dialogic plenary (Willis 2008) that would allow students to consider why asking for help may be useful in their discussions. This
would also go some way towards making students more aware of the benefits of using oral communicative strategies. The HLT met the ALT in its primary aim, however, further revision to the plenary phase will improve the activity in further iterations.

Activity 2 Practice asking for help when you don’t know a word (Unchanged)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

In the first iteration, the activity was noted to be somewhat formulaic, while nevertheless achieving its aim of offering opportunity for students to practice asking for help, an L2 interactional practice conducive to language learning (Long 1980; Hymes 1972). The activity was left unchanged and it was therefore anticipated that again, despite its formulaic limitation, the activity would successfully achieve the same aim.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 14 shows J giving his talk about living in the city, while his group members, M and J listen and respond.

Excerpt 14

30. J: ...i will do first. six months ago (.) my family moved
31. from bundang to gwachan. in gwachan we met new. what the
32. word for the people who nearby?
33. M: neighbors?
34. J: yeah hhaha. uh. and uh, we met new. what the word for
35. the people who live nearby. and it’s neighbors.
37. D: ¿neighbor?
38. M: yeah.
39. J: yeah hhaha (.) i’m looking for the word that, the thing
After approximately 5 minutes of preparation time, J begins his story stating that his family moved to Gwachan, then asks for help finding the word neighbors using a target language phrase. In line 33, M offers the correct word. During J’s turn in line 34, D silently showed some confusion, which is cleared up first by J in line 34, who repeats his asking for help, then gives the correct answer. M also summarizes the key part of the asking for help turn “that live nearby”, then also gives the searched for word, neighbor. In line 37, D shows he understands by stating the searched for word.

In J’s second turn asking for help finding a word, in line 39, instead of integrating asking for help into his talk, he simply asks for help finding the word transportation using a target language phrase. Within the recorded data, this was a common approach to tackling the activity, and which may be viewed as a shortcut of only fulfilling the minimum requirements of asking for help finding the words using the target language phrases. However, by only using the target phrase in an abstract way, J has failed to integrate asking for help into any kind of authentic talk. Authenticity here takes Gilmore’s (2007) definition in that the speaker is conveying some kind of real message about a topic to his audience within the social situation of the classroom. Students should, therefore, be encouraged to fulfill both the primary element of the activity i.e. practicing the asking for help strategy, while trying to integrate this into some kind of authentic talk, the secondary element of the activity. As can be seen in line 45, J successfully does this by returning to his talk on living in the city, linking his previous word transportation to asking for help finding his third word convenient. I
suggest here that the interactional work (Van Lier 2000) required of J to fulfill both elements of the task produces a richer and more stimulating linguistic environment for him and his group, particularly when juxtaposed with his turn in line 39, that simply practices the strategy.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

Within the activity, students could practice the target asking for help language within the context of a talk on a given topic. However, more work should be done to emphasise the need to integrate the asking for help turns into a talk and not kept as abstract strategy language practice. I also made this point in my field notes, stating “have to try to find a way of integrating this language into the activities more”. In other words, when reflecting on the session, I also felt that the activity would be improved if the students could better fit the target language into their talks. With this caveat observed, the HLT met the ALT.

**Activity 3 Practice asking for help three times in an unprepared free talk on a given topic (Unchanged)**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

**Conjecture of how well students would respond**

It was shown in iteration 1 that free talking activities present an opportunity for meaningful communication, while at the same time practice target language, and it was anticipated that students would successfully achieve this aim in the second iteration of this activity.
Actual learning trajectory

*Transcript excerpt, clarification*

Excerpt 15 illustrates J giving his unprepared talk on a future vacation to Tongyang.

*Excerpt 15*

120. J: i’m planning on going to trip in tongyang uh, by using=
121. M: =bus?
122. ((laughter))
123. j: uh actually not hhaha. uh how do you say about the
124. transportation that are very-
125. m: train.
126. j: oh yeah. and um. maybe i will. in tongyang. i will use
127. ship to go to some place. uh how can i say the in, uh
128. not connected with the land?
129. t: ah island?

In line 120, J starts his talk describing his future trip, to Tongyang and begins to describe his method of travel. However, in the following turn, M anticipates that he will ask for help with this point and predicts and offers the word “bus”, which results in laughter from all members of the group. This sequence suggests that students are treating the activity as something fun. Stroud has shown that using humour in language learning activities is “an effective way to create a more comfortable, productive classroom environment” (2013: 72). By treating the activity as a guessing game, the group is able to integrate humor, thereby creating a comfortable yet productive L2 environment.

In line 123, J continues by using a target language phrase to ask for the word ‘train’. M again anticipates and offers this word before J can finish asking for help finding it. Here they are continuing to treat the activity as a guessing game. This may be
seen as a positive characteristic as accurate guessing has been shown to be a strategy of good language learners (Rubin 1975). In line 136, J continues with his talk, explaining that he will travel by ship, then uses a new asking for help phrase to search for the word island. At this moment, T is overhearing the talk and offers the word. The extract shows that, within the activity, J practiced integrating different asking for help phrases into his talk.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

Students interpreted the activity as a guessing game and were able to integrate humor while practicing the target strategy language, suggesting the aim of the activity was met.
Strategy training session 5 ‘Asking for more details’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Asking For More Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asking for more details will help you to find out new information and keep your conversations going. This session will help you to practice asking for more details.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions for asking for more details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can you say a bit more about that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you give me some more details about ____________________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you give me an example of __________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you mean by ________________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you explain ________________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you tell me why/who/what __________?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like to know more about ______________.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity 1 Find out about your partner’s best friend and practice asking for more details

1. Brainstorm as many Wh- questions as possible to find out information about your partner’s best friend. Your aim is to find out as much information as possible.

2. When you are ready, use your questions to find out as much as you can about your partner’s best friend. When possible, use the questions in the box to ask for more details.

3. When you have finished, swap roles and your partner will interview you about your best friend.

4. Be ready to report to the class about your partner’s best friend.
Activity 2 Complete the statements. Use the statements to practice asking for more details.

Fill in the blanks with your own ideas. Use the statements to have short conversations with your partner. After you say a statement, your partner will ask you for more details. Answer your partner’s questions with as much detail as possible.

Student A

1. If I could have one thing that would improve my life, it would be ________________________________

2. The thing I’m most afraid of these days is ________________________________

3. One thing I’d like to change about the world is ________________________________

4. In my opinion, the students in this class ________________________________

5. ________________________________ is the best time of day to ________________________________
Activity 2 Complete the statements. Use the statements to practice asking for more details

Fill in the blanks with your own ideas. Use the statements to have short conversations with your partner. After you say a statement, your partner will ask you for more details. Answer your partner’s questions with as much detail as possible.

Student B

1. __________________________________________ makes me angry.

2. When I’m at a party, I __________________________________________
_________________________________________

3. One thing I’d like to change about my childhood would be __________________________
_________________________________________

4. If I get married I want my spouse to __________________________________________
_________________________________________

5. I wish __________________________________________
was still alive today.
Activity 1 Find out about your partner’s best friend and practice asking for more details (Revised)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

The activity was successful in the first iteration, however, the instructions were revised after reflection, asking students only to ask for more details when opportunity was presented in their interviews, rather than after every question. It was anticipated that this would result in more natural dialogue during the interviews.

Activity 2 Complete the statements. Use the statements to practice asking for more details

Fill in the blanks with your own ideas. Use the statements to have short conversations with your partner. After you say a statement, your partner will ask you for more details. Answer your partner’s questions with as much detail as possible.

Student C

1. When I’m 65 years old ____________________________________________

2. _________________________ is the person I’d like to have dinner with someday.

3. One thing I hope I never have to do is ________________________________

4. As a child, my favorite activity was _________________________________

5. I once told a lie about _________________________________
Actual learning trajectory

_Transcript excerpt, clarification_

After students had completed the question preparation phase of the activity, Excerpt 16 shows D interviewing M about his best friend.

**Excerpt 16**

04. M: my best friend is high school friend.
05. D: yeah.
06. M: now he studied korean s. a. t? sunung exam.
07. D: ah.
08. M: once again?
09. D: ah yeah, yeah. ah yes, the exam is coming.
10. M: yeah. the exam is coming.
11. D: uh your friend must be very nervous.
12. M: yeah might be because you know the uh if, if someone take the test twice then he have a more, more, something burden.
13. D: uh can you say a bit more that? uh. what do you mean a bit more burden?
16. M: one more time. then he have to take one more test. then it means that something kind of too late. compared to other.
17. D: ah you mean he has advantage?
18. M: no, no disadvantage. because nervous than high school student.
19. D: ah okay…

The excerpt begins with M giving some background information about how his best friend from high school is currently studying for an extra year to re-take the college entrance exam (a practice named _chaesu_), having received unsatisfactory results in his first attempt. This is a common practice among Korean high school students, as elite
Korean universities offer brand capital (Abelmann et al. 2009), that make the effort of an extra year’s study worth the potential reward of upgrading to an elite university.

The interview moves on in line 12 to M explaining that his friend may be feeling nervous and that he is bearing the burden of having to prepare and re-take his college entrance exams. This prompts D in the following turn to respond by saying “Uh can you say a bit more that? Uh what do you mean a bit more burden?” Here, D is asking for more details using a target language phrase and at the same time recycling the previous strategy of asking for clarification. This act of asking for more details enables M to expand on his previous point, by defining his friend’s burden as the potential of failing his upcoming exams again, which would leave his friend in a predicament of having to take the exams a third time thereby being left far behind his year group. Abelmann et al. (2009) describe the phenomenon of chaesu in terms of neo-liberal subjectivity, resulting in the burden of self-development that affects Korean students. In other words, today’s students in Korea desire lives filled with dynamism and vitality, but are very much aware of the national decrease in job security and social welfare. They are also aware that achieving dynamic and vital lives is difficult, making choices such as extra years studying to retake college entrance exams a necessary burden. In sum, despite the somewhat familiar interview topic of asking about a best friend, D’s act of asking for more details in the interview enriched the dialogue, enabling detailed elaboration on a complex social phenomenon.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

The activity served as an opportunity for students to practice asking for more details and further, to recycle other strategies, such as asking for clarification, shown in Excerpt 16. Practicing asking for more details resulted in enriched and interesting dialogue about complex topics that were relevant to students, suggesting that the main aims of the activity outlined in the HLT were matched in the ALT.

When asked about the activity, student M stated “actually before this class, I already use that sentence, so I just I think I just learn other way to ask”. Here M was
making the point that while the practice of asking for more details is familiar to him, the activity offered new language for doing so. Further validation of this point came in my field notes, in which I stated “…one of the advantages of the activity was giving them a range of expressions that they could use, as M just pointed out. People tend to use these ideas anyway, but this chance to sort of expand upon these strategies might be quite useful for the students.” Here, I noted that offering students a range of target language gave them a richer variety of ways to test out the strategy of asking for more details within the session’s activities.

Activity 2 Complete statements. Use the statements to practice asking for more details. (Unchanged)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

Given the success of the activity as pair work in iteration one, it was decided that students would remain in pairs to complete the activity in the second iteration. It was anticipated that the activity would likely be successful, however, that success would depend on students completing statements with ideas that were conducive to elaboration with details.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

In this excerpt, students M and D are working together to complete the activity. M begins by offering one of his statements, that he would like to change the fact that he never had a girlfriend when he was younger.

Excerpt 17

141. M: …one thing i’d like to change about my childhood would
142. be the thing that (. ) i didn’t make a girlfriend when i
In these six turns, there is some confusion as D does not realize that his statements are different to M’s. This problem is resolved by T making this clear in line 148. However, letting students know they have different sets of statements should be more strongly emphasized at the beginning of the activity in future iterations. To further help with understanding, M repeats the later part of his statement again in line 151. Once the statement has been clarified, the dialogue continues in line 154 with T modeling asking for more details, illustrated in Excerpt 18.

Excerpt 18

154. T: can you. so can you explain why you have never had a girlfriend?
155. D: ah could you explain.
156. M: actually when i was really young i mad at computer game. so i’m not that interested in girl.
157. D: m::m.
158. M: actually (.). at that time i (.). the girls because i have a, i had a fight with girl. after that i think that girls are crazy. something like that. so i was just interested in basketball and computer games.
159. T: hahaha.
161. T: i think many boys are the same actually.
T’s modelling allowed D in the following turn to focus on form (Long 1991), in other words, it incidentally drew D’s attention to the linguistic element of asking for more details, as he repeats T’s target phrase “could you explain”. In M’s turns in lines 157 and 160, he elaborates on his opening statement, that he was more interested in basketball and computer games and further that he fought with a girl and thereafter, thought girls to be crazy. In line 167, D asks for more details about M’s fight using the target language. This allowed M, in the following turn, to extensively elaborate on the fight, offering details about the fight and reasoning why this influenced his decision not to try and make a girlfriend during his younger years.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

The activity allowed students to practice asking for more details using the target strategy language. In my own field notes I felt that “students got a lot of opportunity to talk together” and that “they were sort of pushing each other to get more information naturally within the activity”. In other words, asking for more details achieved the desired result of opening up the dialogue to rich and detailed elaboration on students personally completed statements. The HLT, therefore, met the ALT for this activity.
Strategy training session 6 ‘Challenging and justifying’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 6

Challenging and Justifying
In this lesson will focus on challenging what other people say. Being able to challenge the assertions of other members of your group is important skill for making progress in your discussions, understanding a topic and making right decisions.

Look at the following questions you can use for questioning and challenging your partner’s assertions, then study the flow chart.

Questions for challenging the speaker

About reasons for believing:
– Why do you think so?
– What’s your evidence for that?
– What makes you say that?

About importance:
– How is that good?
– How is that bad?
– How is that important?
– Why does that matter?

When you want more details about a reason:
– Can you explain why?
– Can you be more specific?

When you want another reason:
– Give me another reason why . . .

Challenge the Assertion flow chart. Example dialogue.

A: It’s a nice day today.
   Statement

   A: The sun is shining.
   Justification

   A: We need sunshine.
   Justification

   A: We become sad without the sun . . .
   Justification

B: What’s your evidence for that?
   Challenge

B: How is that good?
   Challenge

B: Can you explain why?
   Challenge
Activity 1 Challenge the Assertion
Student A begin by choosing and saying a statement from your statement box.
Student B use the questions above to challenge your partner’s assertion.
Student A justify your assertion and keep going until the ideas run out and your partner can say no more.
When you have finished, switch roles and practice again.

Statements for Student A

- Hair is useful.
- Trees are beneficial.
- Prisons are necessary.
- Sunshine is beneficial.
- For a working person, cats are better pets than dogs.
- Doctors do a lot of good.
- Exercise is beneficial.
- It’s useful to be able to speak a few languages.
- Taxes are necessary.
- Car racing is a dangerous sport.
- Science has given us a lot.

Activity 1 Challenge the Assertion
Student A begin by choosing and saying a statement from your statement box.
Student B use the questions above to challenge your partner’s assertion.
Student A justify your assertion and keep going until the ideas run out and your partner can say no more.
When you have finished, switch roles and practice again.

Statements for Student B

- Rats are pests.
- Drug addiction is bad.
- Every house needs a roof.
- Inexpensive public transport is necessary.
- Shoes are useful.
- Women are more law-abiding than men.
- People should eat less junk food.
- Caring for a baby can be time-consuming.
- School is useful.
- Car racing is a dangerous sport
- Everyone should brush their teeth.
Activity 2 Just a Minute

- The game is played with two teams. I will begin by giving one team member a topic. That person will have to talk for one minute on that topic when I say start.
- If they can talk for one minute, they get 10 points!
- It is the job of the other team to try to challenge that person while they are talking.
- If the challenge is correct, your team gets 5 points and the challenger must continue to talk on the same topic for the remaining time.

These are the ways you can challenge:

- **“False!”** If a speaker says something false. Example: Penguins are not red
- **“Grammar!”** If a speaker makes a grammar mistake. Example: “Yesterday I have been . . .” The grammar is wrong.
- **“Not relevant!”** if the speaker says something not relevant to the topic. Example: The topic is school lunches, not her favorite food
- **“Pronunciation!”** If the pronunciation is incorrect. Example: Not hotel, hotel.
- **“Repetition!”** If a speaker says something twice. Example: “Yesterday I ate toast. When I ate toast” The speaker said toast two times.
- **“Hesitation!”** If a speaker hesitates for more than 5 seconds, you can challenge

- If the challenge is not correct the speaker may continue to talk.
- You cannot lose points for incorrect challenges
- Every legitimate challenge means the topic passes to the other team for one member of that team to continue.
- The person who is speaking at the end of the minute gets ten points for their team.
- The team with the most points at the end of the game is the winner
Just a Minute! Topics

1. School lunches
2. Coming to school in the morning
3. Watching television
4. Things people do during their holidays
5. Visiting relatives
6. Street food
7. Movies
8. Membership training
9. Computers
10. Free speech
11. Sometimes war is the best solution to a problem
12. Global warming
13. Exams are stressful
14. English language
15. Telephone etiquette / good behavior
16. Smartphones mean we are too connected to each other
17. Art is important
18. Equal pay for women
19. Mothers
20. Studying abroad
21. People are reading less books
22. Smoking in public should be illegal
23. Students should protest
24. Why we should protect nature
25. Too many people are studying at university
Activity 1 Challenging the Assertion (Unchanged)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

In iteration 1, students found this activity fun. It also provided students with a lot of opportunity to practice the target challenging language. It was, therefore, anticipated that the activity would be similarly successful for students in the second iteration.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 19 shows S and H completing one turn in the activity. S begins the turn in line 57 by reading a statement “drug addiction is bad”, which provides the foundation of the resulting dialogue.

Excerpt 19

57. S: …*drug addiction is bad.
58. H: m::m. what makes you say that?
60. uh it’s not good for man.
61. H: why do you think that doesn’t good for man. because it
62. makes humans happy.
63. S: happy?
64. H: mhm. why do you think so?
65. S: i think, happy? drugs make humans happy?
66. H: right.
67. S: oh i don’t think so (. ) because it’s dangerous.
68. H: but when you using that, that you directly, immediately
69. feel happy=
70. S: =uh but even though you, uh people uh feel happy. but
71. it’s uh not good for health.
72. H: but do you=
73. S: =finally, finally, finally uh the human man, what can i
74. say, getting worse. what can i say, come to that i
75. think. addiction, addiction is, drug addiction is no
76. good for me i’m not think.
77. H: m::m. okay.

In line 58, H challenges S’s statement using a target language phrase. This prompts S in line 59 to reassert her position that drug addiction is bad. In her next turn, H challenges S’s assertion by suggesting an opposite view, that taking drugs makes people happy. After establishing opposing views, the two students challenge each other’s views by offering reasons for their opinions. H in line 68, for example, suggests that taking drugs offers immediate happiness. In her following turn in line 70, S states that taking drugs is bad for health and that addiction is not a good state in which to be in. Finally, S offers a personal opinion, using the opinion phrase “I think”, stating that drug addiction would not be good for her. The challenging is further emphasised through competition for turns in line 70 and 73, as she attempts to assert her position as correct (Burns et al. 1996). Finally, in line 77, H accepts S’s position, and agreement is reached.

It may be that H is playing devil’s advocate, or what Elbow (1973) calls the doubting game by taking a contrary position and finding what is wrong with S’s position. Walker (2004: 172) suggests that (albeit as a teaching strategy) doing so can “be particularly successful in encouraging students to develop and defend a line of argument”. This is evident in the excerpt above as it allows S to further explore her statement that drugs are bad and provide reasons for that position. Challenging in this way, as well as giving opinions and reaching of agreement, suggests that the students are using the activity to practice exploratory talk conducive to language learning (Chappell 2014).

*Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched*

When asked what she thought of the activity, in the post session interview H stated”
“I think it is good to think a lot... personally I really like it... maybe this question a bit difficult for Korean students because we didn’t think a lot.”

H noted that many Korean students have little practice in critical thinking, bolstering the position outlined in the literature review that Korean students have a passive style of classroom behaviour. She also noted that she enjoyed the activity because she could think a lot.

In my field notes, I stated:

“The first activity went just as well as the other activity in the first iteration. Students enjoyed and got a lot of opportunity to take it in a lighthearted way and practiced challenging each other using the target language.”

I also felt the activity was successful because students practiced challenging each other using the target language, while also enjoying the activity. The data, therefore, suggest that the HLT met the ALT for this activity.

Activity 2 Just a minute! (Revised)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

The instructions and scoring system were revised to be clearer for students. As teacher, I was also more aware, in line with Deesri (2002: paragraph 3), of the importance that before playing a game “the rules of the games are clearly explained and well understood by the students.” It was anticipated that a clearer explanation at the beginning would go some way towards making the game easier to play and, therefore, more successful in terms of student participation in the second iteration.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification
As there were only four students, two males and two females, it was decided that boys would play against girls. Having clearly explained the game at the beginning of the activity, Excerpt 20 shows one round of the game, in which S, a female student, is the first speaker on the topic of studying English.

**Excerpt 20**

305. T: ...ok one minute and your topic is going to be english, english language, studying english. READY
307. T: GO.
308. S: yeah, uh i really likes studying english. i started stu-
309. studying.
310. D: [hesitation.
311. J: [really likes. grammar.
312. T: yes, i think so. well done. well done. really likes,
313. really likes. i really likes, yes. fifty seconds
314. studying english, j ready. GO.
315. J: uh studying english is very hard for me. uh i study a
316. lot. but actually i’m not very good at it right now. so.
317. the reason why i take this class is to improve my
318. speaking more. and the other reason i study english in
319. this class is going to usa for exchange student.
320. H: hesitation!
321. ((laughter))
322. T: OH wow. wow.
323. J: and also grammar.
324. T: and grammar. so a couple of grammar mistakes. oh you’re
325. gonna win again, wow. you’ve got seven seconds. can you
326. challenge? challenge in seven seconds. ok. uh, ready?
327. english language. GO.
328. H: also i think i need study english because this winter
329. vacation i go to europe to-
330. ((alarm))
331. T: HUH! oh. you could have had [grammar.
332. J: [grammar.
333. T: yes. i go to. this summer vacation i go to europe. yeah
but you didn’t-
H: how was my grammar ‚right?"  
T: uh i will go, i’m going to go, yes. this summer vacation
i will go, i’m going to go, something like that. uh, um.
ok. so ten points. ok.

At the end of her first sentence in which she has made grammar mistakes, S also
hesitates. This is met from both D and J, who challenge her hesitation and grammar
mistake respectively. J’s challenge is accepted by the teacher, who passes the turn over
to J. J then gives a long talk on the on his English learning, which is met with only seven
seconds left of the round by H, who challenges his hesitation. J also accepts that he
made some grammar mistakes. Finally, in line 329, H finishes the turn. Richard-Amato
(1996) has shown that games play a useful role in the language classroom because they
help to develop language proficiency. The excerpt shows that, within one turn of the
game, students were able to practice the act of challenging, as done so by three separate
students. The game also encourages participant to build long accurate turns, as not doing
so will result in losing the floor, as well as giving away points in the game.

At the end of the round, T jokingly admonishes the boys team by pointing out, in
line 332, that the boys could have challenged H on her grammar, which J acknowledges.
In the following turn, T points out H’s grammar mistake, that she said “this winter I go
to Europe”, instead of using the future tense I will go or I’m going to go. H then asks
for clarification of her grammar mistake, which was further clarified by T in line 337.

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

In the post session interview, when referring to the game, H stated:

“...its really good but I hope after one minute I hope you told us what was the
right grammar. Maybe we just finished that and I don’t know you told me you
told us uh maybe they have some grammar errors or some pronunciation, but I
“think what was mine? what was my error and I don’t have an opportunity to fix it.”

H made a useful point, that students would further benefit from the game if at the end of each round, T offered some delayed error correction to correct the mistakes that were challenged in the round. This would be especially useful for linguistic mistakes such as in grammar or pronunciation, and would make the game more meaningful for students in terms of language learning. This revision should be made to the game in future iterations.

In my field notes, I also pointed out that the activity:

“actually went better than the first time around. Even though some students were a little shy to challenge I think very much it depends on the student and whether or not the student is willing to participate in the activity. Those that were, did benefit quite a lot.”

I was happy that students understood the game more easily and that the scoring was clearer at the outset. However, I also pointed out that, while the confident students enjoyed and benefitted from the game, some students were still shy to participate. The role of the teacher in encouraging all students to participate is important in overcoming this problem. With these caveats withstanding, the HLT met the ALT for this activity.
Strategy training session 7 ‘Disagreeing’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 7

**Disagreeing**

Lead in activity: Disagree with the statements

Think of four statements your students are likely to disagree with. The statements below have been chosen to reflect things that Korean students would disagree with:

- *Japan is the best country in the world*
- *Dokdo belongs to Japan*
- *Kimchi is not good for you*
- *The Korean national baseball team is terrible at baseball.*

Explain to students that the aim of the activity is to collect a list of phrases to use when disagreeing.

To do this, instruct students to think of how they would disagree, in English, with the statements you are going to say.

Say a statement aloud and pause for dramatic effect.

Give the students a few seconds to think of something, then allow them to say their responses.

As students disagree write up their phrases on the board, or make a note of them.

Repeat the process with the three different statements.

At the end review all their phrases and techniques.

Next, hand out the following disagreeing expression sheet and go through the expressions.

Compare these expressions with the ones the students gave to you.
Disagreeing

Phrases for Disagreeing

**Standard phrase (strong)**
I’m sorry, I can’t agree with you.
No way.
I totally disagree.

**Standard phrase (polite)**
I’m not sure I agree with you.
That's not always true. / I don’t think that is always true
That's not always the case. / I don’t think that’s always the case.
No, I’m not so sure about that.

**Yes, but**
I can see what you’re saying, but . . .

**Open question**
Really? Do you think so?

**Negative question**
Don’t you think that . . .?

**Introductory phrase to prepare the listener**
Actually, . . . To be honest, . . .

Disagreeing discussion flow chart

A: I cycling is the best form of exercise
*(Statement)*

A: Oh really? Why is that?
*(Request for justification)*

B: I totally disagree.
*(Disagreement)*

B: I think team sports like basketball are much more fun.
*(Justification for disagreement)*
Activity 1 Make your own controversial statements. Use the statements to practice disagreeing.

Write one assertion for each of the following categories and give a reason for the assertion. Be as controversial as possible. Read your statements to your partner. Your group members will practice disagreeing with you. When possible. Use the disagreement as the basis for discussion.

Student A

Hometown

_____________________________ is the best place in the country because ____________________________.

Best food

I think best food is _________________________________ because ________________________________.

Best sports team

I think the best sports team is ___________________________ because ________________________________.

Best season

I think the best season is ___________________________ because ________________________________.
Activity 1: Make your own controversial statements. Use the statements to practice disagreeing.

Write one assertion for each of the following categories and give a reason for the assertion. Be as controversial as possible. Read your statements to your partner. Your group members will practice disagreeing with you. When possible, use the disagreement as the basis for discussion.

Student B

Best music group / singer

I think the best music group / singer is ____________________ because _____________________________________________.

University

I think university is pointless because ________________________________________________________________.

The best profession

I think the best job in the world is ____________________ because ____________________________________________.

Fashion

I think the best fashion brand is ____________________ because ____________________________________________.
Activity 2 Student A picks up a card and reads it. Student B will disagree with their statement. Student A will try to defend their statement. Keep going until you cannot go anymore. Change roles, B picks up a card and continues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cats make the best pets</th>
<th>Learning English is easy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The air in Seoul is really clean</td>
<td>Everybody should go to university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All junk food should be banned because it is unhealthy.</td>
<td>People should not drink alcohol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When choosing a career, money is the most important factor</td>
<td>Exercise is boring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University tuition fees should increase.</td>
<td>Grammar is the most important part of learning English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean people should only go on holiday in Korea</td>
<td>Winter is the best season</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball is the best sport in the world</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lead in activity Disagree with the statements. (Revised)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

Analysis of this activity in iteration one highlighted that the instructions were not made clear enough in the introduction phase and further, that the activity’s statements were not easy for students to disagree with. This may be because students were asked to disagree with somewhat globalised statements such as “Real Madrid are the best football team in the world”. Regarding this problem, Canagarajah (2005: xiv) points out that in ESOL, “the local is getting shortchanged by the social processes and intellectual discourses of contemporary globalization”. In other words, it is unfair to automatically expect Korean students to have enough global knowledge to disagree with issues of, for example, Spanish football. To remedy these issues, first the instructions were revised to better explain the activity, and second, the controversial statements were made locally relevant; based on issues pertinent to Korea, that Korean students were likely to find controversial and, therefore, likely to disagree with.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

In contrast to the one sentence introduction in iteration one, here, I began by offering clear, in depth instructions that students will practice disagreeing with some controversial statements, and that I will collect the different disagreeing phrases. Excerpt 21 shows that as a result, students understood the activity and were able to produce a variety of disagreeing phrases.

Excerpt 21

26. T: how about another one. um, how would you disagree? dokdo
27. belongs to japan. hhaha.
Here students are disagreeing with T’s statement “Dokdo belongs to Japan”. Dokdo is an island off the coast of Korea for which sovereignty is claimed by both Korea and Japan, and is has been termed an “omnipresent irritant in Korea-Japan relations” (Choi 2005: 465). To claim that Dokdo belongs to Japan is certainly controversial to Korean students, and T’s statement was indeed met with disagreement from H in line 30, A in line 35, and M in line 37. Each time students respond with disagreement, the disagreement phrase is repeated by T. This acted to emphasize both the point of the activity, for students to offer a variety of disagreement phrases, and that the statements being offered are correct. In all students offered the following phrases for disagreeing:

Elicited phrases for disagreeing

| I don’t think so; | I can’t believe you; | that’s not true; | that doesn’t make sense; |
| you’re wrong; | I’m not sure [I agree with you]; | it’s impossible |

Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched

The analysis showed that the activity was successful in the second iteration in that it was effectively understood by students as a result of more careful introduction and that a variety of phrases were elicited from the students. My field notes reiterated the success of the activity, in which I noted:
“First activity went much better today. Finding locally relevant topics, controversial topics, really helped to force people to disagree with me. We were able to generate some good phrases together and that kind of set the scene.”

As the aims of the introduction activity were achieved, the HLT met the ALT for this activity.

Activity 1 Make your own controversial statements. Use the statements to practice disagreeing. (Unchanged)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

Given that this activity was successful in the first iteration, as it allowed for extensive practice using the target language to disagree, it was anticipated that the activity would produce a similar outcome in this second iteration. Furthermore, it was decided that activities 1 and 2 would change position in the second iteration, as this would a) allow students more time to prepare and think about their own statements in this activity 1, and b) give students exposure to the disagreeing strategy, allowing them to think more quickly in the card game.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 22 shows H and M disagreeing with D’s statement, that his hometown, Ilsan, is the best place in Korea.

Excerpt 22

101. D: ...ilsan is the best place in the country.
102. H: NO WAY
103. D: because-
104. H: haha.
D: there are Ilsan Lake Park and-
M: which city?
H: [ilsan]
D: [ilsan. The city, its transport transpic- uh, is very
comfortable. And there are (. ) the city is clean and
there are multiplex cinema and shopping mall.
H: NO WAY! Seoul, I’m from Seoul, and Seoul has Han river.
also big river, really beautiful river in the world. And
also we have a lot of market complex we can enjoy. And
also transportation is perfect.
M: all of them in Seoul.
H: right.
D: no but in Seoul, there are air polllute. uh air pollution
is bad. But Ilsan is much better than Seoul...

In line 102, H instantly disagrees with D’s statement using a target language phrase. Nevertheless, D persists in offering a reason why Ilsan is the best place to live in line 105, and further elaborated in line 108. In line 111, H further disagrees using the same target language phrase and counter claims that Seoul is bigger and better than Ilsan. In CA terms, disagreement would typically be a dispreferred second turn. Levinson points out that in conversation, 'the two essential features of dispreferred actions are thus (a) they tend to occur in marked format, and (b) they tend to be avoided' (1983:333), markedness, in this sense, meaning the less normal, less usual response. In contrast here, however, disagreement in this activity is the expected, normal response as it has been legitimized in the instructions to students; to disagree with their partner. This shows through in H’s second turns in lines 102 and 111, as she disagrees instantly and somewhat emphatically with D. This forces D to defend his position, for example, in line 117, where he offers another reason why Ilsan is the better city, because the air in Ilsan is much cleaner than in Seoul. For 26 more turns, the discussion is filled with several more instances of claim, disagreement and counter claim, meaning, therefore, that D is forced to offer further reasons for his assertion that Ilsan is the better place to live.
**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

“Constructive conflict and the open sharing of ideas” (Mercer & Littleton 2007: 54), is a key element of exploratory talk. Constructive conflict in the form of disagreement, however, is something that typically passive Korean students may find difficult and would tend to avoid. It would be important, therefore, for Korean students to practice this strategy. This is supported by A in his final post course interview, when asked what was the most useful strategy, stating “Disagree is sometimes useful. So I think that is the most.” This activity, legitimized disagreement, thereby allowing students freedom to practice disagreeing on several topics, in a playful way (Chappell 2014). The ALT, therefore, met the HLT for this activity.

**Activity 2 Practice disagreeing using controversial statement cards (Unchanged)**

**Hypothetical learning trajectory**

**Conjecture of how well students would respond**

This activity was successful in iteration one as it offered space for extensive disagreement practice, as well as affording students opportunity to practice other elements of exploratory talk for language learning. It was anticipated that the activity would prove similarly successful in this iteration

**Actual learning trajectory**

**Transcript excerpt, clarification**

Excerpt 23 shows D picking and reading from the card that states ‘When choosing a career, money is the most important factor’, with T initially helping D to understand the word career, followed by the opening turns of disagreement.
Excerpt 23

275. D: when choosing a career, what career?
276. T: job.
277. D: yeah when choosing a job, money is the most important factor.
279. H: oh, no, no way, i can’t agree with you.
280. M: me too.
281. H: we are not, uh how can i say-
282. D: money maybe not important for woman.
283. H: why?
284. D: but maybe money is-
285. H: oh no, no, no, no, why for women? why for women? you have to tell me why?
287. M: that’s your fault. haha.

Once D finishes reading the card, H, in line 279, immediately disagrees using a target disagreeing phrase. In the following turn, M states his position in the discussion by agreeing with H. In line 282, D furthers his argument by stating that money may not be as important in a career for women as it is for men. This somewhat angers H, who demands justification from D. M realizes that D has put himself in a difficult situation in which he has do defend a somewhat sexist remark, distancing himself from this by saying, in line 287 “that’s your fault!” Excerpt 24 illustrates the continuing argument between H and D.

Excerpt 24

288. H: why?
290. D: because you have to earn mo-, you have to earn money for your, your, you need to do your-
292. H: OK i’m getting angry.
293. D: ( ) you don’t need to.
294. H: what?
In the excerpt, in which D takes the position that men have a social pressure to earn money, in other words, to be the family breadwinner, suggesting, therefore, that money is more important in a career for men than for women. In direct contrast to D’s position, H argues that the ‘social atmosphere’ makes working life unfair for women, giving the example in line 313 that in a job interview situation, a man would get picked over a woman, even though their qualifications may be the same. From line 315, the argument continues for several more turns and involves some intervention from T to prevent the argument descending into a gender dispute and to guide the discussion back towards the more neutral discussion of whether or not money is the most important career factor.

Indeed, gender wage inequality is a pervasive problem in Korea. According to Seguino (1997), the exploitation thesis suggests that in an export led economy such as
South Korea, a country that is also patriarchal, women a) hold an inferior position to men, culturally, politically, legally, and economically, b) are often segregated into low paying jobs and c) are likely to remain in a situation where inequality is the status quo without extensive government intervention. Under this context H, a female student, is somewhat justifiably angered by D’s suggestion that money is simply not as important for women.

**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

The dissonance within activity produced some rich and interesting discussion allowing students to take polarized, yet authentic and well developed positions on given topics. A found the activity useful, as noted in the following turns of his post session interview:

> *Uh actually some paragraph [phrases] is as I know that paragraph [phrase]. These like disagree and talking about disagree paragraph [phrases], its good about talking conversation with another people.*

Here, A was trying to say that the target language would be useful in his future English discussions with other people. In my field notes I also felt the activity was useful, observing that:

> *Some of the disagreeing topics got genuinely quite heated and students were able to use those, the topics for disagreeing, to generate quite interesting conversations uh, and quite genuinely disagree with each other, which was really good.*

I felt that students benefitted from the opportunity to strongly disagree. I also noted that the class as a whole went well:

> *It seemed like a lot of talking was going on and they were able to generate some kind of exploratory talk within their discussions so good, good class.*
I also sensed that the talk taking place in the session was educationally effective. Given
the rich dialogue that the activity generated as well as my own and A’s positive
reflection, the HLT met the ALT for this activity.
Strategy training session 8 ‘Giving opinions’

Screenshot image of materials: Phase 2 Session 8

Giving Opinions

In this lesson, you will practice giving your opinions and backing them up with reasons. Giving your opinions and offering reasons for your opinions will allow you to express what you really think about a topic and why.

**Phrases for giving your opinion**

I think that …
I (don't) think that ...
In my opinion …
My opinion is (that) ...
In my experience …
I feel that ...
I’d like to say (that) …
I prefer ...
I believe that …
Can I answer that?
Can I respond to that?

**Giving opinions example dialogue**

A: What do you think about mathematics?  
*(asking for an opinion)*

B: *I think* mathematics is a very difficult subject.  
*(Giving an opinion)*

A: Oh yeah? Why do you think so?  
*(Rejoinder and follow up)*

B: Because it is so easy to make a mistake and get a wrong answer.  
*(Giving a reason)*

A: ... Keep the conversation going ...
Activity 1 Give your opinions on school subjects

Fill in the questions using the school subjects in the box. Then ask for your partner’s opinion using your questions. When your partner gives their opinion, ask a follow up question to find a reason for their opinion. Try to keep your conversations going.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Art</th>
<th>Business Studies</th>
<th>Drama</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Geography</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Math</td>
<td>Social Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>PE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Do you think ________________ is difficult?
2. How do you feel about ________________?
3. Do you prefer ________________ or ________________?
4. What do you think about ________________?
5. Do you think that ________________ is easy?
6. What's your opinion of ________________?
7. Are you interested in ________________?
8. Do you think ________________ is boring?
**Activity 2** Make opinion statements. Use statements to make ‘giving opinions’ dialogues. Cut up and laminate one set for each group of students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. <strong>watch / TV</strong> ...</th>
<th>2. <strong>learn / English</strong> ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. boring.</td>
<td>a. easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. entertaining.</td>
<td>b. difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. a waste of time.</td>
<td>c. important for my future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. <strong>ride / a bicycle</strong> ...</th>
<th>4. <strong>travel / by air</strong> ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. healthy.</td>
<td>a. expensive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. hard work.</td>
<td>b. quick.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. good for the environment</td>
<td>c. convenient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. <strong>use / social networks</strong> ...</th>
<th>6. <strong>live / alone</strong> ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. enhances social interaction.</td>
<td>a. easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. reduces social interaction.</td>
<td>b. boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. addictive.</td>
<td>c. lonely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. <strong>go / abroad</strong> ...</th>
<th>8. <strong>play / computer games</strong> ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. a great experience.</td>
<td>a. a lot of fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. expensive.</td>
<td>b. boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. a luxury.</td>
<td>c. addictive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9. <strong>watch / movies</strong> ...</th>
<th>10. <strong>shop</strong> ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. entertaining.</td>
<td>a. fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. a waste of time.</td>
<td>b. boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. relaxing.</td>
<td>c. expensive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>11. <strong>save / money</strong> ...</th>
<th>12. <strong>do / regular exercise</strong> ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. hard.</td>
<td>a. beneficial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. easy.</td>
<td>b. hard to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. pointless.</td>
<td>c. time-consuming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13. <strong>do / homework</strong> ...</th>
<th>14. <strong>cook</strong> ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. important for my studies</td>
<td>a. easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. not important for my studies</td>
<td>b. difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. boring.</td>
<td>c. only for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ...</td>
<td>d. ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity 2 Make opinion statements. Use statements to make ‘giving opinions’ dialogues
Pick an opinion card, use the card to give an opinion about the topic on the card. Practice giving reasons for your opinions. Your partner will ask follow up questions and clarify and ask for comprehension if necessary. Use the cards to have conversations about the topic.

Activity 1 Give your opinions on school subjects (Revised)

Hypothetical learning trajectory

Conjecture of how well students would respond

Revisions to this activity were made a) to include an example dialogue at the beginning of the session to help students understand the aim of the activity, to practice giving opinions, asking follow up questions and generating discussion, and b) to delete an unnecessary ‘writing response notes’ element of the activity. In the first iteration, the activity was successful in terms of producing rich and interesting dialogue. It was anticipated that, given the revisions, the activity would continue to be successful in the second iteration.

Actual learning trajectory

Transcript excerpt, clarification

Excerpt 25 shows H and M discussing whether or not they prefer math or English and T also joining in the discussion.

Excerpt 25

64. M: do you prefer math or english?
65. H: uh i prefer english. yeah.
M: why?
H: because i think, if i study math well i can study about logical thinking or with logic. but if i study english i can communicate with a lot of people. but i prefer communicate with a lot of people because i can hear their feelings or opinions.
T: do you think english is more practical?
H: practical m:m.
T: yeah. sometimes math is sometimes a bit abstract.
H: abstract, right. and in real life i don’t actually need to use that or just possibly just like sometimes.
T: how about you? do you prefer math or english?
M: definitely math.
((laughter))
M: when i was at high school. uh, now i prefer both of them. that is uh, when i was in high school. i studied just reading in English. and that reading is very confusing and inefficient reading.
T: yeah?
M: yeah and it’s kind of bad.
T: is this english?
M: yeah, they didn’t use usual words.
T: mhm.
M: they, they use. really they really tried to make difficult sentences.
T: oh difficult vocabulary-
M: yeah people cannot understand.
T: oh.
M: but that is not english.
T: oh. yeah right it’s just, just-
H: NO. i disagree with him.
T: why do you think so?
H: because it’s really. when i was in high school i really like english because it was some paragraph. it’s really, sometimes it’s really interesting and useful.
The activity allows practice stating opinions and giving reasons, which is evident in the opening turns of the excerpt. For example, in line 65, H states that she prefers English to math. M in the subsequent turn, asks for a reason, to which H states that while math offers logical thinking, English offers communication and the opportunity to find out about people’s feelings and opinions, which to her is preferable. Offering opinions, along with asking for and giving reasons in and of themselves, are characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning (ETLL), while the excerpt as a whole shows that students were able to form rich and interesting discussion on the topic.

However, the excerpt also offers an interesting example of the teacher’s role in classroom ETLL. To summarise Boyd’s (2012) description of the teacher’s role in exploratory talk: a) teacher serves as guide and leads only indirectly; b) teacher asks contingent questions; c) place holding turns are evidence of teacher listening; d) in general, teacher listens and is interested in student talk; e) teacher may ask for more information or clarification; e) teacher may provide links between student contributions and f) teacher should position students as primary knowers with the ability to understand each other and discuss competently. Indeed, all of these characteristics are present in T’s contributions through the excerpt. In line 72 and 74, T acts in a guiding role, helping H to build on her opinion, that she prefers English, by suggesting that English is practical and math can be abstract. This allows H to elaborate on her opinion and point out that in real life she doesn’t need abstract math concepts. Lines 84, 88 and 93 are examples of T using place holding turns to show he is listening and is interested in what his students are saying. In line 77, T asks M to contribute an opinion by re-asking the topic leading question, thus also providing a link between H and M. Interestingly, M then gives a contrary opinion to H that, at least in high school, he preferred math. This opened up a rich line of discussion on the problems of English teaching in Korean high schools. The points M makes echo the issues outlined in the context section of the literature review, such as an overemphasis on reading complex texts without much communicative language practice.
**Qualitative impression of how well the HLT and ALT matched**

Overall, the activity successfully allowed students to take the general topic of school subjects and practice giving opinions, and asking for and giving justification for opinions through reasoning. As this main aim was achieved, the HLT met the ALT for the activity. This is supported by A’s post session interview, stating “...I satisfied for practice English subject or class material is similar different, but practice is more good for me”. Here A is trying to point out that the activity allowed him to practice the strategy in a similar, or repetitive, but varied way and that the practice had a positive effect.

As an extra point, in my field notes, I pointed out that this strategy might be better placed earlier in the course. Giving opinions is a fundamental strategy that is often used in conjunction with other strategies. For example, disagreeing is often followed by an opinion justifying the disagreement; challenging is often followed by the challenged giving an opinion to justify a previous assertion. Furthermore, opinions are central to discussion in and of themselves. Placing the strategy training session earlier may help students be more confident offering their own opinions in their discussions, and therefore should be considered for future iterations.

**Activity 2 Make opinions using opinion statement cards. Use opinions as basis for discussion. (Unchanged)**

**Summary**

In iteration 1, students showed they could create opinion based dialogue ‘on the fly’, that included many elements of exploratory talk for language learning. In the second iteration, the activity continued to provide space for students to offer opinions and give reasons for their opinions, using the cards as a semi structured method of forming their opinion on the given topic. The student’s opinions then formed the basis for discussion. For example, students were able to offer opinions on topics such as computer games, which is an issue in South Korea as it is a country with a high Internet
addiction rate, with addicts spending most of their time playing online games. Online
game addiction can lead to interpersonal problems such as a lack of ability to express
thoughts and feelings in the real world (Seo et al. 2009). The students were able to show
an awareness and give their opinions on issues such as this, discussing computer games
as a social issue while sharing methods of avoiding the problems associated with them.

On reflection, I noted in my field notes that “these style of activities give
students that constant repetition practice, and it’s helpful for them to sort of become
more confident in doing these style of things, such as having opinions.” I was satisfied
that students had a lot of opportunity to practice giving their opinions and gain
confidence in doing so. Students therefore, successfully achieved the activity’s aim,
meaning that the HLT met the ALT.

7.4 Iteration 2 reflection

This section offers point, triangle, line and circle reflection for the second
iteration of the intervention. To briefly review, point reflection reflects on an unplanned
insight; line reflection considers the norms, related to ‘actor, process and product’ in a
given instance to improve the intervention; triangle reflection considers an issue by
reflecting on the perspective of different participants to see what can be learned. Finally,
in circle reflection, I reflect on my research methods.

Point reflection

I became aware of an advantage of conducting a second iteration. I noticed that I
spent a lot of space in iteration 1 ironing out problems with the design. This allowed
many of the design issues to be overcome and allowed more space for a richer analysis
of the ways in which students addressed given topics, and the issues that were raised
within the students’ discussions, particularly in the second phase of the intervention. For
example, I was able to show how H played the doubting game in the ‘Challenge the
assertion’ activity, and how students addressed the Korean phenomenon of Chaesu, in
which high school students study for an extra year to retake their scholastic ability tests, when asking for more details about best friends. Showing students nuanced talk and the way in which they addressed complex topics in their L2 is an important part of defining the success of the intervention, but may not have been possible without multiple iterations.

**Line reflection**

It is important to be aware of how discussions can develop within the activities and take interesting tangents, often produces authentic language, and authentic use of the target strategies. For example, here I reflect on the discussion in Excerpts 23 and 24, in which students D, H and M, joined by T, begin by discussing whether money is the most important factor when looking for a job, but move the discussion on a tangent regarding gender issues in the workplace. This resulted in a heated discussion with rich and authentic disagreement and other elements of exploratory talk for language learning. In this way, being aware of and encouraging tangential discussions within the activities can enrich-students’ engagement in exploratory talk for language learning.

**Triangle reflection**

Over the two iterations it was interesting to reflect that disagreeing was perceived to be the most important strategy, both by myself, the students interviewed and arguably within the transcript data. From students’ perspective, A in his post course interview stated “Disagree is sometimes useful. So I think that is the most”, And that learning this strategy would be useful for his future discussions. Likewise, in the first iteration M pointed out that disagreeing was a strategy she really needed. In my field notes, I felt that the discussions that were generated in the session were, not only heated and interesting but also authentic. This was evident in the transcript data, for example, in the way students disagreed about how social pressure for men and women made working life harder either for men or for women, depending on which factors were
supporting the respective arguments. Furthermore, as was pointed out in the analysis, within normal conversation, disagreeing is a *dispreferred* second, in that a speaker would tend to prefer to be agreed with. This adds an extra layer of difficulty, especially to typically passive Korean students. This combined makes disagreement, on reflection, arguably the most important strategy to practice.

**Circle reflection**

One point raised by my tutor was that on occasions, I need to do more than simply summarize what is happening in transcript data and attempt to produce richer analysis. While I have attempted to analyse activities and the collected data as richly as possible, my ability to do so has developed over time as I have gone through the design-based research process. I am aware therefore, that any future analysis should not fall into the trap of simply summarizing transcripts.
CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION

8.1 Introduction to discussion

This research was born from my role as an adult English conversation class teacher at Konkuk University in Seoul. In my classes I felt that students benefitted most when they were engaged in stimulating, collaborative, meaningful dialogue, in which they could share their opinions and back them up with reasons, respectfully disagree with or challenge each other, yet still work to cumulatively build knowledge and create affordances for language learning (Edge 2011; van Lier 2000) through noticing emergent language and negotiating for meaning (Long 1996). This perceived need for students to learn and engage in exploratory talk for language learning (ETLL) in classroom discussions was grounded in theories of classroom language teaching and learning. Specifically, the research was predicated on the notion that interaction in classroom activities benefits language learning (Lighbown & Spada 2003) and the sociocultural theory that language in the classroom should be used as a tool for collective thinking, as the success of language learning “may be explained by the quality of educational dialogue” (Mercer 2004: 139) that students engage in. Johnson’s (2004) dialogically based model of language learning was shown to provide a framework that legitimises the development of the Talk Skills project, as here Johnson foregrounds the primary aim of classroom teaching and learning as to improve learners’ ability to think act and speak in their L2.

The research problem was that my students, at times, embodied typical Korean classroom learner behaviour (Cho 2004; Lim & Griffith 2003) that limited their ability to maximise their opportunities to learn through their classroom talk, detailed in chapter 2. The desire to overcome this problem, led to the conceptualisation of the following research questions:
1. What guides and supports the design of an intervention that aims to help learners use exploratory talk for language learning and what are its design features?

2. How does this intervention facilitate adult L2 learners’ use of exploratory talk for language learning?

To address these questions, chapters 6 and 7 showed how the Talk Skills intervention was designed and refined over two iterations, using design-based research methodology a) to raise awareness of effective classroom talk, drawing on previous attempts to do so both in L1 classrooms, such as the Thinking Together project (e.g. Dawes et al. 2003) and L2 classrooms (Halbach 2015), and b) to equip students with strategies with which to engage in ETLL, drawing on previous oral communication strategy training interventions (Bejerano et al. 1997; Lam 2005; Naughton 2006; Oxford 1990) and published material that aims at improving oral communication strategies (e.g. Kehe & Kehe 2013; Emmerson & Hamilton 2005).

McKenney and Reeves outline of the purpose of reporting on design-based research (DBR) as follows: “reporting on design research can raise awareness about an intervention, but is primarily a means for sharing understanding” (2013: 201). As a practitioner/researcher using DBR on a small scale, the outcomes discussed in this chapter are intended as a means of sharing my own understanding of the intervention and how it functions. As such, the research should be viewed as the development of praxis, defined here as “informed, principled, sensitive, socially just and culturally appropriate practice” (Mann & Walsh 2017: 227). Praxis in the Talk Skills project is discussed in terms of the relationship between relevant literature and a) the key instructional techniques used in the intervention, b) student engagement and c) the role of the teacher throughout the two cycles of the intervention. These three points combine to illustrate the contribution of the Talk Skills project and illuminate how metacognitive awareness raising of effective L2 talk and the teaching of oral communicative strategies can be combined and offered in one pedagogic intervention. Few previous studies have
investigated the effects of an intervention that raised awareness of exploratory talk in adult L2 learning (e.g. Halbach 2015). Relatively few other studies have investigated the effects of oral communicative strategy training (Bejarano 1997; Naughton 2006; Lam 2006; Dörnyei 1995; Salamone & Marsal 1997; Scullen & Jourdain 2000; Rossiter 2003), or the combined effects of metacognitive awareness raising and oral communicative strategy training (Nakatani 2005). Moreover, among the studies there is a great deal of variation between how many strategies, what types of strategies, and what kind of combination of awareness raising and strategy training (if any) were taught. Lam (2006) for example, offered the following strategies in her study: resourcing, paraphrasing, using self-repetition, using fillers, using self-correction, asking for repetition, asking for clarification, asking for confirmation. While the Bejarano et al. (1997) study taught both modified interaction strategies: checking for comprehension and clarification, appealing for assistance, giving assistance, repairing, and social interaction strategies: elaborating, facilitating flow of conversation, responding, seeking information or an opinion and paraphrasing. The variation in the amount of strategies being taught, ranged from two sessions of metacognitive awareness raising to twenty weeks of strategy training. It was felt appropriate, therefore, for this study to conduct research that focused on design of an intervention that achieved the appropriate progression through metacognitive awareness raising of ETLL and strategy training that both suited my own research context of Korean adult learners and helped students use the strategies needed to achieve ETLL. Design-based research (McKenney & Reeves 2013) helped to place focus on the design of the intervention itself.

By extension, another contribution of the research has been to build the intervention around the concept of ETLL. The sessions of metacognitive awareness raising in phase one were based on previous attempts to build awareness of exploratory talk in L1 classrooms (e.g. Mercer & Litteleton 2007) and in L2 classrooms (Halbach 2015) and attempted to make students aware of how to achieve exploratory talk for language learning in their L2 discussions. Then, the eight strategy training sessions in phase 2 were chosen each to develop a specific feature of ETLL. McKenney and Reeves sum up the contribution of such DBR as follows:
“the primary practical contribution of educational design research is the intervention developed to solve a real problem in practice… Interventions are primarily useful for the solution that they offer to a specific problem, but they can also be of value by setting a powerful or inspiring example. Another practical contribution of educational design research is the development of expertise among project participants” (2013: loc 1011)

After two cycles of DBR, the primary contribution within this research, therefore, is the Talk Skills intervention, available here: http://discussionstrategies.weebly.com/. The intervention has been my own attempt to solve the problem of how to optimize adult L2 group discussion in the Korean context. On a personal level, the project supports McKenney and Reeves’ point that as a teacher researcher I now have a better understanding of the problems facing adult Korean learners who attempt to develop their oral communicative skills and an improved ability to develop such skills in my own students in my conversation classes. The following sections bring together the findings related to the key instructional techniques of the intervention, student engagement and the role of the teacher during its implementation. In order to present these findings, first a visual mapping on poster paper of the key themes of chapters 6 and 7 was undertaken (see appendix IV). Themes were then coded as relevant either to instructional techniques of the intervention, student engagement, or the role of the teacher. Themes that were deemed sufficiently noteworthy are arranged and discussed in the following sections. Sections 8.2, 8.3 and 8.4 represent a discussion of the answers to the research questions outlined above. The discussion is further summarized in the concluding section of the chapter.

8.2 Important instructional techniques used in the Talk Skills intervention

At the beginning of the project my intention was to adapt the Thinking Together project to become viable in my own Korean adult L2 context. However, to achieve this aim, it became apparent that the adoption would mean a greater emphasis placed the teaching of language strategies that students could use to engage in ETLL, a concept
that took only a small part of the L1 project (Dawes 2012). This lead to the development of the strategy training sessions in phase 2 of the intervention. Oxford (2003: 7) states that the key to a successful strategy training intervention is to “offer a great variety of activities within a learner centered, communicative approach”. Oxford’s assertion neatly summarizes the pedagogic choice in this current research to offer a variety of instructional techniques in both phase 1 and 2 of the Talk Skills intervention. Chapters 6 and 7 established the findings, with regard to instructional techniques used in the intervention, as they arose inductively across the two iterations. What follows here is a thematically arranged discussion on the significance of the most important instructional techniques used in the intervention.

(i) **Brainstorming.** Flaitze et al. (1995) state that brainstorming may provide an overarching awareness of concepts and ideas associated with spoken communication and may further offer a creative exercise that develops student’s notions of what they do when they talk (Houston 2006). Brainstorming was used in phase 1 of the project as an opportunity for awareness raising of a) what students do when they talk and b) the characteristics of effective group discussion. Findings on the use of brainstorming in the Talk Skills intervention support the assertions of Flaitze et al. and Houston in that the exercises helped students become aware of effective classroom talk in a collaborative and creative way. As an illustrative example, activity 2 p.225, showed that when brainstorming characteristics of effective group discussion, students were not only able to focus on the task and generate ideas, but also use the task to think critically about themselves as learners in real group learning contexts, thinking reflectively about what they can do to improve their group participation. This finding adds weight to (Khodadady et al.’s (2011:59) assertions that brainstorming improves students “critical thinking skill in general and their ability to reach deductions in particular.”

(ii) **Experiential learning.** Experiential learning was influential in the decision to include discussions on previous language learning experiences (exercise 1 p.122 and activity 1 p.212) and previous experiences of group work (exercise 2 p.131 and activity 1 p.223). Experiential learning also occurred incidentally, for example in activity 1 p.313, as students were asked to give their opinions on school subjects, they did so by drawing on their previous experiences in school learning the subjects. The intervention
drew both on Kolb’s (1984) and Fowler’s (2007) concepts of experiential learning in which learning is seen as the product of reflecting on experience. Experiential learning informed activities had a mostly positive influence. However, exercise 1 p.122 showed that, while Cummins (1979) suggests interaction skills are transferrable from one language to another, students found it difficult to talk in abstract and general terms about L1 talk experiences and were confused when asked to infer connections between L1 and L2, for example, when asked to discuss people in their everyday lives that were easy to talk to. In the second iteration, when students were asked to reflect on their experiences talking and learning specifically in their L2, this exercise was more successful. This can be seen in Excerpt 1 p.212, in which both M and G used long and complex turns to reflect on themselves as language learners and gave positive feedback on the activity in interviews. Furthermore, when students were asked to share their own good and bad experiences of group discussion, both my own field notes and student reflective interviews showed that this helped to raise awareness of effective group discussion (Long & Porter 1985; Dörnyei & Malderez 1997). Findings on experiential learning support Ghaye’s (2011) assertion that reflecting on experience represents the connection between what we do and how to improve and become more effective.

(iii) Guidelines/Ground rules for talk. A third instructional technique in phase one was the creation of guidelines/ground rules for classroom talk. Mercer states that in L1 children’s classrooms “when teachers bring ground rules for discussion out into the open for consideration with their classes, this can lead to improved motivation and levels of performance” (1996: 6). Similarly, Dörnyei (1997) asserts the need to spend time initially training L2 learners in cooperative learning skills such as building trust and managing conflict. Furthermore, Halbach (2015) has shown that making ground rules explicit in the Spanish adult L2 classroom helps to improve student discussion. In the Talk Skills intervention, the method for creating ground rules/guidelines was adapted from the Thinking Together project (Dawes et al. 2003), but the general concept is also supported in the co-operative learning literature (e.g. Dörnyei 1997).

In Iteration 2, it was found through A’s student feedback for activity 3 p.229, that adult learners would respond better by changing the concept of ground rules to guidelines. A stated ‘I think rule, rule. That word is some difficult... To make rule is
some difficult but we share about our opinion about group discussion so it is good’. Here, A’s comments helped to show that the notion of rules is ‘difficult’ in that it carries the idea of explicit regulation. It was decided that guidelines would be a better term as it emphasizes principled guidance and is reflected in the published intervention. Nevertheless, students in both iterations responded well to the idea of making these guidelines explicit at the beginning of the course. In Iteration 1, P in a post session interview, p.136, noted that the rules would help to create a positive atmosphere, while F noted in the post course interview, p.136, that the rules helped him to achieve exploratory talk for language learning during course group talk. In iteration 2, J stated that the guidelines would be useful both for the present moment and for future classes, p.230, and A in the post course interview, stated that the guidelines aided motivation, p.229. Sheeran and Barnes (1991) further point out that without raising awareness of the expectations connected to ground rules/guidelines not only students but also teachers are unaware of them. As a teacher/researcher I felt that the class, including myself, benefitted from collective awareness raising of effective talk and the need to achieve it in discussion. Joint understanding meant that all members of the classroom context could share and strive toward a common goal. This is reflected in F’s comment ‘every time I think the ground rule and I follow the rule” as well as A’s similar comment ‘Every time we are see the rule so we are motivated from that’. Moreover, students and myself found that asking students to create and agree upon the guidelines themselves, allowed the them to take responsibility for what should be happening in their own discussions. This is in line with literature on L2 learner autonomy which claims that “autonomous learners become more highly motivated and that autonomy leads to better, more effective work” (Dickinson 1995: 165).

(iv) Task based learning. Task based learning (TBL) activities were included successfully in the intervention. Willis (1996) states that using tasks, such as those described in the TBL literature, may provide exposure to the target language, opportunities for communicative target language use and motivation to engage in learning, as well as offer a chance to move away from teacher centered classroom interaction. In the Talk Skills intervention, students engaged in sorting tasks in the follow up questions, comprehension checks and asking for help strategy sessions, each
time sorting conversation cards and using the conversations to practice the respective strategies. In all cases, such tasks were included at the beginning of strategy training sessions, in which students sorted and practiced sets of adjacency pairs, which provided controlled exposure to the target language. I found that the tasks supported Willis’s assertions, above, as they provided useful exposure to the target language and opportunity to use the target language communicatively. For example, during a sorting activity in exercise 1 p.163, P noted of the target language “maybe uh very useful words for English class”. This would suggest that through the task, P was also able to recognize the importance of the strategy. However, the success of the activities as a whole depended on a) the sorting and practice phases being complemented with a further stimulating step such as allowing the students to explain the function of the strategy to each other (Willis 2008) and b) the inclusion of a whole class dialogic plenary that discussed the benefits of the given strategy (Mercer 2003).

(v) Locally relevant knowledge. Across the activities, I found it important for learners to be able to access locally relevant knowledge. Canagarajah has shown that the movement towards globalization in language education assumes:

“a pluralistic model of a world where all communities enjoy relative autonomy, with empowered local identities, values, and knowledge; but the way knowledge is spread belies this notion, displaying a one-sided imposition of homogeneous discourses and intellectual traditions by a few dominant communities.” (2005: xiv)

My own students encountered this problem in iteration 1 p.188 when asked to disagree with controversial statements. Students found it difficult to disagree with ‘global’ statements such as ‘Real Madrid is the best football team in the world’. Data for the same activity in iteration 2 p.302, showed that when these statements were revised and students were asked to disagree with ‘local’ controversial statements, the outcome of the activity was more successful, as students were able to disagree with the statements using varied disagreement phrases, achieving the aim of the activity. This finding supports Luk’s (2005: 248) assertion that “people communicate (irrespective of whether it is their
first or second language) mainly for the purpose of asserting their local identity, interests, and values.”

When students were able to access locally relevant knowledge, the outcomes in terms of dialogue were often rich and interesting. During the asking for clarification strategy training session, students were asked to complete statements with their own ideas in order for their partners to practice asking for clarification. Taking Canagarajah’s definition of local knowledge as “context-bound, community-specific, and nonsystematic because it is generated ground-up through social practice in everyday life” (2005: 4), Excerpt 9 p.247, showed that students accessed knowledge on a topical issue: hate speech in Korean internet chat forums. Likewise, in Excerpt 16 p.282, students entered into an interesting discussion on chaesu, the Korean practice of spending a year retaking college entrance exams in order to enter elite universities with high brand capital (Ablemann et al. 2009). The findings showed that by avoiding U.S. centric exchanges and allowing students to access their local knowledge, students could engage in ETLL, allowing the target strategy to emerge naturally in the talk, while also engaging in other oral communication strategies that aid ETLL (e.g. Wegerif et al. 1999). Findings here support Thornbury and Meddings’ (2008) assertions that classroom language learning is effective when activities are language productive and allow students to focus on the language as it emerges naturally.

(vi) Games. While games did not play a wide role in the intervention, Just a minute! was used to practice the strategy of challenging. Deesri (2002: paragraph 9) found several advantages of games, stating that they “provide motivation, lower students' stress, and give them the opportunity for real communication”. The use of Just a minute! in the Talk Skills intervention supported these findings. Excerpt 20 p.294, for example, showed that within one turn of the game, three students D, H and J were able to practice challenging within the difficult context of the game. Moreover, students were playing the game using complex turns, suggesting that the game promoted language proficiency development (Richard-Amato 1996). In post session interviews, students also noted the activity was “very fun” and “really good”. However, findings also emphasized the important role of the teacher in a) making sure instructions are clear and
well understood (Deesri 2002), and b) in encouraging participation throughout the activity.

(vii) Cooperative learning. The intervention also drew on cooperative learning informed strategy training techniques (Naughton 2006; Bejarano et al. 1997), which take the sociocultural view that oral interaction skills are learned first through collaborative dialogue and second incorporated into the learner’s linguistic repertoire (Swain 2000; Lantolf 2000). In the Cooperative Organization of Strategies for Oral Interaction (COSOI) program, Naughton promotes “an embedded but direct form of strategy training… [that] also includes the explicit discussion of the strategies, along with a rationale for their use” (2006: 171). Furthermore, Bejerano et al. in their successful Skilled Use of Interaction Strategies (SUIS) program, another cooperative learning oriented intervention, showed it was important that “students were constantly made aware of the strategies they needed to use in order to make the interaction more effective” (1997: 207). In line with Naughton, I found that strategy training sessions were effective when intuitively embedded into my conversation class, with eight sessions offered in a 10-week course, at approximately one per week at the end of a textbook unit. This is also supported by Chamot (2004) who favors integrating strategy instruction into the regular course. I also found, in line with Naughton and Bejerano et al., that it was important for students to be made aware of strategies and how they should be used. To do this, I found adopting Naughton’s use of information sheets to explain strategy function and form valuable (see the information sheets used in the strategy training sessions for rejoinders and follow up questions; asking for clarification; checking for comprehension; asking for help; challenging and justifying; disagreeing and giving opinions), often emphasized in my field note data.

Crandall (1999) promotes the use of cooperative activities as they encourage collaboration and interdependence, while Çelik et al. point out that a cooperative approach aids students to “increase target language use, improve communication skills, build confidence and stimulate learner autonomy” (2013: 1852). Session 4, asking for help, provides an example of cooperative learning informed activities, as the whole session was adapted from Naughton’s COSOI program. Here, students were first introduced to the concept of asking for help with a sorting activity, followed by two
activities that integrated asking for help into a talk. Excerpt 11 p.164, for example, showed that learners were able to cooperate together to help P find words during his talk, in an authentic way (Külekçi 2015). In both iterations, findings support the cooperative learning literature, that cooperative activities, which promote collaboration and interaction, create opportunities for language learning (Oxford 1997).

(viii) Plenaries. Plenaries were an important and often used instructional technique across phases one and two. Literature on the use of plenaries promotes a dialogic approach “that takes different points of view seriously… encouraging students to talk in an exploratory way that supports development of understanding (Ruthven at al. 2011: 81). A dialogic approach moves away from authoritative teacher feedback in the initiation-response-feedback triadic discourse structure (Sinclair & Coulthard 1975), toward multivocal, reflective dialogue. Analysis showed that when whole class dialogic plenaries were used, for example, Excerpt 4 p.129, whole class interaction helped to raise awareness of effective listening skills, in which students themselves provide the majority of information. Here, the dialogic plenary acted as a process of structured guided discovery (Gagne & Brown 1961) of what it means to be a good listener, where students shared their own ideas such as not interrupting, making suggestions, being interested and being curious. However, as Ruthven at al. (2011) point out, orchestrating dialogic plenaries is challenging, and in reality, my own tendency, more often than not, was to use monologic plenaries, which were somewhat limiting. Excerpt 7 p.237, for example, showed that the monologic plenary phase of a task based activity, aimed at introducing the concept of rejoinders and follow up questions, was not stimulating for students. In this instance, I simply pointed out that that rejoinders and follow up questions were a “good strategy”, thereby negating opportunity for students to understand for themselves through interaction why follow up questions are useful in discussions. Findings on plenaries support Willis’ (2008) assertion that activities are more stimulating and rewarding for students when they include a final stage which students are involved interactionally in some way.

(ix) Small group oral interaction. Another often used technique across both phases of the intervention was the facilitation of small group oral interaction. Section 3.4 outlined the claimed benefits of group work, briefly, that group work increases
language practice opportunities, improves the quality of talk, creates a positive affective climate, motivates learners, allows students to pool and exploit joint resources, reforms attitudes of group members through joint reasoning and facilitates second language acquisition (Long & Porter 1985; Dörnyei & Malderez 1997). Furthermore, Mercer (2004) asserts that through joint activity, group work facilitates learners’ ability to use language as a tool for thinking and the construction of knowledge. Finally, group work is supported by the interaction hypothesis (e.g. Long 1996) and the output hypothesis (Swain 1995), and further supported by sociocultural theory as researched in the field of L2 learning (e.g. Lantolf 2011). Given these claims, group interaction was used extensively in the intervention. Here I do not offer specific evidence for the success of group work over other forms of classroom learning techniques. However, I do suggest that the evidence presented in the analysis chapters often showed that the use of group work presented opportunity for language use. This is in line with Pica and Doughty’s (1985: 247) claim that group work provides “opportunities to practice using the target language and to engage in direct interaction”, provided that the task itself is compelling enough for students to engage in negotiation of input and sufficiently motivating for language production. Furthermore, Oxford asserts that through group interaction, “strategies can be learned through mediation or assistance” (2011: 27). In all sessions, I attempted to maximize peer interaction through pair and group work, in order to create opportunities for target language use. All sessions included at least two activities that involved dyadic, triadic or small group interaction that allowed students to use the target strategy language. Transcript data over both iterations showed that through pair and group activities, students were indeed able to extensively practice the target strategy language. In exercise 2 p.124, for example, brainstorming ideas associated with talk was done collectively, which helped to pool a high number of ideas. Likewise, activities such as activity 2 p.262, in which students were asked to explain a five-step process and check for comprehension after each turn, then quiz group members on how well they understood the explanation, encouraged extensive target strategy language production.
8.3 Student engagement within the intervention

Essential to the success of the intervention was student uptake and engagement within the activities offered in the intervention. However, it is important to view student uptake and engagement within their wider socio-cultural context. This section therefore, begins by reviewing the socio-cultural reality for the students within the research (previously detailed in chapters 2, 3 and 5), before bringing together findings on student engagement during the intervention with regard to humour, practicing the target language and engaging in exploratory talk for language learning.

The context of the research was two ten-week university adult English language conversation courses, running from 7.50 am to 8.40 am Monday to Thursday, running respectively in the spring and fall semesters in 2015. Students were predominantly young adults studying for an undergraduate degree, with one adult working professional also joining the fall course. Research on the Korean L2 learning context has shown that students are typically subject to a number of constraints that may limit the attempt to successfully implement communicative language teaching (CLT). Briefly, these are A) conceptual constraints, in that typically, Koreans adhere to Confucian concepts of education in which the teacher is seen as the ‘font of knowledge’ whereas the student is typically seen as the passive receiver of knowledge (Sun 2008). This contrasts with Western concept of participation at the heart of the success of CLT (Butler 2011). B) classroom-level constraints, whereby non-native teachers that Korean learners are exposed to are often reported to lack confidence to implement active CLT lessons, reverting instead to audiolingual and form focused methods (Prapaisit de Segovia & Hardison 2008). C) Societal-institutional constraints, in which both teachers and students have societal pressure to teach to the grammar-translation test (Butler 2011). Students have a strong need to succeed in high stakes language testing, which may result in a fear of making mistakes in actual language use (Finch 2013; Park 2012). This type of classroom learning may help students to achieve high exams scores, but may not by the best way to develop real-world language use skills. Furthermore, students are aware of the societal reality that English is used as a mechanism of elimination (Song 2011),
for example, strong English language proficiency of a pre-requisite in many high paid jobs in Korea.

Korean learners have also been shown to have specific problems with classroom group oral interaction that stem firstly from the difficulty English, an Indo-European Language that is fundamentally different to Korean, an Ural-Altaic Language (Suh 2003). Secondly, as Koreans strongly associate their identity with their language (Lim & Griffith 2003), they are inclined to use their language frequently in the L2 classroom (Norton 2001), potentially hindering the implementation of a CLT methodology.

Despite such constraints, when the students in this research were surveyed on their perceptions of classroom exploratory talk for language learning (ETLL), the students surveyed had a positive attitude towards its use. The students perceived themselves as having average to weak skills needed to engage in ETLL and reported a desire to improve these skills. Specifically, students responded positively to the suggestion of implementing ground rules for talk and responded positively to the idea of learning the modified interaction strategies and social interaction strategies (Bejarano et al. 1997) for improving ETLL. In sum, reviewed above were the potential limitations and constraints that may have restricted the students L2 learning attempts, their own perceived weaknesses in achieving ETLL and their strong desire to develop strategies to achieve it, in other words, their socio-cultural reality. Within this wider context, the following brings together findings on student uptake and engagement within the Talk Skills intervention with regard to humour, practicing the target language and engaging in exploratory talk for language learning.

(i) Humour. Throughout the intervention I aimed to make the sessions enjoyable for students. This aim is congruent with research on the use of humor in L2 classes, which claims that it is “socially and psychologically beneficial to learners, helping to relax them, to create a comfortable classroom atmosphere, to create bonds among classmates, to raise student interest, and simply to make learning more enjoyable” (Bell 2009: 241). Bell notes the complexity of humor in L2 use and warns of the danger of
oversimplifying humor into typologies, assigning different types of humor to more or less proficient learners. Instead, humor should be seen as co-constructed in dialogue and proficiency as non-stable. Furthermore, while the when and who, i.e. the conditions for humor may be limited, any topic may be found humorous.

In line with Bell’s comments, I found that student engagement in humor during the activities helped students to relax and enjoy talk, creating potential to lower the learners’ affective filters (Du 2009) and provide a source of motivation for further talk. Humor, for example, during the plenary in Excerpt 4 p.129, when H was asked why her partner was a good listener, she stated “they remember me”, an attempt to state the obvious in a humorous way, which produced laughter from the class. In the resulting dialogue, a rich variety of answers were offered to the question ‘what makes an effective listener?’ Laughter also acted to reinforce in-group bonds. in Excerpt 21 p.302, for example, L, P and D were able to laugh together at each other’s biases and preferences when playing computer games, finding how they play computer games every day to relieve exam stress, stay up all night playing games, or avoid computer game addiction funny. Lynch (2010) suggests that such laughter may serve to reinforce the bonds between group members.

I found that, as teacher/researcher, encouraging humor within the intervention could be done either a) in activity design, for example, activity 1 p.291, in which students are asked to challenge fun, lighthearted assertions; b) during the initial instruction phase at the beginning of an activity, for example, in Excerpt 20, p.294, I took on the role of games master in the Just a minute! activity, and used a raised voice to begin the game, saying ‘READY, GO!’ encouraging students to treat the activity as something fun; or c) in interaction with students during an activity, for example, Excerpt 18 p.285, in which I laughed along with M as he told a story of fighting with a girl when he was a school boy.

(ii) Target language use. In line with SLA theory (e.g. Swain 2000) and sociocultural theory for language learning (e.g. Lantolf 2000; Johnson 2004) that language use aids language acquisition, in strategy training sessions, I felt that students
benefitted from the strategy training activities when they were able to use the strategies often within the activities. I also felt students benefitted when they were able to integrate strategy use into authentic talk, in other words, when the speaker needed to offer some kind of real message to group members within the context of a language learning activity (Gilmore 2007; Külekçi 2015). Excerpt 9, p.152, provides a good illustrative example of students maximizing strategy use within an activity. Here in a free talking activity in which students were asked to practice asking for clarification, C regularly did so throughout P’s talk on his chosen topic, helping to clear up misunderstandings authentically. Likewise, in Excerpt 14, p.273, rather than simply asking for help finding words given in the activity, J was able to integrate asking for help finding the words transportation and convenient into a story about getting to school using a bus stop nearby his house, thereby producing a rich and stimulating linguistic environment in which the target strategy can be practiced.

(iii) Engaging in exploratory talk for language learning. I found that students benefitted from engaging (often incidentally) in ETLL during strategy training sessions. ETLL was adapted in this thesis from concepts of exploratory talk (Barnes 1973) in the L1 educational setting and literature on characteristics of effective L2 talk (Chappell 2014; J. Richards 2006; Thornbury & Meddings 2008), detailed in section 3.3. The aim of each of the eight strategy training sessions was to develop a specific element of ETLL. However, I found that student dialogue was often characterized by several elements of ETLL. As noted in point reflection for iteration 1, Excerpt 8, p.150, provides an illustrative example of students practicing the target asking for the clarification strategy as the activity intended, while also respectfully challenging each other. Excerpt 19, p.192, further highlighted how students practiced the intended disagreeing strategy, while at the same time giving opinions, offering reasons, scaffolding each other’s language and reaching agreement. Likewise, Excerpt 19, p.291, for example, showed S and H during an activity intended to practice challenging each other. H and S take opposing positions, respectively that drug addiction is good and bad, and challenged each other’s assertions, which resulted in each justifying their position with reasons. They also respectfully disagreed with each other, and ultimately reached agreement.
Such instances showed that within the intervention activities, students were able to a) enter into dialogue rich in both modified interaction and social interaction strategies (Bejarano et al. 1997) necessary for improving ETLL; b) recycle practiced strategies (Lynch & Maclean 2000) and c) intuitively take risks with new strategies. As the general aim of the intervention is to enhance ETLL in learners, the interaction within the tasks that embodies student engagement in ETLL highlights the way that the intended pedagogical focus of the intervention was transformed into interaction (Seedhouse 2010).

Student engagement in ETLL would also suggest that students benefitted from the process of awareness raising and adhered to the guidelines created in phase one of the intervention, which offered a template for this kind of talk. As Nakatani (2005: 77) notes “in order to cope with difficulties that arise in oral communication in the FL, learners need to use a variety of communication strategies. The question then becomes: How can they come to use strategies effectively in order to learn the FL”. In post course interviews, students in both cycles of the intervention stated awareness raising in phase 1 helped them to produce a high standard of discussion. In cycle 1 p.135, for example, F stated that thinking of the rules throughout the course helped him to follow them in class talk. Likewise, in cycle 2 p.230, student A stated that it was helpful to be made aware of guidelines for talk and that referring to the guidelines that were up on the wall helped to motivate him to engage in exploratory talk for language learning.

Engaging in output as collaborative dialogue. In Swain’s (2000) re-conceptualization of output as collaborative dialogue, the distinction was made between ‘saying’, the cognitive meaning making process between speakers and ‘what is said’, the linguistic object which can be taken up for further reflection. When learners take the opportunity to reflect on and explore what has been said, the opportunity arises for knowledge building through social interaction. This was evident in Excerpt 9 p.152, in which P describes his feeling of being free on his trip to Germany. C the reflects on P’s use of the word free, by asking for further clarification. P’s elaboration of the word free in this context gives C a deeper understanding of the word.
Likewise, in Excerpt 11 p. 250, student A offers a ‘linguistic product’, the location of Quebec. This linguistic product then becomes available for reflection, which is taken up by B, who notices a problem in A’s turn, and asks for clarification of whether Quebec is near Osaka. Through B’s request for clarification, A helps to build the correct knowledge, that Quebec is in fact near Ottawa, not Osaka. These examples support swain’s assertions that when students are allowed to “reflect on language form while still being oriented to meaning making” (Swain 2000: 112) opportunities for the learning of both language, for example, a new word, and strategic processes, for example, asking for clarification of what had been said, arise through the social interaction.

8.4 The teacher’s interactional roles within the intervention

This section details ways in which the teacher’s interactional practices played an important role in the success of the intervention. It is important here to restate my role in the research as both teacher-researcher and designer. In this regard, I attempted to develop an ongoing reflexive process of becoming more aware of the three roles I embodied throughout the research, both by setting up reflexive opportunities, for example, with my tutor during discussion sessions, by using the four strategies for structured reflection (Mckenney & Reeves 2013), or through more esoteric methods of simply giving myself space to think about the research on my own. In my role as researcher, for example, I became aware of the need to develop my ability to take field notes after the first iteration. This lead to more time spent during the second iteration, taking richer field notes, which were presented in the second iteration, e.g. p.229. Reflexivity in my role as designer allowed me to continue to develop the activities in an ongoing eye to improvement. For example, in the second iteration, although the task-based activities were deemed successful in the first iteration, adapting student feedback from the second iteration that suggested they were a somewhat boring (p.238), led me to revise the activities by adding a further dialogic phase, allowing to now use the activities with greater effect. What follows in this section is the product both of my own
reflexivity as a teacher as well as more considered reflection on specific roles of the teacher within the intervention, and on how the role of the teacher aided the success of the activities in the intervention with regard to providing explicit instruction through teacher explanations and modelling and the teacher’s engagement with students in ETLL.

(i) Providing explicit instruction. First, Chamot (2004: 19), who in summarising findings on strategy instruction, states that teachers should “certainly opt for explicit instruction.” In accordance with this assertion, throughout both cycles of the intervention I attempted to provide explicit instruction, where possible combining explanation with guided discovery as this allows students to be more involved in the process of awareness raising and understanding of learning points (Gagne & Brown 1961). This is highlighted in exercise 3 p.133, for example, where students first brainstormed ideas about effective group discussion and shared their own ideas as a class. Then in a teacher fronted plenary, student ideas were compared to my own idealised list of effective group work characteristics as a means of teacher explanation. Finally, this information informed the course guidelines for talk. By combining guided discovery with clear explanation, I was able to successfully raise awareness of effective group discussion, supported both in my field notes and in H’s post session interview in which she felt that sharing many opinions about discussion in this way would help improve future discussion.

ii) Allowing enough time for students to complete tasks. Hinds (1999) highlights the potential cognitive bias that teachers as expert speakers may have, which could lead to underestimating how difficult students find L2 activities. Indeed, there were occasions in the intervention in which I did not give enough time for students to effectively finish activities. In exercise 1 p.128, for example, I asked students to interview each other with the aim of giving feedback in a plenary to show that they listened carefully to their partner. However, as shown in Excerpt 3 p.128, students reported that I only gave them enough time to complete two of the six interview questions. This meant that the students could not effectively show that they had listened to what their partner had said because they were not given enough time to finish the
interview. It is important, therefore, for the teacher to be aware of how difficult students may find tasks and accordingly allow enough time for effective task completion.

(iii) Providing explanation. Providing explanation was an important part of the strategy training sessions in phase two. As noted, information sheets, that included a brief description of the strategy, target strategy language, and example dialogues that showed the strategy in context, were usually used along with brief PowerPoint teacher fronted talks. During teacher explanations, I tried to convey the meaningfulness of the target strategy with the aim of improving student engagement in the activities. A similar approach was taken by Khurram (2015) who noted that helping students understand the significance of strategy training activities helped to improve engagement in and response to the activities (Fredericks el al. 2004). Students felt they benefitted from this kind of teacher explanation, for example, student D, in activity 3 p.266, when asked about this stated “You give us the detailed step. It was helpful”. Furthermore, that students benefit from multimodal explanations, i.e. explanation sheets, PowerPoints and teacher spoken explanation, supports Guichon and McLornan’s (2008: 85) findings that “comprehension improves when learners are exposed to a text in several modalities”.

In line with DBR practices (McKenney & Reeves 2013), it was also important for me to notice and reflect on times when instruction was not effective. Excerpts 17 p.188 and Excerpt 18 p.189, for example, showed that as I was leading an activity aimed at eliciting disagreeing phrases, two problems arose. Firstly, I did not give clear instructions on how to respond in the activity, meaning students were not clear on how to participate. This meant that the disagreeing phrases I had hoped students would offer were not forthcoming. Secondly, as students were not responding well, I produced long turns, in which I latched shorter turns onto each other in order to keep the talk going and ultimately led to me feeding the answers to the class. In my field notes I also reflected that I did not give clear instructions. Through this process of noticing and reflection, in the same activity in iteration 2, I offered improved, clearer instructions and was able to put students in the position of primary knowers (Boyd 2012), successfully eliciting disagreeing phrases.
Furthermore, I also found that the offering of a variety of target language expressions was important during strategy explanations. This technique is supported by Oxford (2003) who foregrounds the need to offer multiple options within strategy training activities. Findings both from within the interaction and from student reflective interviews showed that students benefitted from this. Excerpt 13 p.172, for example, showed that P, when interviewing his partner about his best friend, was able to ask for details in three different ways. Similarly, M, reflecting on the giving details training session in iteration 2, stated that learning other ways to ask for details was useful.

(iv) Modelling. Modelling oral communication strategies within dialogue with students was another important teacher role in the intervention. Modelling here can be seen as a kind of scaffolding as it is, in the sociocultural sense, a way “to nudge a student toward a higher level of performance” (Hill & Miller 2013: 16). This can be seen in Excerpt 18 p.285, which highlights teacher modelling the asking for more details strategy. Within the on-task phase talk, T models a question that asks for more detail, which helps D to focus on the form (Long 1991) of the target language question and M to offer more details. Later in the dialogue, D is able to draw on T’s model and ask for details himself, allowing M to further elaborate on the topic.

Modelling also acted as a guide for students to use language naturally during tasks (Thomson 2012). This is illustrated in Excerpt 12 p.166, in which T takes on the role of the student and gives model answers within the asking for help task. Here, H gave a talk on her topic, her hobby. Within her talk, H practiced the strategy of asking for help finding words and T offered model responses. T’s modelling of student responses both legitimised H’s strategy use within her talk and offered guidance to the other group members on how to respond within the task.

(v) Encouraging exploratory talk for language learning. Data showed that the teacher has an important role in fostering and encouraging ETLL as it arises during the intervention activities. Previous research has shown the benefits of exploratory talk in L2 classrooms (Boyd 2012; Moat 2010). As shown in section 3.2.2 p.35, Boyd specifically highlights three main strategies that teachers can employ to maintain
exploratory talk in the L2 classroom: contingent questioning, positioning to have interpretive authority and consistent use of reasoning words. My own findings showed that, as teacher, I was able to foster ETLL when interacting with students by using these strategies. Excerpt 25 p.313, provides a good illustration, as here I often employed contingent questions, which specifically sought to extend student contributions. I used place holders, e.g. “yeah” or “mhm”, which a) showed I was listening to and validating student responses and b) positioned students as the primary knowers within the dialogue. I also provided a link between student contributions, for example, after M stated that high school English reading texts were overly difficult, H disagreed with this point in line 96, stating “NO. I disagree with him.” In the following turn, I asked “Why do you think so?”, allowing H to elaborate on her disagreement with M.

Furthermore, in extension to the previous point on teacher modelling, I found that the teacher can also foster ETLL by ‘modelling’ key exploratory talk words, such as *I think, so or because* (Boyd 2012; Chappell 2014; Mercer & Littleton 2007; Mercer et al. 1999). Excerpt 18 p.285, for example, shows teacher modelling “I think” in the dialogue. Here, I agree with Halbach (2015) that these words helped to make thinking more visible in the talk and with Boyd (2012) that modelling these words during talk creates the potential space for further student reasoning and for the consideration of other views.

### 8.5 Summary of answers to research questions

This final section offers a summary of answers to the following research questions:

1. What guides and supports the design of an intervention that aims to help learners use exploratory talk for language learning and what are its design features?

2. How does this intervention facilitate adult L2 learners’ use of exploratory talk for language learning?
Regarding research question 1, the intervention was in part guided by research into specific activity types. For example, the research on brainstorming (e.g. Flaitze et al. 1995), foregrounding its ability to creatively raise awareness of spoken communication, lead to the inclusion of multiple brainstorming activities. Likewise, the research on games, suggesting that they may lower motivation, reduce anxiety and offer opportunity for communication, lead to the inclusion of the Just a minute! activity. The literature on task-based learning (e.g. Willis 1996) lead to the inclusion of multiple TBL activities in order to provide exposure to the target language and opportunity for target language use. The literature on plenaries led to the inclusion of dialogic plenaries where possible, in the attempt to support the development of student understanding (Ruthven at al. 2011), although the difficulty of achieving dialogic interactive plenaries was also noted. Furthermore, the inclusion of time spent developing guidelines for talk was supported by both L1 research (e.g. Mercer 1996) and L2 research (e.g. Dörnyei 1997; Halach 2015), that showed that the development of guidelines improved awareness of how to engage in exploratory talk when working in groups and improved motivation to do so. Furthermore, research on the use of games in the EFL classroom showed that they can provide opportunity for real communication and target language practice in a low stress environment (Deesri 2002). This guided the inclusion of the Just a minute! game, which was perceived by students as a fun way to practice the target language.

In the same way, the design and development of the intervention was also guided by more general theories of teaching and learning. Research into experiential learning (Kolb’s 1984; Fowler 2007) was influential in the inclusion of activities that offered students opportunity to reflect on their previous learning experiences. The activities aimed to develop the connection between what learners have done in their experiences and how being aware of this can allow students to improve and become more effective at classroom learning through interaction (Ghaye 2011). Likewise, the intervention drew on cooperative learning theory for the development of strategy training activities (Naughton 2006; Bejarano et al. 1997). The aim of these activities was to practice the target language in a collaborative way and improve communication skills (Crandall 1999). The intervention was also guided by the theory of the use of locally
relevant knowledge (Canagarajah 2005). Because people communicate mainly to assert their local identity (Luk 2005), when activities in the intervention reflected this assertion and allowed students to access locally relevant knowledge, the results were rich and interesting dialogue with the opportunity to effectively practice the target language (Thornbury & Meddings 2008).

With regard to research question 2, as the intervention was implemented in the classroom, the design of the activities and the actions of the teacher and students facilitated the use and development of exploratory talk for language learning in a variety of ways. First, activities were designed to encourage humor as this helped to relax students and lower their affective filters (Du 2009). Humor also helped to reinforce in group bonds (Lynch 2010). It was also noted that teacher can facilitate humor by encouraging students to enjoy the talk during the interaction. Second, strategy training sessions were designed to practice and develop the target language, which in turn was chosen to develop the specific characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning. Activities were designed to facilitate the use of strategies and offer opportunity to integrate them into authentic talk (Gilmore 2007; Külekçi 2015). Third, the intervention aimed to facilitate the use of output as collaborative dialogue. In other words, the opportunity was facilitated to practice strategies needed to achieve ETLL in student discussion, but also reflect on them once they were used within the social interaction. This was supported by Swain’s (2000) assertion that reflecting on form, while also focusing on meaning making presents opportunity to learn both language and strategies. Fourth, the intervention was designed to allow students to engage in ETLL in a natural and holistic way. It was often the case during the strategy training sessions, that while the primary aim of a session was to develop the use of a particular element of ETLL, the resulting talk was often characterized by the use of several elements of ETLL. Likewise, the engagement in ETLL suggested the students benefitted from the awareness raising of this kind of talk and the creation of talk guidelines in phase 1 of the intervention. This was also further supported by positive interview feedback from students that this process was helpful and promoted the use of ETLL during the course.
Finally, the teacher’s interactional role was important in developing student use of ETLL during the intervention. Providing explicit instruction combined with guided discovery allowed students to be more involved in their own development of ETLL. Similarly, providing multimodal explanations (mainly by combining PowerPoint, information sheets, and teacher talk), while conveying the meaningfulness of the target strategy development. This helped students to understand that significance of the sessions and engage in a responsive and motivated way (Fredericks et al. 2004). Similarly, upon reflection, students found that being offering a variety of target language phrases was a useful part of the sessions. It was also important for the teacher to allow enough time for students to complete tasks. Data showed that when this was not the case, students were denied the opportunity to successfully complete activities.

This chapter discussed the major themes that arose over the two iterations of the Talk Skills project, regarding development of the intervention itself, student engagement in the intervention’s activities and the interactional role of the teacher. The following chapter offers an evaluation of the project in terms of its impact, a critique and an explanation of dissemination.
9.1 Impact

The impact of the designed intervention on my own teaching practices has been strong. I now include both phase one and phase two in my adult conversation classes and credit Academic English classes and I am satisfied that both elements of the intervention have a positive impact on my students’ learning. In terms of further impact, Barab and Squire (2004: 6) assert that being able to show a designed intervention is implementable in contexts other than that of the initial research designer (my own), provides “local warrants for the effectiveness of the design work”. In other words, showing that other teachers can use the intervention to help their students learn, adds value to the intervention. To this end, I offered the intervention to my colleagues, as an in house professional development presentation. I also offered the presentation to other teachers in the Seoul university English language teaching community. While the intervention has not been entirely implemented as a two-phase pedagogic tool, it has been partially adapted by four teachers, named here as A, B, C, and D. All four teachers have offered written or oral feedback on their experiences, discussed as follows.

Phase one alone has been adopted by teacher A in his Academic English class at Konkuk University, who offered the following feedback:

“…at the end listing the five rules of discussion, that was the clincher. That was the one that really worked well, because they got to choose for their individual group what they wanted to do… actually we will then take the groups and then we’ll volunteer the best ones and then as a group, class, we’ll make the class rules as well… So it was like the two levels, the group work and then there’s also the classwork or the class rules and then I have them write it down in their books and throughout the entire semester, if they’re not working well in their
groups, I just ask them to go to their books again and re-read the rules that they themselves created and they become more active within the lesson later on in the semester so it works out for that day, but it also works out throughout the entire semester as well.”

When asked about the success of the intervention, this teacher points out a) that students were engaged during the sessions activities and were able to successfully produce group guidelines for talk. Furthermore, during the course, by referring to the guidelines at discussion times, this helped students to ‘become more active’ in their discussions. A’s feedback supports Halbach’s (2015) findings, that raising student awareness of effective L2 talk through making guidelines for talk helps students to produce more collaborative and effective talk, as well as supporting similar findings in this research.

Teachers B, C and D have all implemented phase 2 of the intervention in their classrooms to some extent. When asked about using the sessions, all teachers noted that they had not used the sessions as entire classes, but instead integrated some of the activities as part of longer lessons in order to aid discussion.

B, also teaching at Konkuk University, implemented the following strategy sessions in his Academic English 1 lower intermediate class: asking follow up questions, asking for clarification, checking for comprehension, asking for more details, giving opinions and disagreeing. He also noted that he did not want to use the strategies in higher level classes as they would be redundant for higher level learners. However, for lower intermediate to intermediate learners, he felt that the sessions offered “guidance and basic structure for them to understand how to discuss topics and share information efficiently”, further supporting Hong-Nam and Leavell’s (2006) claim that this is the optimum level for the fostering of strategy use growth. When asked about the benefit to students and student engagement during the strategy training sessions, B noted:

“In general, the students tend to be very engaged in these activities. With language and phrases provided, even low level students are able to take part effectively. Students also tend to enjoy working in pairs and small groups when they have structure in their conversations. Many students feel too uncomfortable
speaking in a second language and simply answer questions without generating conversation. These strategies are very effective at prolonging the conversation, and making the discussion much more natural and effective.”

B found that the sessions a) offered positive student engagement during the activities themselves and b) aided natural and effective discussion. This supports Nakatani’s (2005) findings that strategy training improved oral proficiency.

C, who works at Hongik University in Seoul, used the following strategy sessions in his General English low intermediate class: asking follow up questions, asking for clarification, checking for comprehension, asking for help, asking for more details and giving opinions. He also considered using the disagreeing activities but lacked time in the course. C noted that he decided to include the activities in his classes because they “use relatively simple vocabulary and grammar to immediately bring the conversation or communication to a deeper level. It encourages active participation, for both listener and speaker”. With regard to the success of the activities, C also noted it depended on the level of the learner, but that the activities were generally successful:

“It depends on the level of student and if they perceive any value to the activity. Also, being confrontational is taboo in Korean culture, so there is that hurdle to overcome. But in general, activities that require the listener to repeatedly ask for clarification, follow-up, and details always goes well and students seem to have fun challenging each other. Perhaps as a result of breaking with the taboo?”

However, C did note that he encountered some problems when implementing strategy training in his course, namely “sometimes students are reluctant to engage each other” pointing again to the reason for reluctance, that “it is seen as a confrontation”. C found that students reverted to stereotypical Korean learner behavior (Cho 2004; Lim & Griffith 2003) and attempted to avoid confrontation. He also noted that “students might feel that there is little to be gained because the language used is fairly simple and they fail to recognize the scope of its use”. This comment reiterates the need to convey meaningfulness of the sessions during teacher explanations, as noted in section 8.4.
D, a teacher at Sungkyungkwan University, also in Seoul, implemented the following strategy sessions in his Confucian Storytelling (English Conversation) class: asking follow up questions, asking for clarification, checking for comprehension, asking for help, asking for more details, giving opinions and disagreeing. He also noted that he would be interested in offering the challenging each other strategy in future classes. D noted that he has encountered problems in his adult Korean classes that the intervention aims to overcome:

“Often students would respond in short interactions in a mechanical way with a simple ask and answer pattern that was far removed from an authentic discussion. Furthermore, students seemed unsure how to carry on an English discussion to any meaningful depth.”

D found using strategies helpful in his classes as long as the strategy being learned “is an area which is under developed, but they have enough English proficiency to speak in a less structured way”. D felt that when this was the case, strategy training “helped [student] fluency, along with developing their active listening skills and communicative competency” and further noted that when “students are ready, motivated, and have a need to develop within this area, it can be fruitful.”

However, D experienced problems if student proficiency is either too low or too high:

“I’ve seen students with very low language proficiency overwhelmed with these tasks. These students prefer learning more explicit grammar points with controlled oral practice to master basic language structure. On the other hand, very proficient students can get easily bored with discussion strategies since they already employ them.”

This would further reinforce the findings of Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), that the intermediate level as the optimal point for strategy training.
9.2 Contributions/Limitations/Critique

The Talk Skills project offers three contributions to the field of second language education. The first is the intervention itself. By implementing two cycles of design-based research, acting as both practitioner and researcher, the Talk Skills intervention has become a workable model of maximizing exploratory talk for language learning in adult L2 classes, particularly in the Korean adult learning context, through awareness raising of ETLL, and oral communicative strategy training to help students achieve this type of talk in the classroom.

In synergy with the practical contribution of the intervention, the second contribution of the project is its localised contribution to theory. In DBR, theory drives design as it emerges within the project (Joseph 2004). However, due to the nature of a DBR project, emergent theory is necessarily context specific, making it hard to generalize. To illustrate this, Bakker and van Eerde (2015: 13) offer the following analogy: “it is very rare that a theoretical contribution to aerodynamics will be made in the design of an airplane; yet innovations in airplane design occur regularly.” In the same way, the second contribution of the project was to offer a better understanding of how the theory that underlies metacognitive awareness raising and oral communicative strategy training applies to the Korean context, and how such theory drove innovation within the project. This is illustrated in chapter 8, with regard to instructional techniques, student engagement and teacher’s interactional roles. Furthermore, the contribution of the research, in this sense, has been to make transparent, in chapters 6 and 7, how the space between the hypothetical and actual learning trajectory allows innovation to emerge through reflection on the material and the teaching and learning that takes place.

The final contribution is the example that the Talk Skills project offers L2 practitioner/researchers wishing to embark on design-based research projects. The Talk Skills project is a relatively unique approach to intervention design in the area of English language classroom learning. To my knowledge, design-based research has never been used to design an L2 metacognitive and oral communicative strategy training intervention, and is rarely used in the EFL/ESL classroom learning context. Therefore,
given that DBR is an underutilized method of research in the L2 teaching and learning community, the *Talk Skills* project may act as an example to prospective practitioner/researchers of an alternative model of qualitative research that can be used to effectively design and refine pedagogic interventions in the complex L2 classroom setting (Brown 1992). For such practitioner/researchers, the project illustrates the potentially rewarding duel benefit. On the one hand, DBR enhances research and design skills, on the other, it enables a deeper understanding of oneself as a practitioner and the context in which teaching and learning takes place (Joseph 2004).

Regarding limitation, while McKenney and Reeves (2013) point to several large scale DBR projects, the scale of the *Talk Skills* intervention, as a PhD project, was more limited. Within the scope of this project, I first investigated the initial feasibility of metacognitive and oral communicative strategy training and found that students responded positively to the concept of awareness raising and ability to engage in exploratory talk for language learning. I then explored the soundness and local viability of the intervention in my own adult English conversation class through iterative, systematic development and appraisal from myself as practitioner/researcher, my students, and expert appraisal from my course tutor. Finally, I offered teacher feedback response to the impact of using elements of the intervention in their respective adult English language courses. However, the project can be taken much further with regard to concepts of institutionalization, effectiveness, and more systematically and rigorously assessing the impact of the intervention in various other EFL/ESL contexts.

Nevertheless, as qualitative research, it is necessary to evaluate the work achieved in the project to date in terms of validity and reliability (Beuving & De Vries 2015), often also described in qualitative research as trustworthiness (Swann 2013), so as to avoid subjectivism. Throughout the research, I took three steps to make the project as valid and reliable as possible. First, in line with DBR practice, I attempted to base development of the intervention on L2 educational theory (DiSessa & Cobb 2009; McKenney & Reeves 2013). This is first evident in the opening chapters of the research, in which I have offered a theoretically informed outline of the issue of improving group talk in the L2 context. However, perhaps more importantly, I have also endeavored to
develop both hypothetical and actual learning trajectories for each activity in the intervention using relevant L2 educational theory. This is illustrated, for example, in the progression from exercise 1 in iteration 1, p.177, to the lead in activity in iteration 2, p.291. This has helped to strengthen the decisions of activity selection and design, and more broadly, lesson design within the intervention.

The second and third approaches I took to strengthening my claim to trustworthiness were: a) to make sure the research was responsively grounded throughout the evolution of the project (McKenney & Reeves 2013), and b) to base response on multiple data collection methods (Beuving & De Vries 2015). This meant that adjustments were made, both to the activities and my understanding of their implementation, as I gained insight into how the outcomes of activities could be improved in the second iteration. This is illustrated, for example, in the way the rules of the Just a Minute! activity were improved in the second iteration, p.278, so that they better encouraged student participation.

Furthermore, as planned, making decisions on the designing and refining the intervention became a holistic process (Swann 2013) of systematically judging the quality of the activities based on transcribed data, analysed using conversation analysis; feedback from student interviews; my own understanding of the outcomes of the sessions, as well as appraisal from my tutor and discussion with my fellow teachers at Konkuk University, for example, activity 3 p. 216. CA informed transcript analysis allowed me to study the L2 classroom interaction line by line, and therefore as objectively as possible. (For further details on the value of CA in illuminating classroom interactional practices, see Seedhouse 2004; 2005). Post session and post course student interviews added a voice from the people that were actually using the intervention – my own students (Beuving & De Vries 2015). This became data with which I was able to cross check and compare classroom transcripts and my own reflections. The formal and structured appraisal from my tutor, as well as informal feedback from colleagues, offered an opportunity to reflect on my own design decisions, as well as offer third party insight that I would not have thought of by myself. Finally, with regard to collecting field notes, I made clear after the first iteration that this was a process that needed
improving as I was not writing the field notes particularly well. I felt that I improved this form of data collection in the second iteration and I found it a rewarding process both with focus on the intervention but also on understanding my own classes. To this extent, it is a process I continue to undertake in my day to day lessons as a helpful opportunity for reflection.

Being responsively grounded and basing response on multiple data sources led to many improvements both in the second iteration of the intervention itself and in my own understanding of how to implement the intervention as a teacher, further enabling me to pass this knowledge on to other teachers. Improvements included a) enhanced organization, for example, in the way phase 1 was spread across two lessons, more clearly dividing activities into those that raise awareness of the need to talk and listen in session 1, p.198, and activities that raise awareness of working effectively in a group in session 2, p.209, or the inclusion of an extra activity in the checking for comprehension strategy training session, p.252, to make full use of the one hour lesson time. b) Enhancement of instruction and explanation techniques, for example, in the way I explained the rules to *Just a Minute!* to make the activity more organized and enjoyable, thereby creating a richer environment for practicing the strategy of challenging, and c) enhancement of activities, for example, in the way the awareness raising discussion on talk experiences in general was revised for students to reflect specifically on their L2 talk experiences, or in the way controversial statements in the lead in disagreeing activity were revised to utilize local knowledge.

As a result of the process, I am in a position to advocate the assertion made by McKenney and Reeves (2013), that while my own teaching context was both complex and unique, the theoretically oriented and responsively grounded nature of the research helped to successfully explore, not mute (as is sometimes the criticism of qualitative data collection of this kind), the possibilities of how improved adult L2 group talk can be taught and learned.
9.3 Dissemination

To address the issue of dissemination, I have now begun offering presentations of the Talk Skills project in my local EFL teaching and research community in Seoul. I have given the following presentations: an in-house presentation at Konkuk University to my colleagues, a presentation at Seoul National University of Science and Technology and a presentation at the Applied Linguistics Association Korea conference. I am also in the process of planning further presentations for other Korean conferences. An article on how DBR may be used to develop pedagogic interventions in the L2 context, illustrated with the Talk Skills project, is currently under review at the Classroom Discourse journal. The resources developed in the Talk Skills project are openly available at http://discussionstrategies.weebly.com/. Furthermore, data from the project has been drawn on to teach in the Spoken Interaction course at the University of Warwick, specifically, in a session titled Analyzing Classroom Data. Finally, a vignette on the reflective processes in DBR is offered in Mann and Walsh (2017).

9.4 Conclusion

The Talk Skills intervention has become a workable model of maximizing exploratory talk for language learning in adult L2 classes, in the Korean adult learning context. This has been achieved through awareness raising of ETLL, and oral communicative strategy training to help students achieve this type of talk in the classroom. Furthermore, the project used design-based research, implemented by myself as practitioner/researcher, as a systematic method of pedagogic intervention design. This is a relatively underutilized method of L2 learning research, meaning the project, therefore, may act as an example to prospective practitioner/researchers of a) an oral communicative strategy training and awareness raising intervention in its own right, and b) as an alternative model of qualitative research that can be used to effectively design and refine pedagogic interventions in the complex L2 classroom setting (Brown 1992).

I began the Talk Skills project as an inquisitive language teacher. I knew intuitively that my students benefitted from what has been termed in this thesis,
exploratory talk for language learning, and I had a desire to help my students get the most out of their classroom talk experiences. The project was a very rewarding experience for me in that I gained a better understanding of what it means for my students to enter into discussion that is both educationally stimulating and effective in terms of offering language learning opportunities, and I learned the instructional techniques that enabled students to be aware of and achieve this kind of talk through metacognitive awareness raising and oral communicative strategy training. I have also gained the foundational skills necessary to conduct qualitative L2 educational research, in terms of critically reviewing literature, collecting, analyzing and discussing multiple data sources and learning to interact with students and peers with the purpose of intervention design. Moreover, the process has helped me to become more reflective and aware of my own teaching context and my actions as a language teacher. It has given me the confidence in my own abilities and the belief to share my work in my own teaching community.
REFERENCES


Goldkuhl, G. (2013). Action research vs. design research: Using practice research as a lens for comparison and integration. *Accepted to the SIG Prag Workshop on IT Artefact Design & Workpractice Improvement, 5 June, 2013, Tilburg, the Netherlands.*


APPENDICES

Appendix I

Phase 1 predicted, intended and realized versions of intervention

Predicted phase 1 of intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson 1 ‘Talk about talk’</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Pre intervention discussion, in order to gauge students discussion skills before the intervention</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Exercise 1 Discussion about the importance of talk</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Exercise 2 Brainstorm words associated with talk</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Exercise 3 Use talk word flashcards to discuss definition of words and put words in contextual sentences</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Exercise 4 Question and Answer memory activity to test listening skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Plenary to discuss who was good at talking and listening</td>
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<tr>
<th>Lesson 2 ‘Characteristics of effective group discussion’</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Exercise 1 Describe effective and poor group discussions</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Exercise 2 Jigsaw fill in the blanks. Help you and your partner to make a list of characteristics of exploratory talk</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Exercise 3 Practice discussion about Korean students’ sleep habits</td>
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<tr>
<th>Lesson 3 ‘Making ground rules for discussion’</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Exercise 1 List advantages of working in a group in English class</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Exercise 2 Draw on new found understanding of exploratory talk to generate ground rules for talk in groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Use group generates ground rules to make a finalized class list</td>
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<tr>
<th>Lesson 4 ‘Practice using ground rules’</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Put up posters with class ground rules for talk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Exercise 3 Practice using ground rules by discussing “What would you do…?” dilemmas.</td>
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</table>
### Intended phase 1 of intervention

**Lesson 1 ‘Talk about talk’**

- Pre intervention discussion, in order to gauge students’ discussion skills before the intervention
- Exercise 1 Discussion about the importance of talk
- Exercise 2 Brainstorm words associated with talk
- Exercise 3 use talk word flashcards to discuss definition of words and put words in contextual sentences
- Exercise 4 Question and Answer memory activity to test listening skills
- Plenary to discuss who was good at talking and listening

**Lesson 2 Ground rules for effective group discussion**

- Exercise 1 Discuss examples of effective and poor previous group discussions
- Exercise 2 Brainstorm characteristics of effective group discussions, then compare and contrast students’ notions of effective group discussion with the characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning.
- Exercise 3 Use knowledge from exercise 3 to generate ground rules in groups and use the best rules from each group to generate a class list of ground rules
- Exercise 4 Practice using ground rules by discussing “What would you do…?” dilemmas.

### Realized phase 1 of the Talk Skills intervention

**Lesson 1 ‘Talk about talk’**

- Pre intervention discussion, in order to gauge students’ discussion skills before the intervention
- Exercise 1 Discussion about the importance of talk
- Exercise 2 Brainstorm words associated with talk

**Lesson 2 ‘Ground rules for effective group discussion’**

- Exercise 1 Question and Answer memory activity to raise awareness of the importance of listening
| Exercise 2 | Discuss examples of effective and poor previous group discussions |
| Exercise 3 | Brainstorm characteristics of effective group discussions, then compare and contrast students’ notions of effective group discussion with the characteristics of exploratory talk for language learning |
| Exercise 4 | Use knowledge from exercise 4 to generate ground rules in groups and use the best rules from each group to generate a class list of ground rules |
Appendix II

Student Perceptions of Classroom Discussion (English translation)

Please answer the following questions that investigate your perceptions about discussion in language classes.

Age: ____________
Sex: Male / Female
Level: Intermediate / High Intermediate / Advanced

1. What is your attitude towards group discussion in your English class?
   Very favorable
   Favorable
   Neutral
   Unfavorable
   Very unfavorable

2. How would you rate your ability to discuss in English in your groups?
   Very strong
   Strong
   Average
   Weak
   Very weak

3. How difficult is it for you to express yourself when talking in a group in your English classes?
   Very difficult
   Difficult
   Average
   Easy
   Very easy
4. What are the main challenges for you when talking in groups in your English classes?

_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________

5. To what extent do you trust your classmates in your English classes?
I trust my classmates too much
I trust my classmates a little too much
I trust my classmates the right amount
A little less than I should
I don’t trust my classmates enough

6. To what extent do you respect your classmates in your English classes?
I respect my classmates too much
A little too much
I respect my classmates the right amount
A little less than I should
I don’t respect my classmates enough

7. To what extent do you feel like you are able to make mistakes when speaking in English class?
I have no problem making mistakes when speaking in English
I am a little afraid to make mistakes when speaking in English
I am quite afraid to make mistakes when speaking in English
I am very afraid to make mistakes when speaking in English

8. To what extent do you think you would benefit from learning a method of improving the way you talk in groups in your classes?
9. To what extent do you think it is a good idea to create and use ground rules in your class to help you talk more effectively in your groups? The ground rules may include agreeing to ask many questions, agreeing to share your opinions and give reasons for them, agreeing to show each other respect, agreeing to accept challenges and give justification to your reasoning.

A very good idea
A good idea
Neither a good nor bad idea
A bad idea
A very bad idea

10. To what extent do you think it would be useful to learn specific strategies that help you learn to talk more effectively in a group?
Very useful
Useful
Some impact
Little impact
Not useful

11. How would you rate your ability to ask questions to keep a group discussion going?
Excellent
Good
Fair
Somewhat poor
Poor
12. How would you rate your ability to ask for clarification when you don’t understand something?
Excellent
Good
Fair
Somewhat poor
Poor

13. How would you rate your ability to check your speaking partner understands what you mean?
Excellent
Good
Fair
Somewhat poor
Poor

14. How would you rate your ability to ask for help when you don’t understand something?
Excellent
Good
Fair
Somewhat poor
Poor

15. How would you rate your ability to ask your partner to give you more details on a topic?
Excellent
Good
Fair
16. How would you rate your ability to challenge your speaking partner’s opinion on a topic?
   Excellent
   Good
   Fair
   Somewhat poor
   Poor

17. How would you rate your ability to disagree with your speaking partner?
   Excellent
   Good
   Fair
   Somewhat poor
   Poor

18. How would you rate your ability to elaborate on a topic in English?
   Excellent
   Good
   Fair
   Somewhat poor
   Poor

19. How would you rate your ability to volunteer an answer or opinion when talking in a group in English?
   Excellent
   Good
   Fair
Somewhat poor

Poor

Thank you
Appendix III

Example ethical consent forms for intervention iterations 1 and 2

FIRST ITERATION

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM

Title of Project: Creating a talk skills intervention to improve 1-2 classroom group talk

Investigator: [George Stone]

Participant selection and purpose of study:

You are invited to participate in a study aimed at improving the way you discuss in groups. The purpose of this study is to improve your classroom talk when you discuss issues in the classroom. You have been selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a member of my intermediate KS conversation class.

Description of study:

If you decide to participate, the investigators will ask several of your classmates to complete a profile questionnaire and inform you of feedback on some of the activities you complete in class. I will ask you to give me your opinion on the activities we complete in class. The interview should not last more than a few minutes. It is envisaged that this study will be beneficial for the participants in terms of improving the way you talk to each other when we discuss together in class, and it is hoped that the research will contribute to improved classroom talk in second language classes.

Confidentiality and disclosure of information:

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain absolutely confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or except as required by law. If you give the investigator your permission by signing this document, you plan to publish the results as part of her thesis for the award of Doctor of Philosophy. He/She may also use data from the project in academic papers or conference presentations. In any publication, information will be provided in a way that you cannot be identified.

Feedback to participants:

At the completion of the study, all participants will be sent a copy of the report when it is published.

Your consents:

Your decision on whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with the University of Warwick. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

If you have any additional questions concerning the project, the investigator, Speaker, will be happy to discuss these with you.

Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.

Signature of Research Participant

[Signature]

Date: 2/3/20

Signature of Investigator

[Signature]

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION FORM

Title of Project: Creating a talk-skills intervention to improve 1-2 classroom group talk

Investigator: [George Blaze]

Participant selection and purpose of study:
You are invited to participate in a study aimed at improving the way you discuss in groups. The purpose of this study is to guide you to improve your classroom talk when you discuss issues in the classroom. You have been selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a member of my intermediate KS conversation class.

Description of study:
If you decide to participate, the investigator will ask you to record some of your classroom talk and give some questionnaire and interview feedback on some of the activities we complete in class. I will ask you to give me your opinion on the activities we complete in class. The interviews should not last more than a few minutes. It is envisaged that this study will be beneficial for the participants in terms of improving the way you talk to one another when you discuss together in class, and it is hoped that the research will contribute to improved classroom talk in second language classes.

Confidentiality and disclosure of information:
Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain absolutely confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or except as required by law. For example, the investigator can obtain permission by signing this document, and she plans to publish the results as part of her thesis for the award of Doctor of Philosophy. He/She may also use data from the project in academic papers or conference presentations. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you cannot be identified.

Feedback to participants:
At the completion of the study, all participants will be most welcome to consult the thesis when it is published.

Your consent:
Your decision on whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with The University of Warwick. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

If you have any additional questions concerning the project, the investigator, X, will be happy to discuss those with you.

Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.

[Signature]
Name of Research Participant (Print)

Date
Signature of Investigator:

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APPENDIX IV

Photographs of visual mapping on poster paper of the key themes of chapters 6 and 7

Entire visual map of themes
Close-up of Iteration 1 thematic mapping

### Iteration One

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 1</th>
<th>Session 1</th>
<th>Talk about talk</th>
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<tr>
<th>Phase 1</th>
<th>Session 2</th>
<th>General rules for effective group discussion</th>
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<th>Phase 2</th>
<th>Session 1</th>
<th>Respond &amp; follow up questions</th>
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Close-up of Iteration 2 thematic mapping
APPENDIX V

Transcription Conventions (Ten Have 2007)

Sequencing

[ A single left bracket indicates the point of overlap onset. ]

A single right bracket indicates the point at which an utterance or utterance part terminates vis-à-vis another.

=Equal signs, one at the end of one line and one at the beginning of a next, indicate no ‘gap’ between the two lines. This is often called latching.

Timed intervals

(0.0)Numbers in parentheses indicate elapsed time in silence by tenth of seconds, so (7.1) is a pause of 7 seconds and one-tenth of a second.

( .)A dot in parentheses indicates a tiny ‘gap’ within or between utterances.

Characteristics of speech production

wordUnderscoring indicates some form of stress, via pitch and/or amplitude; an alternative method is to print the stressed part in italics.

::Colons indicate prolongation of the immediately prior sound. Multiple colons indicate a more prolonged sound.

-A dash indicates a cut-off.

.,??,Punctuation marks are used to indicate characteristics of speech production, especially intonation; they are not referring to grammatical units; an alternative is an italicized question mark:?

. A period indicates a stopping fall in tone.

,A comma indicates a continuing intonation, like when you are reading items from a list.

? A question mark indicates a rising intonation.

?,The combined question mark/comma indicates a stronger rise than a comma but weaker than a question mark.

The absence of an utterance-final marker indicates some sort of ‘indeterminate’ contour.
Arrows indicate marked shifts into higher or lower pitch in the utterance part immediately following the arrow.

Upper case indicates especially loud sounds relative to the surrounding talk.

Utterances or utterance-parts bracketed by degree signs are relatively quieter than the surrounding talk.

Right/left carets bracketing an utterance or utterance-part indicate speeding up.

A dot-prefixed row of hs indicates an inbreath. Without the dot, the hs \ indicates an outbreath.

A parenthesized h, or a row of hs within a word, indicates breathiness, as in laughter, crying, etc.

Transcriber’s doubts and comments

Empty parentheses indicate the transcriber’s inability to hear what was said. The length of the parenthesized space indicates the length of the untranscribed talk. In the speaker designation column, the empty parentheses indicate inability to identify a speaker.

Parenthesized words are especially dubious hearings or speaker identifications.

Double parentheses contain transcriber’s descriptions rather than, or in addition to, transcriptions.