EXPLORING THE USE
OF VIDEO-BASED MATERIALS
IN THE JAPANESE UNIVERSITY
ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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Thesis Summary

Use of video materials is widespread in language lessons today. Yet how video is used in the classroom by participants remains an under-researched area. My original contribution to knowledge is to identify ways in which participants use video and video-based materials in the classroom ecology. To do so, I synthesize literature on video for language teaching with research in the small but growing area of materials use. Through a data-driven approach (Corbin & Strauss, 2008), I uncover details from the classroom context to explain relationships between video-based materials and classroom interaction of university learners and instructors at a private university in Japan. Using multiple case study, the data set includes audio recordings of lessons, non-participant observations, teacher interviews, student questionnaires, and classroom materials. Participants use one of two local textbooks, each of which features a different genre of video as materials. I track topics in learner interaction, and trace language common to a variety of classroom activities as related to the materials.

While use of materials by both learners and teachers is examined, unlike much of the prior research on materials use, particular focus falls on the peer interaction of the learners in relation to the materials. I argue that participants' use of video materials impacts the language-learning process through learning opportunities that emerge during interaction in video-based activities. These interactions demonstrate a high degree of collaboration between participants while engaging with video-based materials. My thesis expands knowledge of affordances in language education (van Lier, 2004) by detailing both established and previously unidentified examples of the notion. Furthermore, interaction elicited by use of the video materials shows consistent shifts from topics found in the materials to more personal topics, illustrating that learners take control of these activities by making materials more relevant to their lives in order to sustain interaction, which can lead to learning opportunities.

Key words: materials use, classroom ecology, video, affordances, personalization

Dedication

To my mother, Joanne Grandon

and to my partner, Yumiko Matsuura

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List of Abbreviations

ABC – ABC World News 14 textbook

CEFR – The Central European Framework of Reference

CLT – Communicative Language Teaching

DVDay – Digital Video Day textbook

DVD – Digital Video Disc, synonymous with Digital Versatile Disc.

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

ELT – English Language Teaching

ESL – English as a Second Language

FSA – Final Speaking Activity. Found in materials from both course books.

MEXT – Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan

PVBS – Post-video Brainstorming. A peer-to-peer activity in *Digital Video Day* lessons.

SLA – Second Language Acquisition

WGBS – Whole Group Brainstorming. A teacher-led activity in *Digital Video Day* lessons.

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CHAPTER 1:   Introduction

1.1 Origins of study

Video materials are ubiquitous in language classrooms today. In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), video has been widely accepted as teaching material since the 1980's (Lonergan, 1984; Allan, 1985; Tudor, 1988). Even earlier, educators in the 1970's noted that the use of video for language teaching brings real aspects of the world into the classroom (Brinton & Gaskill, 1978). Video is believed to offer language learners other benefits such as increased exposure to sociocultural elements of language and a means to elicit active participation (Jaén & Basanta, 2009). These days, web sites (e.g., videoforall.eu, lessonstream.org, englishcentral.com, teachertube.com) have videos and accompanying resources for language instruction readily available and in many cases free of charge. In line with the technology revolution in language teaching materials (Garton & Graves, 2014a), Keddie (2014) suggests that video has been reinvented in recent times due to the proliferation of online video and related teaching resources. With this reinvention comes a need to understand what actually happens in video-based lessons.

Part of the impetus for this thesis arises from my curiosity about what happens when video is used in oral-focused language lessons. With video technology being brought into language lessons now more than ever before (Vanderplank, 2010, 2016a), a fruitful direction for research lies in learning ways that video-based lessons unfold in the classroom. To date, unfortunately, there has been little research that examines the relationship between video used in foreign language classrooms and the impact such technology may have on communicative activities (Weyers, 1999; Salaberry, 2001; Vanderplank, 2010, 2016a). Classroom research that focuses on the implementation of video material in oral communication lessons would have implications for the future use of video in language teaching and materials development. For this thesis, I research the use of video-based materials by learners and teachers in language classrooms.

This chapter introduces the present study from the perspectives of the context, motivations, research questions, significance of the contributions, and the overall structure of the thesis.

1.2 Context of study

This study was conducted at a large, four-year, private university in central Japan. At the time, I was employed as a contract lecturer at the same university. A call for volunteers to participate was extended to teachers of English at the university who matched on two criteria: a course syllabus focused on oral communication within the skills-based curriculum mandated by the university, and an agreement to use video-based materials as part of their speaking lessons [details in Chapter 4]. In addition, the proficiency levels of the learners were of prime consideration. The focus rests on students with low levels of speaking proficiency because the majority of learners in Japan are at such levels (Negishi, Takada, & Tono, 2013). Learners had been grouped into levels of similar ability by the university, and groups meeting the criteria were found to be first- and second-year students.

1.3 Motivation for the study

The traditional method of language instruction in Japan is rooted in a form of the grammar-translation method called *yakudoku*, which focuses mainly on reading, writing, and translation (Hino, 1988; Gorsuch, 2001) [details in Chapter 2]. Policymakers in Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) have pushed for schools to include more speaking and listening instruction in local curricula by drafting policies with such objectives (Gorsuch, ibid.; Tsuneyoshi, 2013). On a practical level, the drive to include more speaking and listening in classrooms has been met with limited success (Kurihara & Samimy, 2007; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; Humphries, 2011, 2014), leading to continuing attempts of policymakers to recommend moves away from the traditional teaching method of *yakudoku* and focus on more communicative approaches (Seargeant, 2009; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012; Tsuneyoshi, 2013). A major motivation for this study is to learn how video materials may be used to meet the goals of educational policy. Details of the Japanese context are presented at length in Chapter 2.

Coinciding with MEXT's push to implement communicative language teaching in Japan has been an increase in the use of video technology in ELT textbook materials. Recent years have yielded a proliferation of video-based materials and activities for language instruction (Vanderplank, 2010; Keddie, 2014; Goldstein & Driver, 2015) [details in Chapter 3]. Many video materials developed for

language teaching have been designed to follow a communicative framework by placing classroom

interaction at the center of the language-learning experience in the form of learner-centered lessons

(e.g., Lonergan, 1984; Donaghy, 2015). The widespread use of video materials in ELT is another of

the factors that led to the undertaking of this research project.

However, the biggest motivation for this study, and the origins of this thesis, lie in the confluence

of two major interests of mine related to language teaching: (1) teaching Japanese students to speak in

English, and (2) video production. When I began teaching in Japan in 1990, Communicative

Language Teaching (CLT) as a main initiative had just been introduced in the country. Richards and

Rodgers (2001) describe CLT as an approach that mainly places focus on principles such as

communication, task, and meaningfulness for language instruction. The practical elements of this

approach resonated because many of my students, while competent in reading, writing, and listening,

seemed to struggle to explain themselves in English. With the affordability of digital video in the late

1990's, I purchased my first video camera and began to create vignettes about world culture. These

videos received acceptance in television and film circles and garnered recognition from judges and

audiences at international film festivals. At that time, I did not imagine that these videos would ever be

a part of an ELT textbook, where the work eventually found an educational outlet. After showing the

videos to students at the end of semesters as supplements, I noticed positive responses inside and

outside of the classroom. Encouraged by these developments, I designed ways the videos could be

used to teach speaking English.

As a result, I wrote *Digital Video Day* (*DVDay),* a video-based textbook series aimed to support

the teaching of speaking English in Japan. After piloting the material in one of my classes at a local

university, Book One was published as a grassroots textbook. I began using the course book with my

students at several universities throughout the prefecture where I live, and several of my colleagues

also started to use the materials. A similar second book was published based on the favorable

responses to the first one. The format of these lessons is an unusual one because the videos do not

contain any spoken dialogue, i.e., they are music videos: imagery set mainly to instrumental music that

seeks to draw ideas from students first [details in Chapter 4]. This approach approximates what

Thornbury (2005) refers to as 'fluency-driven', where instruction aims to '[. . .] start out from (rather than end up with) the learner's attempts to communicate' (p. 116).

As more and more teachers started adopting the books at universities throughout the country, I felt it was important to conduct a systematic study of the practical use of the videos to deepen my understanding of how video-based materials function in the classroom. At the same time, I also wanted to understand how other genres of video work in language lessons. As a result, in this thesis I focus on how two genres of contemporary videos are used in Japanese university classrooms as materials to elicit interaction. These two genres are: (1) the music videos mentioned above, and (2) news broadcasts from American television. These videos are discussed more in Chapter 4.

Firmly planted within the foreign language teaching context of Japan, where cultural, affective, societal, and educational factors coalesce in particular ways to present educators with a set of unique challenges, for this study I go inside of Japanese university classrooms to learn what occurs during interactions with regard to the viewing of videos. Research focused on the ways in which participants use multiple genres of video materials in communicative lessons has potential implications for the future use of classroom materials in general and for development and use of video materials for language teaching in particular.

1.4 Research questions

The purpose of this thesis is to explore how classroom participants use video and video-based materials in classroom interaction. The research focuses on the following questions:

1. In what ways do learners use video materials in oral-focused classrooms?
    a) How do learners develop topics during peer interaction in video-based activities?
    b) What learning opportunities occur in video-based interaction?
    c) In what way is common language reused throughout the sequence of the video-based activities?
2. In what ways do teachers use video materials in oral-focused classrooms?
    a) In what ways do teachers adapt the materials?

b) What affordances arise in teaching with video-based materials?

1.5 Significance of the study

This study makes a significant contribution to the field of applied linguistics, and especially to materials use and development, for a number of reasons. First, one main contribution is to our understanding of the ways in which materials are actually used in language classrooms, a gap in the research that was noted by Garton and Graves (2014a). The present study shows connections from materials to their use. In particular, results make clear ways in which the use of video-based material relates to learner interaction through topics. Furthermore, analysis tracks video-related language through different activities to understand ways in which the video materials impact interaction. Moreover, during the process of interaction in open-ended speaking activities, opportunities for learning arise that indicate connections to the use of the video and video-based materials. Second, the research also sheds light on the ways in which teachers adapt materials. As such, this research project addresses use from the multiple perspectives of both teachers and learners to help fill the gap in the field regarding use of materials.

Third, this study is original because it illustrates classroom interaction from the use of two genres of video and multiple variables in the textbooks. Instead of trying to control for variables, this research accepts differences in variables as an expected part of language-classroom behavior from different learners, materials, and teachers. In doing so, multiple forms of analysis are used. Fourth, this thesis represents one of the few on materials use from an ecological approach (van Lier, 2004). Because such research is grounded in classroom interaction, it assists to bridge gaps between theory and practice. In addition to the confirmation of a recently established affordance in a new context, I identify an original affordance related to video materials with implications for language instruction. In these main ways, this study makes an original contribution to knowledge of the use of video materials and interaction in classrooms.

1.6 Structure of this thesis

In order to increase knowledge about the use of video materials in Japanese university classrooms, an important first step is to gain a macro-level understanding of how language is taught in the country

prior to students arriving to university campuses. As a consequence, Chapter 2 positions research in this thesis within the Japanese educational context and identifies a tension within the contextual landscape of English language teaching in Japan relevant to the participants in this study. Chapter 3 turns to the subject of video as materials used in language teaching. This chapter contains a review of professional literature and research on video in language teaching and shifts to review literature on materials and materials use.

In Chapter 4, I provide details about the participants in the present study: teachers and learners at a university in Japan. This chapter also contains details of the textbook materials used in classes that are a focal point of this research study. An explanation of the methodology implemented within this study follows in Chapter 5. The next chapter, Chapter 6, contains findings from the use of newscast videos and video-based materials in *ABC World News 14* (*ABC*). Chapter 7 shows findings from use of the second video genre found in *Digital Video Day* (*DVDay*). Both Chapters 6 and 7 contain preliminary conclusions throughout the chapters as commonly found in qualitative studies [detailed in section 5.3]. Finally, in Chapter 8, I synthesize and discuss findings in the context of research in the field, answer my research questions, draw conclusions, and explain implications. In this thesis, I argue that participants' use of video materials impacts the language-learning process of the classroom ecology through interaction.

CHAPTER 2:   The Japanese Context

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I describe in some detail the Japanese educational context in order to situate the current study in the broader context of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Japan. When learners arrive at university, they have already been learning English for at least six years, and they bring this experience with them to their university English classrooms. These prior experiences are likely to have a significant effect on the ways in which learners react to the video-based classes that are the focus of this thesis and may also affect the ways in which the teachers teach the materials. Therefore, this chapter begins with an overview on the background of ELT in Japan and moves to present the current policy of Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) for compulsory education in elementary and secondary schools. Because this educational background has such a profound effect on the learners prior to entering university, research on education in secondary schools is featured before a description of the context of Japanese higher education.

2.2 Background of English instruction in Japan

English is the most widely taught foreign language in Japan.   Its popularity is due in large part to the current status of the language as a compulsory subject in the educational system (Kashihara, 2008). However, there has been continued debate about the role of English in Japan since the Meiji Restoration period (1868-1912). At present, some scholars still question the need for most Japanese to learn English. Yano (2011) asserts that the majority of Japanese people lack a real need to learn English as long as they remain in Japan albeit with the exception of those few who may need an additional language for work. Rose (1994) makes an obvious but important point that Japanese people do not learn English to speak to one another. Although English is unnecessary for the daily lives of the majority of Japanese people, needs for the language arise from other facets of society. For example, Ishikida (2005) contends that a great number of Japanese '[. . .] have friends and relatives who live abroad, and have people from other countries as neighbors and co-workers' (p. 201). This condition suggests that there is the possibility for brief interactions in a language other than Japanese.

Regardless of whether or not a need exists for English in the daily life of Japanese society, the study of English in Japan remains an integral part of the educational system. This system relates directly to social mobility within the culture, and as a consequence, high stakes are involved with English education (Butler, 2007; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012, 2016; Aspinall, 2016; Eades, 2016). A chief concern for nearly everyone involved is overcoming the view of English strictly as a testing subject to shift emphasis to the communicative nature of language. Although the current system of English education places emphasis on translation and analysis of language (Reesor, 2002; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012, 2016) and achieves a level of success, this training tends to pay less attention to aural and oral skills, which results in leaving many people with an inability to communicate competently through speaking (Negishi, Takada, & Tono, 2013). The focus within the context on translation and language analysis may act as a roadblock for instruction in the language skill of speaking. The overarching theme in the educational system most relevant to the present study is the lack of attention to the teaching of oral-focused language skills.

2.3 Current policy

Until April 2011, MEXT policy required schools to begin teaching English in the first year of secondary school. Instruction continued for six years by which time Yano (2011) estimates an average high school graduate had received 720–1,200 hours of foreign language lessons. MEXT (2006) enacted a major reform to start in April 2011 that mandated two additional years of compulsory English education. Therefore, students now begin learning two years earlier in their fifth year of primary school. Instruction during these two additional years is supposed to focus on speaking and listening in an effort written into MEXT policy to better address development of these skills (MEXT, 2006, 2011a, 2011b; Tsuneyoshi, 2013). Furthermore, MEXT are now drafting revisions to instructional policy that may drop the onset of English instruction earlier to even younger learners at the third- and fourth-grade levels (*The Japan Times*, 1 August 2016).

As a part of the current policy in place since 2011, primary-school students are now required to receive 30 English activities a year. Some educational professionals view the new policy with skepticism due to the limited instructional time involved that may take away from other subjects (*The

Japan Times, 26 February 2011). Sakamoto (2012) reports that the English taught in elementary school is deemed an ungraded activity as opposed to other subjects, implying that these English lessons are of an inferior status when compared to graded subjects such as math and science. A further issue with the implementation of English in elementary schools is that teachers are not trained to instruct English (Sakamoto, ibid.). Teachers report this lack of training to be a serious concern in their ability to teach communicative English (Benesse 2010, cited in Sakamoto, 2012). Although not mandatory, some primary schools had already begun teaching English activities to learners from the third grade onwards (Butler, 2007), and numerous schools had been teaching English to fifth and sixth graders to some extent prior to the installation of the new policy in 2011 (Gottlieb, 2008). Therefore, this MEXT policy to lower the age for instruction serves to formalize the process of foreign language teaching in elementary school.

On a national scale, it still remains too early to know the effects of introducing English into compulsory education at the earlier ages because the first cohort to enter university under this new policy will be in April 2019. As such, the present study relies on data from students who are a part of the former six-year system in place prior to April 2011 when formal English education officially began in secondary school.

2.4 Instruction in secondary schools

It is important to understand the context of secondary education in Japan because the participants in the present study are first- and second-year university students [details in Chapter 4] who have not only been impacted by this system of compulsory education, but also are not so far removed from it in terms of time. In Japanese secondary schools, English is often taught in accordance with traditional methods of language instruction that have been entrenched in the educational context historically (Ike, 1995; Friedman, 2016; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2016). Cornwell, Simon-Maeda, and Churchill (2006) assert that EFL instruction in Japan limits English exposure largely to rote memorization and the technique of *yakudoku,* which is a Japanese version of the grammar-translation method (Hino, 1988; Gorsuch, 2001). *Yakudoku* is a 'text-based (non-oral) foreign language instructional methodology' (Gorsuch, 1998, p. 11) where focus rests on the literal translation of sentences on a word-by-word

basis from English to Japanese (Takagi, 2001; O'Donnell, 2005; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2016). Figure 2.1 shows Hino's (1988) classic explanation of the three stages of the *yakudoku* method used by learners to study English.

[Target language sentence] She has a nice table in her room.

Stage 1 [The reader mentally makes word-by-word translation.]
She   has   a   nice   table   in   her   room
kanojo motteiru hitotsu-nosutekina teburu naka kanojo-noheya

Stage 2 [Translation reordered to match Japanese syntax.]
kanojo kanojo-no heya naka hitotsu-no sutekina teburu motteiru

Stage 3 [Recoding in Japanese syntax.]
Kanojo-wa kanojo-no heya-no naka-ni hitotsu-no sutekina teburu-wo motteiru.

Figure 2.1. Stages of the *yakudoku* method. Adapted from Hino, 1988, p. 46. Italics are mine to represent Japanese.

In a seminal study on the classroom use of *yakudoku*, Gorsuch (1998) found that more importance is placed on the translation phase of Stage 1 than on Stages 2 and 3. The *yakudoku* method of grammar-translation has been the primary method of English language instruction since the late 19th century in Japan (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Whitsed & Wright, 2011; Tsuneyoshi, 2013). However, the historical roots of *yakudoku* in Japan run much deeper than English education, inasmuch that the method has been used since the beginning of the eighth century to study written Chinese (Hino, 1988; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2016). In addition to this history, the fact that many teachers are successful learners of English through the approach suggests that teachers may prefer to teach this way based on their educational experiences (Herder & Clements, 2012). Even today, y*akudoku* continues to be the prevailing method of English teaching in Japan (O'Donnell, 2005; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; Humphries, 2011, 2014; McMillian & Rivers, 2011; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012; Sakamoto, 2012).

However, concern about *yakudoku* as a means of language study arises from the emphasis placed on the word-by-word translation as found in Stage 1. Lacking in the process is attention to language skills such as speaking and listening. MEXT's aforementioned policy change of increasing English training in compulsory education follows an ongoing trend in policy over the past two and a half decades to improve communicative English skills such as speaking and listening (Seargeant, 2009;

Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012; Tsuneyoshi, 2013). Throughout this timeframe, MEXT has been calling for an increase in communicative-based instruction and oral communication during the formative years of compulsory education (Gottlieb, 2008; Nikolova, 2008; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012).

2.4.1   English and oral communication

MEXT documentation makes a distinction between *English education* (*eigo*) and the study of *oral communication* (*eikaiwa*). On the one hand, English education is considered as a school subject where instruction aims to train learners in skills needed to pass university entrance exams and places a focus on translation, grammar, reading, and writing. In secondary school, *eigo* is often thought of as a typical type of teacher-fronted lesson usually taught by Japanese teachers and conducted in accordance with traditional methods of instruction such as *yakudoku*. McVeigh (2004) describes *eigo* as 'a sort of non-communicative, artificial language designed for testing purposes' (p. 251). On the other hand, *eikaiwa* lessons tend to place the instructional focus on speaking and listening as a way to balance the skills taught in *eigo* lessons. *Eikaiwa* lessons are often taught in classrooms by non-Japanese teachers across all segments of society, i.e., compulsory schooling, university courses, and conversation schools; the latter of which comprise a lucrative segment of the private education sector in Japan.

The dichotomy between *eigo* and *eikaiwa* forges contrastive perceptions of what constitutes English instruction throughout the educational context. 'Foreign teachers tend to think that their Japanese colleagues almost exclusively employ grammar-translation approaches in their classes while Japanese teachers tend to conceive foreign teachers of English as less than serious because of the emphasis on "communicative English" in their teaching' (Whitsed, 2011, p. 64). A pervasive belief in Japan holds *eikaiwa* lessons in low regard in relation to *eigo* (Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012, 2016), where 'communicative English-language programs and native teachers are not taken seriously by students, Japanese academics, and administrators of higher education' (Whitsed & Wright 2011, p. 41). Matsuda (2011) has shown that secondary-school teachers can even be surprised to learn of students' interest in oral communication, which further indicates a lack of regard for *eikaiwa* lessons. Moreover, many Japanese researchers continue to adopt a view that places a distinction between academic language proficiency and conversational skills (Kanno, 2008). As a result, the teaching of English for

communication can be marginalized along with the teachers who teach using a communicative approach, and lessons observed in the present study fall into the category of communicative lessons. The *eigo* and *eikaiwa* dichotomy impacts the educational system in numerous ways as shown in coming sections.

2.4.2   Classroom practice

An understanding of instruction in the secondary-school classrooms helps to understand how learners develop their English skills prior to arriving at university. Some researchers have detailed what occurs in classroom practice (e.g., Sakui, 2004; Kurihara & Samimy, 2007; Kikuchi & Browne 2009; Humphries, 2014). Sakui (2004) found indications of discrepancies between MEXT's educational policies and teaching practice, and concluded that Japanese secondary-school teachers appear to spend little time teaching CLT lessons. Sakui offered several reasons for such instruction such as teachers' lack of understanding of what constitutes CLT, the time-demands of preparing such lessons, a lack of confidence in delivering CLT lessons, and difficulty in managing students during the activities. Furthermore, Kurihara and Samimy (2007) suggest this situation consists of a complex web of factors that rests heavily on cultural elements of English education and teacher beliefs that include large class sizes, differences in pedagogical thinking between Japan and the West, and peer-pressure to keep pace with co-workers following the school-mandated, *yakudoku*-based syllabus. Kikuchi and Browne (2009) showed learners are dissatisfied with the lack of time spent on learning to speak because teachers spent the bulk of time in oral communication classes teaching other skills.

MEXT have spearheaded initiatives as measures to overcome these problems. For example, MEXT sponsors an ongoing professional development program with local governments where in-service teachers receive training abroad (Wada, 2002). Select teachers spend up to one year learning instructional methods at universities in countries where English is spoken as the native language. Another major policy enacted to expose Japanese learners to communicative English is *The JET Programme* (JET). The primary function of JET is to hire people mainly from English speaking countries to work in Japanese schools as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs). In the classroom, ALTs mainly work in tandem with Japanese English teachers to address communication skills.

Gorsuch (2002) found that ALTs had a positive impact in assisting Japanese teachers with their English communication skills. Similarly, Carless (2002) identified a number of positive impacts of JET such as support for group work, positive student responses to team-taught lessons, and the creation of opportunities for listening and speaking in lessons.

However, Carless (2002) also found problems in JET such as the lack of flexibility in participation in team teaching or choosing partners and that team teaching appeared to lack a coherence with the rest of the school curriculum. Because JET Programme teachers work primarily in *eikaiwa*-type lessons, this disconnect from the school curriculum may further reinforce the inferior status of *eikaiwa* that seems to have begun in elementary school where *eikaiwa* is an ungraded subject. Overall, JET has made some inroads for communicative-based teaching in Japan. Yet, addressing the lack of training in speaking skills remains largely unresolved.

Studies conducted on Japanese classrooms clarify the realities of the educational system as a whole and identify challenges facing teachers who are urged by MEXT policymakers to instruct and engage students with communicative English lessons. While these studies have revealed multiple factors that affect the educational context as discussed above, the most influential factor on the way language is taught in secondary schools is preparation for university entrance exams.

2.5 University entrance exams

Reesor (2002) states, 'the continuing importance of the entrance examination system in determining the future of Japanese students cannot be underestimated' (p. 48). Numerous studies have documented the gravity of influence exerted by exam preparation (e.g., Gorsuch, 1998, 2001; Sakui, 2004; Kikuchi, 2006; Kurihara & Samimy, 2007; Cook, 2009, 2010, 2012; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012). *Yakudoku* training is believed to have a link to the successful completion of these high-stakes tests, even though Gottlieb (2005) describes the foreign language sections on these exams as comprised principally of multiple-choice questions, which have little in common with *yakudoku*.

As a typical rule, learners take two tests to gain admittance to university. The first one, *The Center Test*, is a nationwide, standardized test comprised of subject areas for learners to select. Written English is the most popular subject and was selected by 99% of all takers in 2015 (National

Center for University Entrance Examinations, 2015). Although The Center Test has undergone changes over the past two decades, e.g., the inclusion of listening components, and the addition of sections on summarizing; the skills being measured have not fundamentally changed (Kikuchi, 2006; Tsuneyoshi, 2013). Listening has only become a part of the exam process as of 2006 (Gottlieb, 2008) and is not weighted heavily (Kikuchi, 2006). Tsuneyoshi (2013) emphasizes that 'speaking is non-existent' on The Center Tests (p. 121). The second examination is specific to each university. These tests are usually taken locally near the campuses of the schools. University-specific tests have more freedom to include question types other than multiple choice. Yet, the testing system almost never includes a speaking component in English (Takanashi, 2004).

Given the emphasis on testing, it should be no surprise that English language study in secondary school is often viewed by teachers and students more as a required subject needed to pass mandatory tests than a tool for communication (McVeigh, 2002; Sakui, 2004; Ishikida, 2005; Kurihara & Samimy, 2007; Graves, 2008; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Tsuneyoshi, 2013). Thus, *yakudoku* instruction appears to be 'perpetuated by the entrance exam system [. . .]' through the pressures surrounding preparation for the exam (Herder & Clements, 2012, p. 232). Consequently, the emphasis on exam preparation seems to occur at the expense of oral-focused lessons, and explains, in part, why learners arrive on university campuses with little training in the skill of speaking. The challenges of teaching speaking at the university level are part of the motivation for the present study. Interestingly, MEXT (2014) recently announced a major policy shift with regards to speaking, writing, and The Center Test. Beginning in 2020, speaking will officially become a part of the standardized university entrance exam system at the national level (*The Mainichi*, 1 September 2016). Such a change may create a demand for lessons that focus more on oral communication. From results of the present study, I aim to learn more about the ways that classroom participants function in oral-focused classrooms. Preparation and completion of the entrance exams admit learners to universities where English is also a required subject.

2.6 Higher education in Japan

The system of higher education in Japan is well-developed. In total, there are 1,212 institutions that include 783 universities, 372 junior colleges, and 57 technical schools as of 2012 (MEXT, n.d.). Universities can be further distinguished between public (23%) and private (77%) (Igami, 2014). The distinction is significant because public universities are generally more in demand due to their higher academic rankings, and the fact that tuition is approximately 50% less expensive than the average for private universities. While some private universities also have a high level of prestige, the majority are considered as mid- to lower-tier schools in the institutional hierarchy.

Because Japanese students have abundant exposure to lessons based on grammar-translation throughout their compulsory education, many university students are said to be competent in literacy skills such as reading, translating, and answering test questions (Sakamoto, 2012; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2016). Although many learners are exposed to speaking and listening on a limited basis in the years leading up to university age, instruction with a focus on speaking and listening can be thought to begin in earnest at the university level, where the pressure of entrance exam preparation is seemingly irrelevant. However, higher education in Japan is presented with its own challenges. With regard to the present study, three major areas of concern are the shrinking population of university-age learners, internationalization, and a continuation of the *eigo* and *eikaiwa* dichotomy. Each of these challenges is discussed below.

2.6.1   Institutions and the shrinking student body

One of the most visible challenges currently faced by Japanese colleges and universities is the diminishing number of 18-year-olds in the general population. Table 2.1 shows the degree to which this demographic has declined in recent years and future estimates of the group by DeCoker (2013, loc 297), who predicts that the population of 18-year-olds will continue on a downward trend going forward.

Table 2.1 Population of 18-year-olds

1992	2,000,000
2002	1,500,00
2020	1,000,000

Adapted from DeCoker, 2013, loc 297

This shrinking of the population has been a problem since the mid-1990s and has affected tertiary schooling in a variety of ways, most notably in the closing of junior colleges and schools classified as miscellaneous. These closings have resulted in a redistribution of the population of 18-year-olds throughout types of tertiary institutions, and from 1980 to 2012, an increase in both the number of universities and university students occurred at a time when other types of tertiary institutions like the junior colleges closed (MEXT, n.d.). The 'funneling up' of students to the university level who might have attended junior colleges in previous years resulted in more competition for slots at universities and fewer students per university (Jones, 2011; Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012).

Overall, higher education in Japan is 'in an unprecedented situation where the supply of and demand for tertiary education are broadly in balance' (Jones, 2011, p. 27). In other words, almost anyone can attend an institution of higher education. Despite the widespread availability of higher education, admission to elite universities remains a formidable achievement because of the prestige attached to these schools (Hawley-Nagatomo, 2012). While competition to enter these elite universities remains intense, gaining entrance to institutions in the rest of the higher education sector has softened compared to previous generations as the competition has shifted from students competing against each other to a struggle between tertiary institutions themselves to maintain adequate levels of enrollment (Hawley-Nagatomo, ibid.). One way universities have addressed the dwindling population of 18-year-olds has been to relax the academic standards for admissions (Jones, 2011; Igami, 2014). As a result, learners with lower English abilities are now being admitted to universities more frequently. Because an increasing number of learners at these lower levels will continue to be admitted, the present study focuses on learners with low proficiency levels of speaking. Another solution to the decreasing of 18-year-olds has been to make efforts to attract students from abroad in order to create a more international presence on campuses.

2.6.2 Internationalization in higher education

The term 'internationalization' or *kokusaisaika* is an ambiguous term as it relates to modern-day higher education in Japan. Goodman (2007) explains that:

> it can be used to confer status on institutions by bringing in substantial numbers of high quality postgraduate students to internationalise their research programmes; it can be used to generate income for economic survival by attracting fee-paying foreign students or Japanese students who want to study in an international environment; it can be used to legitimate the qualifications and hence the employability of graduates (pp. 85–86).

In this section, I use the term internationalization to refer to the policy of bringing in overseas students to study in Japan. Since the 1980s, when 10,000 overseas students were enrolled in Japanese institutions of higher learning, there has been a push to increase this number. After meeting a stated goal of 100,000 overseas students in 2003, the Japanese government sought to further internationalize universities and launched the Global 30 initiative. Global 30 was to have up to 30 universities instruct many of the anticipated overseas students using English as the medium of instruction. Universities that met a list of strict requirements could apply for government funding earmarked for the design of new courses for these international students. Because of the lofty requirements to gain admittance to the initiative, only 13 of Japan's most elite universities were ever admitted (Stewart & Miyahara, 2011). The opening of the university system to more overseas students not only has the potential to strengthen student enrollment numbers in a shrinking population, but also serves to integrate university campuses with non-Japanese learners.

Due to a number of difficulties, MEXT announced that Global 30 was dissolved in 2017. Basurto (2016) points out reasons for the difficulty in the success of the Global 30 program as follows: (1) resistance from conservative faculty and administration at the selected universities, (2) cuts in the funding of the program following the Fukushima disaster, (3) the program was unable to show an increase in English proficiency in the learners as they entered the workforce, (4) the presence of more international students and professors does not lead to any extra motivation for Japanese teachers and learners to improve their language skills, and (5) universities may have to lower the standards of entrance requirements to attract enough international students.

A further initiative, *Campus Asia*, began in 2010 which aims to foster relationships with universities in China and Korea by offering exchanges, university credits, and consistent policies for assessment. Just as in the Global 30 initiative, Campus Asia aims to attract more students to higher education in Japan and focuses upon offering courses with English as the medium of instruction. As such, programs to internationalize campuses appear to continue. Because Japanese learners will likely communicate with many of these international students in English, offering classes to improve the speaking skills of Japanese learners may aid in the internationalization of campuses. Moreover, learners coming to Japan in the Campus Asia program are from education systems in similarly test-driven societies and may want to study speaking skills at Japanese universities.

2.6.3   *Eigo* and *eikaiwa* in higher education

The distinction between *eigo* (English) and *eikaiwa* (communication skills) was introduced in a previous section on compulsory education. Beliefs about the distinction between *eigo* and *eikaiwa* can also carry over to the educational context of higher education. One example is that the seminar classes for upperclassmen taught mainly by Japanese university professors are viewed as having more prestige than English communication courses, which are usually taught by the foreign faculty members (Simon-Maeda, 2004). This process seems to mimic the high school system and perpetuate the divide between English as an academic subject (*eigo*) and communicative English (*eikaiwa*). In a study on higher education in Japan, Stewart and Miyahara (2011) describe the efforts of non-Japanese professors to create an English program taught in English. The teacher participants reported their efforts to create and maintain the program were met with indifference by professors outside of the department. Furthermore, participants reported circumstances where they were 'not merely marginalized, but at times discounted altogether' (Stewart & Miyahara, ibid., p. 70). The *eigo* and *eikawa* distinction, along with other reasons discussed above, combine to create challenges for learners in Japan to get lessons in using spoken English. Furthermore, mounting evidence suggests additional learner factors may interfere with the development of English speaking ability in Japanese students.

2.7 Factors in speaking English

Along with students' apparent lack of speaking experience in the educational system, growing evidence suggests additional factors in Japan lead to circumstances possibly specific to Japanese learners (i.e., Ohata, 2005; Kurihara & Samimy, 2007; Harumi, 2011). Discussed below, these elements include cultural, affective, and socioeducational factors.

2.7.1   Cultural factors

Various cultural factors identified by researchers may affect some Japanese learners in unique ways. Of course, '[t]he stereotypical view of Asian students as more passive, less vocal, and preferring lecture-style instruction does not always accurately describe students in Asia' (Butler, 2011, p. 40). Cutrone (2009) suggests some areas where cultural differences may exist, such as different social and cultural codes for speaking, differences in how Japanese learners expect teachers to behave, and shyness as a virtue in Japanese society. Rose (1994) asserts that there are some Japanese who may constrain their English ability because it is against social norms to be able to speak English well. As such, some Japanese students may hide their high level of English ability for fear 'of being resented by their peers for outperforming others, thus violating cultural norms' (Ohata, 2005, p. 16). McVeigh (2002) claims such resentment can manifest in the form of derogatory slurs, ostracizing, and bullying due to a perceived threat to one's identity as a Japanese, for whom it may be considered abnormal to have English ability.

Harumi (2011) examined the meaning of silence in Japanese classrooms from the perspectives of students and teachers. She found many of the students' reasons for classroom silence related to more than just linguistic issues and involved elements of cultural behavior found in Japan. For example, students did not understand clearly when opportunities were afforded to them to take a speaking turn. Furthermore, students believed that they should only speak when explicitly nominated, a contrast to Western classrooms where students often speak voluntarily. In addition, students appeared to lack confidence particularly when speaking in front of other students. Harumi partially attributed the silent behavior of students to the Japanese cultural trait of *wa* or 'group harmony', where the peaceful

feeling of the group assumes paramount importance over any one person. To help Japanese students overcome silence in the classroom, Harumi suggested the following directions for teaching:

1. Activities should build up learner confidence and facilitate learner autonomy.

2. Teaching should be reflective and interpretative in nature.

3. The classroom environment should encourage mutual participation to accomplish the aim of communication.

While it is impossible for any single concept to encapsulate Japanese communication as a whole, major factors such as *wa* help to make sense of the cultural context. In addition, *wa* could be part of the reason Japanese learners are reluctant to speak up in class because it might upstage other learners who may not have the skill to speak in English, and speaking may break with the norm of the group to stay silent.

2.7.2   Affective factors

Anxiety has been of interest to EFL researchers since the 1970's (Horwitz, 2010; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Learner anxiety caused by having to produce spoken messages has been identified to be part of the reason students hesitate to speak when learning a second language (Liu, 2005). Liu (2006) studied the anxiety of Chinese undergraduates of various proficiency levels learning English as non-majors. Liu's findings indicated students experienced less anxiety as their proficiency levels increased. In addition, less anxiety was noted during pair work activities in classrooms, while anxiety increased during oral presentation tasks done in front of the class. In a study on anxiety in Japanese university freshmen, Osobe, Fujimura, and Hirschel (2007) suggest a relationship exists between willingness to communicate in L1 and confidence in L2 speaking. Students in the study appeared to have less anxiety while working in pairs and small groups than when speaking in front of the entire class. Lockley and Farrell (2011) investigated the relationship between speaking performance and confidence in grammar in Japanese university students and found no statistical evidence for a correlation between the two. These studies demonstrate a connection for anxiety levels as related to classroom interaction.

2.7.3 Socioeducational factors

Factors connected to the politics of English education may influence teachers and learners in Japan through *socioeducational contexts*. Socioeducational contexts 'are communities of people, enmeshed in social systems that operate according to tacit and explicit norms, hierarchies and values' (Graves, 2008, p. 154). As English evolves as an international language (McKay & Bokhorst, 2008; McKay, 2012) and CLT matures, a potential danger exists in teachers teaching CLT who may unknowingly impose a cultural hegemony loaded with Anglocentric perspectives on students (Cameron, 2002; Butler, 2011). At times, Western teaching methods, concepts, and desired outcomes in CLT may conflict with non-Western cultures, and ignoring local cultural norms has potential to become an ethnocentric practice (Holliday, 1994; Butler, 2011). For example, the present study places a focus on the communicative practice of pair work, which may be considered an ethnocentric practice [detailed in section 4.8].

Recent accounts of socioeducational factors in the Japanese context have surfaced that cast a critical eye on the educational system and its policies in an attempt to explain low proficiency levels often demonstrated by many Japanese learners of English (McVeigh, 2002; Gottlieb, 2005, 2008; Seargeant, 2009, 2011; Houghton and Rivers, 2013). Related to internationalization, this controversial line of research known as *native-speakerism* began 'based on the assumption that "native speakers" of English have a special claim to the language itself, that it is essentially their property' (Holliday, 2005, p. 8). As such, educational constructs such as the teaching of the four language skills and learner-centered processes found in communicative language teaching are argued as rooted in native-speakerism (Houghton, 2013). Current research into native-speakerism in Japan has taken a new turn to include claims that so-called native speakers may not only act as the perpetrators of cultural hegemony but also may be victims of it (Houghton & Rivers, 2013).

In one such claim, Hashimoto (2009) holds the implicit meanings in governmental policy accountable for displaying native-speakerism through the objectification of English and the treatment of foreigners as resources. Hashimoto (2009) argues that the rhetoric in the MEXT policy itself acts as a means for Japan to retain its 'otherness' so as to reject being absorbed into the fabric of

globalization. Rather than foster a blending into the international community, the juxtaposing of Japanese cultural values with the outside world is thought to foreground the uniqueness of being Japanese (Hashimoto, 2007). 'In this view, not being able to speak English well signifies that one is Japanese and is the real underlying explanation for the poor quality of English teaching in Japan' (Gottlieb, 2008, p. 145).

Seargeant (2009) claims that the promulgation of English in Japan is connected to cultural identity in such a way that 'results in an interesting paradox whereby promotion of a nationalist sentiment requires the embracing of a "foreign" language' (p. 79). Thus, some scholars adopting the standpoint of native-speakerism in Japan argue that language policy appears to yield a tacit promotion of nationalism. Socioeducational factors such as native-speakerism have relevance for the present study because such concepts may link reasons for the low levels of speaking proficiency in learners to their identity as Japanese.

2.8 Summary

This chapter has illustrated some of the complexities in the Japanese context surrounding the teaching of speaking. Perhaps most relevant to this matter is the tension that arises between English education (*eigo*) and English for speaking (*eikaiwa*). The act of establishing communicative teaching, *eikaiwa*, in the Japanese context at once begins be marginalized because such teaching contrasts with the traditional methods of teaching of English, *eigo*. Given a context that places more value on the latter, curricula that fail to address oral communication in a substantial way prior to entering university are the norm and favor other language skills deemed more relevant for practical reasons. If the teaching of speaking is to rise above its current status as the least taught language skill in the Japanese context, then a shift in perspective is necessary so value can be seen in the language as a tool for communication.

One thing that becomes clear in this educational context is that little attention is paid to the value of speaking and pair work until students arrive to the settings of higher education. Once at university, students continue to take English courses where they may encounter oral-focused lessons, which they may not be accustomed to. The present study aims to investigate classroom phenomena in oral-

focused university lessons that place video materials at the center of classroom interaction. In the next chapter, I turn to review literature on the use of video-based materials for language instruction.

CHAPTER 3:   Video as Materials Used in Language Lessons

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I review literature in two key areas in the field of language instruction: (1) video for language lessons, and (2) the use of materials in language classrooms. In doing so, I position video as material for use in language lessons, synthesize video with materials use, and unpack what is meant by video and use. The chapter starts with a number of definitions for major terms used throughout this thesis before reviewing literature on video for language lessons. Then, I pivot from video to discuss literature on materials and materials use. Of central importance in this latter section is the notion of the classroom ecology, an area of emerging interest in language teaching and applied linguistics. In the sections below, I show that there is a need to further understand ways in which video is used in the language classroom.

3.2 Definitions of key terms

In this study, I seek to understand how learners and teachers use and interact with materials surrounding the viewing of videos in language classrooms. Early advocates of video for language teaching such as Lonergan (1984) and Allan (1985) remind us that the term 'video' carries different meanings for different people. On one hand, 'video' may mean the watching of films, television programs, newscasts, slideshows, or grassroots productions used for activities to answer cloze exercises or to prompt classroom discussions. In this sense, video is simply watched. As part of the current reinvention of video, watching may also include the viewing of streamed video from the web or the use of interactive video through touch screens or mouse clicks. 'In the light of these innovations inside and outside the classroom, audiovisual media such as television broadcasts, video and DVD, almost seem outdated as a tool for teaching a foreign language' (Jung, 2010, p. 126). However, the trend in ELT textbook development has been to include a video component with textbooks as evidenced by titles in best-selling series such as *Pathways 1* (Chase, 2013) and *Stretch 1* (Stempleski, 2014). Videos in these types of textbooks are often produced by media professionals instead of the teachers and students who eventually view the materials.

On the other hand, 'video' in classrooms might relate to the element of production, where learners create a video as a class project in a content-based English course or use video cameras to self-record oral presentations for later review and study. Video recording and editing software applications have been available for computers and phones for years. Chun, Smith, and Kern (2016) recommend lessons where learners produce or create video clips, video chats, and digital storytelling, and 'be able to critique, analyze, and evaluate both the meanings they want to convey as well as the meanings produced by others' (p. 71). In this sense, 'video' means the creation or production of content by the learners. Both receptive activities and creative activities with video are the major ways teachers are encouraged to use video in language classrooms.

The present study places the focus on classroom activities related to the viewing of videos. As such, the term 'video' refers to pre-recorded content as it is shown and watched in the setting of language classrooms, rather than the production of video material by participants. In addition, because the videos used in this study are digital as opposed to video tape, 'video' is used to mean DVDs. Furthermore, when brought into the classroom for instructional purposes, videos are educational materials in the same way printed textbooks are (McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2003, 2012; Harwood, 2010).

Educational materials are often intentionally defined in a broad manner to account for the nature of their diversity. For example, Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) define materials as 'any artifacts that prompt the learning and use of language in the language classroom' (p. 779). In a similar light, Tomlinson (2012) defines materials as 'anything that can be used to facilitate the learning of a language, including coursebooks, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and mobile phone interactions' (p. 143). Harwood's (2010) definition expresses a view of materials that explicitly includes classroom activities: 'texts presented to the learner in paper-based, audio, or visual form, and /or exercises and activities built around such texts' (p. 3). Video certainly rests firmly in the literature as materials for language instruction.

A notable component of these definitions for materials is either the expressed or tacit inclusion of teacher and learner responses as materials themselves. With specific regard to video, Keddie (2014) classifies video materials as either explicit or implicit texts. The former are the parts of the video itself,

whereas the latter come from teacher and/or learner responses to the video. Similarly, research into materials has supported the view that participant responses are used as materials (e.g., Thoms, 2014; Jakonen, 2015). To be clear, I view materials to include participant responses in activities. Thus, participant responses in classroom activities are simultaneously viewed as not only material itself, but also use of material.

To understand what occurs with video in language classrooms, this study places a focus on video with regard to use. While *materials use* seems self-explanatory, in reality use is complex. No single definition of materials use has been established in the context of materials research. The observation of any number of educational interactions related to materials may trigger intuitive thoughts of what is meant by use. Broadly speaking, at the root of materials use lies action associated with and influenced by materials in some way. Furthermore, use concerns interaction between participants as related to materials [discussed in detail in Chapters 3 & 5]. In this thesis, materials use is when participants engage with materials for language education. With particular regard to video, use of materials is when participants engage with video and video-based materials for language education. In this study, I explore ways in which learners and teachers use classroom video as materials to elicit interaction.

3.3 Classroom video

In language classrooms, modern video technology is used to create material, deliver it, and support the process of language learning (Reinders & White, 2010; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Furthered by ever-lowering costs and ease of use in hardware, software, and bandwidth; trends to include multimedia such as video in teaching materials have increased in popularity since the 1970's (Brinton & Gaskill, 1978; MacKnight, 1983; Tudor, 1988; Stempleski & Arcario, 1992), and classroom use has accelerated over the past decade (Vanderplank, 2010). This increase of multimedia usage mirrors the growth of available ELT textbooks and materials with digital video not only as lesson supplements, but also as the core material for language lessons (Goldstein & Driver, 2015). Many language teachers embrace video technology as a means to improve student engagement with lesson materials and bring the outside world into the classroom (Stempleski & Tomalin, 2001).

Many members of teacher training courses and professional development communities encourage the use of video for language teaching in a diverse range of ways. As support for video in language teaching, an abundance of books and edited volumes exist that have practical suggestions for the classroom application of video (e.g., Geddes & Sturtridge, 1982; McGovern, 1983; Lonergan, 1984; Allan, 1985; Altman, 1989; Stempleski & Arcario, 1992; Sherman, 2003; Keddie, 2014; Donaghy, 2015; Goldstein & Driver, 2015). These volumes serve as manuals for 'how-to' design video-based language lessons and detail multiple instructional strategies for video use. One general guideline is to design lessons with three stages: a pre-showing activity, the playback, and a follow-up activity. Many instructional techniques in the older of these publications have stood the test of time and contain valuable suggestions for video still in use today. One such example is *silent viewing*, a technique where video is watched with the sound turned off and often used as a stimulus for learners to speak about the images. Silent viewing was proposed by Stempleski (1987) in the 1980's, and the technique is still used with recently released ELT textbook series such as *Inspire* (Hartmann, Douglas, & Boon, 2014).

3.4 Video in language teaching

Video for language teaching has film and television at its roots. In an early publication on the potential of film for language teaching and learning, Travis (1947) put forth an essay to discuss how such materials might function in a language classroom. While lauding film for its quality that 'makes the language come to life by coupling movement with speech' (p. 146) in ways impossible to be done by a teacher alone, Travis (ibid.) was also quick to recognize limitations such as the way 'film does all the talking, depicts all of the movement, and the spectator is motionless and silent' (p. 146). In other words, Travis (ibid.) cautioned against the way a passive viewing of film could impede language learning unless instruction is integrated with activities and pedagogic goals. Without such integration, a language lesson may fall flat in the classroom. This danger of passive viewing signals the way in which the entertainment component of video viewing can interfere with ways in which teachers and learners may perceive video as instructional material.

Educational professionals promoting the use of video in language classrooms have continually warned against the trappings of video viewed solely as entertainment for a 'Friday afternoon treat' (MacKnight, 1983) in order to take a break from more rigorous lessons (Allan, 1985; Sherman, 2003; Goldstein & Driver, 2015). Chun et al. (2016) emphasize that video watching must be integrated with targeted and follow-up activities. While Sherman (2003) includes the showing of video for its own sake as one possible use among others, most proponents of video use in language teaching argue that such use for the sole purpose of entertainment is a thing of the past and that a pedagogic purpose should support classroom video.

In response to the risk of passive viewing, Goldstein and Driver (2015) suggest a framework for the close integration of video material with pedagogic goals. In particular, this framework includes four main ways video can be used in classrooms: (1) as a language focus, (2) for skills practice, (3) as stimulus, and (4) as a resource. Such a response aligns with the motivation behind Lonergan's (1984) suggestion that video be viewed actively and surrounded with pedagogic activities. Goldstein and Driver's (2015) proposal has historical origins in an earlier framework proposed by Willis (1983a) on ways in which video can be used in the classroom.

Willis' (1983a) framework recommends that lessons match learning objectives with roles that video can play to examples of suitable classroom activities. In addition, this framework includes a cline with a focus on language form at one end and a focus on message on the other. For example, in order to achieve language for objectives such as a grasping of the situation portrayed in a video or to repeat language items from a scene, the role of the video would be to provide models and cues of language items. Corresponding classroom activities might then take advantage of whole group or pair work for controlled oral practice in conjunction with video use. Within the wider parameters of the framework, use of the video would come from one of three permutations of playback: (1) with both the picture and audio turned on, (2) with the picture on but audio off to focus on the visual images, and (3) with the picture off but the audio on to focus on the spoken language. Furthermore, Willis (1983b) proposed that the use of video materials in classroom activities would be deictic in nature, where learners refer to particular video scenes (Riley, 1981; van Lier, 2004).

As mentioned above, practical language lessons including video embrace a rich variety of instructional techniques and approaches (e.g., Stempleski & Arcario, 1992; Stempleski & Tomalin, 2001). In an oft-cited paper, Stempleski (1987) supports authentic video for language teaching. She defines authentic video as video designed for entertainment value. Parisi and Andon (2016) define a film as authentic 'if it was not produced with the sole purpose of teaching language, but rather to convey a real message of feelings to the audience' (p. 110). Because videos such as newscasts, 'how-to' videos, or documentaries may be excluded by the term 'entertainment' in Stempleski's definition, my own view coincides with that of Parisi and Andon. I define authentic video as video created for a purpose other than language teaching.

Stempleski (1987) raises an interesting point about the value of authentic video for the classrooms through a debate within the field on whether authentic videos are of greater value than videos produced specifically for language teaching. Teaching materials with contrived samples of language often display specific teaching points that rely on the intuition of the writers, which may produce language models that are confusing (Gilmore, 2011). On the other hand, Brown and Yule (1983) consider authentic video materials to offer a richer source of classroom input.

Stempleski (1987) recommends multiple instructional techniques including *silent viewing*, where learners watch clips without the soundtrack and discuss their ideas about the visual content. 'However, if you are using video as a stimulus to elicit language from the students, some ambiguity may be desirable' (Stempleski, 2002, p. 366). Furthermore, Stempleski recommends showing short segments of video in the classroom similar to content found at popular websites such as *YouTube* and *Vimeo*. Sherman (2003) gives a list of ways to use video:

-as complete recordings or short extracts
-for their own sake – just exposing students to the recordings and letting them enjoy them
-for the sake of the encounter with the culture
-for listening comprehension
-to provide models of the spoken language
-as input/stimulus for some other activity
-as a moving picture book (p. 6).

King (2002) reports on a multitude of ways teachers use video to promote classroom discussions. Among these techniques, she advocates a short-sequence approach, which divides a film into segments

for instruction. King states techniques such as *sound only* and *silent viewing* number among the more conventional ways in which teachers exploit video. The pedagogical practices detailed in King's article appear based more on teachers' intuitions rather than informed by research.

While video in the classroom can be used to address receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (writing and speaking), the focus of this thesis is to explore ways in which participants use video for speaking activities. There are several reasons for the focus to rest on speaking. First, the professional literature contains a great number of suggestions for speaking activities. As such, educators advocate using videos to promote discussions in class (Lonergan 1991; Parisi & Andon, 2016). Second, questionnaire research indicates that teachers often use video in combination with speaking activities (MacKnight, 1983). Third, teachers report that enthusiastic and lively discussions occur in video-based lessons (Williams 1982; Brinton & Gaskill, 1978). Fourth, despite speaking being the least popular language skill for research in relation to technology, speaking 'attract[s] the most diverse range of technologies and approaches' (Levy, 2012, p. 282).

The 'how-to' manuals for the use of video in the classroom suggest that video materials are effective in eliciting classroom discussions. For example, Lonergan (1984) proposes a transfer approach for using video in conjunction with speaking activities either by actual transfer or simulated transfer. In actual transfer, learners use topics from the video material and shift from talking about the video material to talking about themselves, their own circumstances, and interests. This approach provides learners with chances to speak about their own opinions and personal experiences. Lonergan (ibid.) states that such activities are valuable for communication practice. Furthermore, in active transfer, learners are thought to move away from topics in the video content rather quickly to more personal topics. Actual transfer activities request learners to make individual responses to video materials, and then share these responses with the whole class. As such, learners may have opportunities to hear interesting points about the video materials from fellow learners. The video-based materials observed in this study adopt a similar approach to actual transfer.

Simulated transfer is when learners rely upon context of the video for a follow-up activity. Lonergan (1984) uses the example of role playing as if checking into a hotel following the watching of

a video that had scenes related to the actors checking into a hotel. The transactional language involved in the video could be used as instruction for pieces of useful language for a particular situation. While numerous recommendations for video-based activities have been suggested in the literature, use of such activities are perceived to have benefits for language learners.

3.5 Proposed benefits of learning with video

That video use in ELT classrooms is beneficial to language learning is a widely held view (Tschirner, 2001; Sherman, 2003; Gruba, 2006; Jaén & Basanta, 2009; Gilmore, 2010). According to Jaén and Basanta (2009), benefits include controllability, authenticity, non-verbals, sociocultural elements of language, promotion of vocabulary, motivation, and active participation. Parisi and Andon (2016) suggest that advantages of using film for language instruction relate to: (1) authenticity, (2) motivation, (3) cultural awareness, and (4) language skills – as a springboard to productive activities. Similarly, Donaghy (2015) states that films can provide: (1) motivation, (2) authenticity, (3) visuality, (4) intercultural communication, and (5) variety and flexibility. 'These context-rich sources of data [i.e., video and film materials] permit learners to modify their cognitive structures by accommodating their background knowledge to new data' (Kitajima & Lyman-Hager, 1998, p. 45).

Educational professionals generally agree on three main areas in language education that benefit from the showing of videos and films: authenticity, motivation and culture. Authenticity is taken to be 'replicas of real-life people and real life situations' (Jaén & Basanta, 2009, p. 289). Authenticity also relates to the linguistic features of language as rich input that can lead to listening comprehension and eventually improved speaking (Parisi & Andon, 2016). Videos are believed to be motivating in that they bring a sense of enjoyment and entertainment into the classroom (Donaghy, 2015); ignite interest in language from lively classroom experiences and build confidence (King, 2002; Jaén & Basanta, 2009); and sustain curiosity and interest through activities (Keddie, 2014). Culture concerns the communicating of cultural values and the fostering of awareness of foreign and domestic cultural elements (Tschirner, 2001; Donaghy, 2015); addresses potential cultural bias and ignorance to ease intercultural encounters (Telatnik & Krause, 1982); nurtures understanding of history, art, and geography (Altman, 1989; Parisi & Andon, 2016); and relates to the learning of intercultural visual

cues and non-verbal communication, and portrayal of communicative situations such as greetings, partings and complaining (Tschirner, 2001; Parisi & Andon, 2016). Authenticity, motivation, and culture are believed to affect language study through video viewing and video-based activities.

For speaking skills, video materials are believed to have a powerful impact. Video materials can elicit interaction related to interests and personal experiences, as in Lonergan's actual transfer. Teachers seek materials that prompt the expression of personal ideas, which can be achieved through video materials as a starting point (McGrath, 2013). With regard to the enhancement of speaking skills through the use of video materials, Tschirner (2001) argues for topics in activities to be personal experiences that explore learners' thoughts, hopes, and desires. Goldstein and Driver (2015) recommend video topics that are relevant to learners' lives and experiences. Personalized practice has been claimed to make language more memorable and motivating (Hedge, 2001). The vast number of techniques for using video to elicit classroom interaction indicates video materials as an appropriate match to assist in the development of speaking skills.

The literature on instructional strategies provides insights not only into ways that educational professionals believe video should be used in the classroom, but also prospective benefits from the implementation of these lessons in classrooms. While benefits of video and teaching suggestions in the literature appear to be grounded in sound pedagogic rationale, many of these perceived benefits and instructional suggestions remain based on intuition because the ways in which the video-based lessons unfold in the classroom are underexplored.

As far back as the 1970's, educators called for research on what actually happens in classrooms with video materials (Brinton & Gaskill, 1978). Over two decades ago, Herron (1994, p. 191 as cited in Salaberry, 2001) explained that 'virtually no empirical research [exists] to support video instructional strategies currently being advocated' (p. 41). Little has changed in the area since Herron made that statement. Vanderplank (2010) states the lack of research studies reviewed on the classroom use of video results from the fact that many practical accounts 'are almost invariably anecdotal' (p. 11). More recently, Vanderplank (2016a) adds that today there is little work in the world that can be called research on video for language study. Given the omnipresence of video materials available for

language teaching and the proliferation of suggestions of how these materials can be used in the professional literature, the scarcity of published research in the field of applied linguistics is surprising. However, the research that has been done on video for language teaching has produced insightful results as shown in the next section. The aim of the present study is to add to the body of empirical research on video materials in language classrooms by exploring use.

3.6 Research on ELT video materials

With scholars' consistent remarks on the shortage of research regarding video for language teaching (Weyers, 1999; Zhao, 2003; Chapelle, 2010; Mekheimer, 2011; Vanderplank, 2016a), comparison studies remain rare mostly due to the difficulty involved with controlling all the variables (Herron, York, Corrie, & Cole, 2006). However, video has been a subject of interest to researchers since it came into vogue for use in language classrooms during the 1970's. Several researchers have provided comprehensive reviews of video-based research in the field (e.g., Lonergan, 1991; Garza, 1996; Salaberry 2001; Zhao, 2003; Vanderplank, 2010, 2016a, 2016b). Researchers in language education have opened lines of inquiry that include work on authentic video materials in language instruction (Brinton & Gaskill, 1978; Weyers, 1999; Gilmore, 2007, 2011), captioning and subtitling (e.g., Vanderplank 1988, 2016a; Garza, 1991; Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010), culture (Garza, 1990; Kramsch & Anderson, 1999), lexical coverage in films (Webb & Rodgers, 2009; Rodgers & Webb, 2011), video production by learners (Gardner, 2002; Toohey, Dagenais, Fodor, Hof, Nuñez, Singh & Schulze, 2015; Ferdiansyah, 2016), and listening (e.g., Gruba, 2006; Cross, 2009; Woottipong 2014; Hamdan, 2015).

Noticeably lacking from a survey of research on video are studies focused on use of video material and the speaking output in classroom interaction. Most studies aimed at speaking occur more in traditional classrooms that do not employ video (Barr, Leakey, & Ranchoux, 2005), suggesting an apparent gap in the field. MacKnight (1983) showed that listening was the skill most focused on by teachers in video-based lessons, and the skill of speaking was the second highest. Although classroom discussion rests near the top of this list and numerous proposals exist for using video as a means to promote discussions, studies of output remain rare (Vanderplank, 2010). So little attention has been

given to spoken output in relation to video in language classrooms that Weyers (1999) reported to have found 'no published research in the applicability of authentic video to the enhancement of oral production' (p. 339).

One notable exception to the scarce research on video and classroom interaction is Weyers' (1999) study on authentic video materials. Weyers (ibid.) used both quantitative and qualitative methods to study oral production and listening comprehension in language classrooms where *telenovelas* (soap operas in Spanish) were shown as part of Spanish language lessons. While learners exhibited an improvement in listening comprehension, Weyers also found improvements in specific areas of communicative competence as related to spoken output—namely that confidence in speech and detail in narration had been positively affected. These findings suggest that authentic video has value for elements of communicative competence and that these elements can be affected differently. Weyers (ibid.) concluded 'that *telenovelas* are a valuable source of authentic target language usage that has a positive effect on students' communicative skills' (p. 347). In a more current study, Al-Surmi (2012) argued that sitcoms are superior to soap operas for language study due to the former having language that more closely resembles authentic conversation than the latter. However, Al-Surmi (ibid.) explored the language in the video itself, rather than ways learners interacted with each other after viewing. Showing that certain genres of video may have more advantages for language learning opportunities than other genres indicates a need for studies that include multiple genres of video.

Other studies on authentic video material include speaking as a small part of a larger data set. In one such early study, Brinton and Gaskill (1978) researched the use of English news broadcasts in ESL (USA) and EFL (Germany) classrooms. In a cross-case analysis of the classroom activity, findings included that in both settings: (1) learners required an adjustment period to become accustomed to the speed of spoken English in the newscasts, (2) learners discussed an assortment of real topics and reused vocabulary items, (3) lessons could be improved by the accompaniment of activities, (4) learner motivation and enthusiasm heightened, and (5) skills besides listening deepened. The researchers noticed that learner discussions departed from issues in the newscasts as in authentic

interaction and that learners assisted each other with vocabulary and questions about the news content. Learner participants reported value for exposure to authentic English spoken in the videos. The authors concluded that newscasts not only bring realism into the classroom, but also enable learners to discuss issues of substance. A limitation of the study was that the classroom speaking activities were self-reported by the authors.

Gilmore (2007, 2011) compared lessons taught from authentic materials to materials specifically created for language teaching. Authentic materials included not only printed material, but also a wealth of other materials such as audio recordings, television shows, and songs, so authentic video was only a portion of the overall materials. Results of the study suggest authentic materials have a more beneficial effect on students' communicative competence than industry-standard textbooks that utilize contrived language models for instruction. The study only included video as a fraction of the data set, and he measured multiple skills.

From a perspective of CLT and constructivist theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Barr et al. (2005) investigated the relationship between oral interaction and technology in university classrooms. This mixed-methods study had data from questionnaires, surveys, student journals, and pre- and post-tests from a 12-week semester. Groups were divided into tech and non-tech groups, and the lesson plans for each contained similar structures including the verbal responding to visual input such as television. The principal difference between the groups was that the tech group had the computer lab as a classroom and routinely used computers during lessons. The quantitative data showed improved speaking ability in both groups. However, the non-tech group displayed significant increases in more of the speaking tasks designed to measure pronunciation, intonation, fluency content, and grammar. The authors attributed the result to several factors: (1) the non-tech group spent more class time on communicative activities and less on learning how to use the new technology involved, and (2) the non-tech group had more direct contact with teachers.

Both groups also improved their speaking ability according to the qualitative data. Nearly half of the students in the tech group pointed to the small group discussions in the class as the reason for their improvements, which requires no technology. In preparation for these discussions, students spent

extensive time on the web allowing for a richer planning experience than in the non-tech group. Results proved inconclusive in determining how the use of computer technology affected oral proficiency, and the researchers suggested a longitudinal study might yield more concrete results. Even with the inconclusive results for technology use, both groups improved oral development after exposure to visual input from video segments, thereby demonstrating a link between video and improvements in speaking. Instead of a measurement of non-tech versus tech, one future direction could be to study the outcomes of different kinds of media or even different genres of video on oral development.

While studies on speaking activities in video-based lessons remain rare, video-based research related to language-learning skills other than speaking do offer valuable implications for the present study on video and speaking activities. For example, Gardner (2002) looked at learner perception of production of video in Hong Kong language classrooms. Learners in the study reported the process of producing videos provided ample opportunities for speaking, but not in the space expected. Rather than opportunities for speaking during the actual production process of the videos, learners reported on the speaking opportunities following the viewing of videos made by their peers. Results from Gardner (ibid.) suggest a need for studies on what learners say to each other following the viewing of videos.

Likewise, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) research has addressed video-based materials. Although many of these CALL studies concentrate on the skills of listening and writing (e.g., Wagner, 2007; Gruba, 2006; Cross 2009, 2011; Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010), CALL studies investigating speaking examine spoken interaction around the use of technology and video such as classroom interaction at computer terminals (e.g., Barr et al., 2005; Jeon-Ellis, Debski, & Wigglesworth, 2005) or use of voice chat (e.g., Jepson, 2005). In CALL studies related to video, speaking is given limited attention usually as one component in the overall data set.

In one CALL study with implications for video use and speaking, Herron et al. (2006) conducted a quantitative study comparing the learning of listening and grammar through videos between two groups of intermediate-level students of French over a 15-week semester. The experimental group studied from material including scenes from a feature-film, and the control group studied from a

textbook that included short videos as optional supplements. The former group used feature-film clips to introduce grammar and learning points whereas the latter had the grammar introduced as written structures in the book with optional videos occasionally supplementing the lessons. Pre- and post-tests served as measurements for listening and grammar skills.

Herron et al. (2006) found students in the feature-film group showed significant improvements in listening and grammar skills whereas those using the textbook only showed significant progress in grammar, but not listening. This finding suggests lessons with feature-films may impact listening skills more than lessons from a traditional textbook. Although the text-based control group did watch some supplementary videos, the videos were neither required nor shown often; therefore, this study essentially becomes one in which video lessons were compared to those not employing video. As an interesting sidebar, the supplementary videos yielded a positive effect on intercultural learning in the control group. In their conclusion, Herron et al. (2006) call for similar research in future studies to investigate how other genres of video (e.g., news programs, documentaries, sit-coms, etc.) affect the learning of language skills such as reading, writing and speaking.

Perhaps because MacKnight (1983) identified listening as the skill most taught by teachers in classroom practice, this skill is an area that has received some attention by CALL researchers (e.g., Gruba, 2006; Cross, 2009). Cross (2009) investigated the effects of listening strategy training with learners in Japan using BBC newscasts as material for listening. The study design included experimental and control groups in a quasi-experimental classroom study with adult learners in Japan. While learners in both groups showed significant gains on test scores, there was no significant difference between the groups. Despite the outcome, Cross (ibid.) explained there was a cooperative nature to the lessons when less-abled learners asked for assistance from more-abled partners as a strategy to improve the comprehension of videotexts. Such a learner strategy demonstrates that video materials not only prompt learner interaction, but also impact gaps in learner knowledge.

In another CALL study on listening, Gruba (2006) argued that interactions with videotexts in language classrooms demonstrate aspects of language play. Following earlier work by Mackey (2002) from a media literacy perspective on play, Gruba (ibid.) viewed play as an impetus to emotions of joy,

excitement, and liveliness. Learners in the study exhibited *playing as joyfulness* through understanding the process of the narratives in authentic television news broadcasts. However, learners also expressed a lack of joy in some video-based activities when tasks were perceived as burdensome and monotonous. Gruba (2006) concluded that if learner interactions are viewed as 'multi-layered aspects of play, then we are in a frame of mind to promote students' intuitive and creative use of complex medium' (p. 88). While the study focused on listening, data came from transcripts of learners' classroom interactions, observations, and reflections by learners similar to data in the present study. Analysis relied on the spoken interaction in response to video material and classroom activities, which indicated that play occurs in video-based activities.

The literature on video materials reveals a need for studies centered on the use of video materials by participants during classroom speaking activities. Although most studies discussed above that revolve around technology and speaking adopt quantitative research methods, some scholars are calling for an expansion in perspective 'to understand complex relationships among learners, teachers, content and technology within particular social and cultural contexts' (Kern, 2006, p. 201). The multitude of factors involved in the use of video in speaking activities means the qualitative paradigm is appropriate for such research [discussed in Chapter 5]. Hughes (2011) asserts that trends developing in the research of speaking include 'the breaking down of some of the barriers between different "camps" in the discipline, the acceptance of a less adversarial, more eclectic, approach to language theory and respect of the inter-disciplinarity' (p. 137). Due to the nature of my research questions and what I seek to find out, I also follow a more qualitative and eclectic approach in this thesis [detailed in the coming chapters].

Furthermore, currently scholars 'are researching factors which contribute to the successful development and exploitation of materials [. . .]' (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 270). Tomlinson makes a key distinction between materials development and materials use. What has been discussed so far in this chapter has been, in part, related to the design and development of materials and techniques for video-based lessons. Use of materials as an area of research is a natural outgrowth of the field of materials development. However, materials use is what occurs with materials through classroom participation.

Because this study explores the use of video-based materials in language classrooms during participant interaction, I now turn to review literature on materials and materials use.

3.7 Materials in language teaching

In recent years, a growing body of literature has been produced on EFL materials and materials development (e.g., Littlejohn, 2011; McGrath, 2002, 2013; Tomlinson, 2003, 2010, 2011, 2013; Crossley, Louwerse, McCarthy, & McNamara, 2007; Harwood, 2010; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010; Gray, 2013; McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara, 2013; Garton & Graves, 2014b; Tsagari & Sifakis, 2014). As such, materials development is now an established field in language teaching (Tomlinson, 2016). As pointed out by a number of scholars (e.g., Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Garton & Graves, 2014a, 2014b; Jakonen, 2015), the focus of much of this research has either analyzed the content of the materials or placed emphasis on the processes of development, design, and evaluation of materials.

For example, Crossley et al. (2007) analyzed the written content in nine ESL course books to compare authentic texts to the simplified text found in the books. Findings included significant differences between text types where authentic texts had a greater diversity of word types and contain more causal verbs and conditionals, both of which support criticisms that simplified texts exhibit atypical language in textbooks. Similarly, Webb and Rodgers (2009) investigated the lexical content of movies to determine if the language in films is at an appropriate level for students to learn new vocabulary. In particular, movies were investigated to see if ideal conditions for incidental learning are present. Movie scripts of 318 movies were made into a corpus and analyzed for frequency and level of difficulty. Results indicated that learners with knowledge of the most frequent 3,000 word families would have adequate ability to use movies for incidental vocabulary gain. Both Crossley et al. (2007) and Webb and Rodgers (2009) show how analysis of the content of materials can be used to inform the selection of materials for classroom use.

Work has also been done in materials development and evaluation. For example, Tsagari and Sifakis (2014) researched teacher perceptions of course book evaluations based on classroom use and ways teachers' perceptions related to the intent of the course book authors. Results showed a mismatch between the intent of the textbook authors and teacher perceptions. While teachers pointed

to the overwhelming number of activities in the materials, the intent of the authors was to provide a large corpus from which the teachers could choose as needed. Tsagari and Sifakis (2014) concluded by suggesting that authors engage in constant reflection during the writing process to ensure the text matches goals of all stakeholders and that teachers assume responsibility for use of the materials. Tomlinson (2003) reported on developing a book with a group of 30 writers over a six-day period in Namibia. Teams of writers created units, and the group selected the best units to appear in the final book. Policymakers, publishers, artists, and examiners also provided feedback during the process. The project resulted in what Tomlinson (2003) called 'the most imaginative and humanistic coursebook I've ever been involved in' (p. 167). The way in which these materials are eventually used remains unexplored.

In general, the literature on materials development and evaluation has pointed to the conclusion that there is no way for one set of materials to function well in all language classrooms (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013). Though this research into materials has yielded valuable knowledge, one limitation is that analysis is often done independently of the classroom and therefore isolated from practical use by teachers and learners. As such, we cannot see how the materials are used in the settings for which they are designed. Although constant calls by materials researchers have been for research into the ways materials are put into practice in the classroom, materials research has not widely addressed the area of use. Tomlinson (2016) suggests this lack of research is due, in part, to research on materials only having recently been accepted as an area of academic inquiry. Materials also need to be studied in the context of what occurs in the classroom. In response to this gap in the literature, a recent line of inquiry to emerge in the area of materials is that of the use of materials.

3.8 Studies on materials use

Two well-known studies serve as early work on the use of materials in classrooms: Canagarajah (1993) and Yakhontova (2001). Both studies are ethnographic accounts of classroom experiences in non-western settings. Canagarajah (1993) found that his students in Sri Lanka resisted lessons based on communicative teaching in his coursebook, and instead the learners preferred to learn English with traditional grammar-based lessons. For example, some learners would skip class on days when

communicative lessons were taught, all the while showing high motivation for learning English by attending extra lessons taught from local textbooks that took place outside of regular class time. Yakhontova (2001) writes that university students in Ukraine had a favorable opinion of their writing textbook, which was designed for learners studying in western countries. However, the Ukranian learners also recognized a cultural distance to the materials due to a lack of references to the local context, which led some learners to resist the book. Through the use of materials, both of these studies show ways in which textbooks have an impact on classroom instruction and how materials created for one context may not have universal appeal.

In a rare study that showed learners' perspectives of textbook evaluation, Badea and Iridon (2015) studied learner attitudes of the use of a language textbook by learners of Romanian. University learners in Romania completed a textbook evaluation grid to obtain descriptive results. The learners had favorable impressions of the text and pointed to the way the layout was integrated with targeted learning features such as vocabulary and semantics. The logical order of presentation within units was also viewed as favorable. However, learners desired more diversity in topics and activities that promoted creative use of language. The study provides another example of a way in which research from materials evaluation can move into classroom use. Moreover, the study highlights learner voices in research on materials use.

Likewise, Opoku-Amankwa (2010) studied textbook use in a primary school in Ghana through classroom observations, interviews, and focus group interviews. The researcher found mismatches between policy and actual use. Although the school had been provided with books for each student, teachers had two or three learners using one book in actual lessons. In addition, none of the learners were allowed to take books home. Opoku-Amankwa identified three factors as responsible for the discrepancy between policy and use: teacher's understanding of policy, class size, and seating arrangement. The study showed that policymakers had failed to understand the realities of the classroom. In the conclusion, Opoku-Amakwa stated that the study reinforced the value of qualitative methods as an approach to research in materials use.

While moving into the classroom to study the use of materials is a relatively new line of research, a growing number of researchers working in this area have embraced an ecological approach (van Lier

2000, 2004) to explore the dynamics of materials use in what Tudor (2001) calls the notoriously complex place of the language classroom. Before addressing such studies, I first discuss foundational literature on the classroom ecology because the present study also takes an ecological approach to research.

3.9 An ecological approach to materials research

The current study explores the relationship of video materials to classroom use with particular regard to interaction between participants through an ecological approach. I explore classroom events to understand the rich dynamics and complex interactions in the activities of language classrooms. As such, drawing on views from an ecological approach is a good fit for the goals of this study for reasons which become clear through a discussion of van Lier's (2000, 2004, 2010) approach to classroom ecology.

The notion of classroom ecology has its roots in psychology (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Gibson, 2014; Neisser, 1993). Such views hold that relationships between the self and the environment interact for the experience of perception and learning to occur. As a metaphor, Bronfenbrenner (1979) considers the environment to be a series of 'nested structures, each inside the next, like a set of Russian dolls' (p. 3) with a setting that positions a human being at the center. In this view, human development is believed to occur through complex relationships between the various layers.

Gibson's (2014) approach to visual perception is the ecological theory that has arguably had the biggest impact on research of the use of materials in language teaching in particular, and in the fields of language education and SLA more generally. Whereas cognitive psychology and cognitive theories of SLA hold perception, and therefore learning, as strictly limited to occurrences in the mind/brain of an individual, Gibson's (2014) view differs in that he theorizes visual perception as direct perception of the environment. Because Gibson argues the environment can be directly perceived by an animal, his ontological stance creates a separation between the mind and environment in terms of learning. As such, Gibson's view holds that learning takes place as a relationship between an individual and/or individuals with the environment, i.e., learning has a social component. In order to explain the way in which the social component functions, Gibson (2014) coined the term *affordances*, which he defined

as 'what [the environment] *offers* the animal, what it *provides* or *furnishes,* either for good or ill.' (p. 119, italics in original).

van Lier (2000) introduced the notion of affordances to the field of applied linguistics in a book chapter and explained it further in a book-length treatment (van Lier, 2004) on ecological perspectives. van Lier (2000) asserts an ecological perspective has three major assumptions: (1) learning is emergent, (2) learning has social and cognitive components, and (3) perceptions and social activity of learners, with particular regard to verbal and non-verbal interaction, are of central importance to understand learning.

As to the first assumption, van Lier (2004) explains 'emergentism (and emergence) both in the physical and in the social sciences, is that the result of events or activities may be dramatically different from the initial inputs to those events or activities, and may not be reducible to them' (p. 82). van Lier is talking about the notion of cause and effect. Instead of an effect being directly caused by earlier phenomena, the notion of emergence holds that whatever is happening in a given moment has been influenced in some way by phenomena from the past, but not directly caused by those phenomena. Whatever emerges, then, is 'qualitatively different, yet clearly in some way based on, derived from or built up from' (van Lier, 2004, p. 82) past phenomena. In a later discussion, van Lier (2010) asserts that a cause-effect relationship is difficult to isolate due to the numerous variables in classrooms. '[A]ll communicative acts in a learning environment have multiple reasons, causes, and interpretive potential, depending on all the relationships between and among all the participants in the setting, as well as the evolving setting itself' (van Lier, 2010, p. 601). In sum, an ecological view places emphasis on a variety factors that influence learning rather than attribute learning to have a direct cause.

As for the second assumption, van Lier's ecological view accepts that learning occurs through relationships on both the mental and social planes. Researchers adopting either a cognitive perspective or a social one have been debating this notion in SLA circles for several decades. This debate has softened in recent years as the field of SLA has matured and become more tolerant of differences on an epistemological level. Today, due to the multifaceted nature of language teaching and learning, many researchers on either side of the debate see value in a multidisciplinary approach to further the

research agenda in SLA. For example, The Douglas Fir Group (2016) proposes a transdisciplinary approach for research, which synthesizes the cognitive and social approaches through an ecological framework. Similarly, van Lier (2010) argues that the ecology of language learning falls under the more general heading of sociocognitive theories such as sociocultural theory and language socialization. van Lier's ecological view aligns with a transdisciplinary approach. A transdisciplinary approach supports the second assumption of learning as both mental and social. My own view follows that of van Lier's, and I explain my position at length later in Chapter 5.

Finally, van Lier's third assumption focuses attention on interaction between participants as an integral part of the language learning process. This process includes not only the verbal interaction, but also ways in which learners use their bodies through gestures, pointing, posture, and writing. All activity done by participants makes up the whole of the process. In addition, the views and beliefs of the participants become a further part of understanding the classroom ecology.

These three assumptions of van Lier's ecological approach lay the groundwork for an approach to research in materials use. Ecology 'is not a finished system or theory, nor is it a method of teaching' (van Lier, 2004, p. 224). Such an approach rejects the dichotomy between use and learning as posited by earlier theories of learning (van Lier, 2004). van Lier (2011) provides ten principles as a foundation for a research agenda based in the classroom ecology: relations, context, patterns/systems, emergence, quality, value, critical perspective, variation, diversity, and agency. Furthermore, this ecological approach brings Gibson's construct of affordances to language education.

van Lier (2004) explained that affordances are not in the environment per se but are relationships between individuals and the environment. Morgan and Martin (2014) further emphasize that affordances are not properties of the environment at all but are relations. Similarly, in the field of ecological psychology, Chemero (2011) calls affordances 'relationships between animals and features of the environment' (p. 141). According to van Lier (2004, 2010), in the language learning context, these relationships become apparent through active participation by learners with each other and with what is in the classroom environment. 'In terms of language learning, affordances arise out of participation and use, and learning opportunities arise as a consequence of participation and use' (van Lier, 2004, p. 92). As such, social activity and learner awareness give rise to affordances in language

classrooms, which can lead to language learning (Thoms, 2014). Thus, for research into materials use, affordances are a useful construct because they are based on interaction with the environment.

Because research into materials use in the classroom is a relatively new area, what begins to become clear is the diversity of topics available for research. One thing the aforementioned early studies on materials use show (i.e., Canagarajah, 1993; Yakhontiva, 2001) is that classroom research benefits by being conducted from a holistic perspective. Such a perspective includes interaction between learners, teachers, and the materials; and considers as much of the educational context as possible to make sense of the various relationships surrounding use. Ecological approaches underpin much of the latest research on materials use, as shown below.

3.10   Classroom studies on materials use

In a seminal study on materials use, Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) were amongst the first to research classroom interaction in relation to textbook use. Through transcription of classroom recordings, classroom observations, teacher interviews, student focus groups, field notes from the classroom observations, and classroom artifacts such as textbooks; the researchers conducted one of the most comprehensive studies on materials use to date. Qualitative analysis for the exploratory study was based on classroom ecology (van Lier, 2004) in order to gain insight to materials from a holistic viewpoint. In addition to exploring how materials are used in classrooms, Guerrettaz and Johnston (ibid.) were interested in the nature of the interrelationships between materials and use. In analysis, participant interaction was categorized as being either directly or indirectly related to the materials through lexical or topical links.

In their results, Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) explained that three emergent relationships play a central role in the classroom ecology: *materials as curriculum, materials and classroom discourse,* and *materials and language learning*. First, materials as curriculum refers to how the materials dictate and control the direction of interaction in lessons, for example, teachers delivering lessons with adherence to sequences found within materials with regard to lesson plans, quizzes and tests. Second, materials and classroom discourse is the relationship between the materials and classroom interaction. The researchers suggested three dimensions of classroom interaction that were influenced by the

materials: topic, type, and organization of the discourse. Lastly, materials and language learning refers to the process of interaction when opportunities for language learning arose in not only intentional but also unexpected ways in relation to the material. With regard to this last relationship, Guerrettaz and Johnston (ibid.) point out that complex interaction between the learners and the materials is a crucial part of their data and occurs 'when connections can be made between the content of the materials and the students' lives' (p. 791).

Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) argued 'materials offer emergent language learning affordances as the processes and activities of the classroom unfold' (p. 792). Furthermore, the researchers concluded that: (1) the role of materials is a highly significant one with influence over classroom life, (2) there is an incongruity between intended and unintended affordances in the textbook, and (3) the role the book played on interaction varied widely.

After the publication of their results in *The Modern Language Journal*, no less than six articles were penned in response (i.e., Blyth, 2014; Brown, 2014; Garton & Graves, 2014a; Larsen-Freeman, 2014; Morgan and Martin, 2014; Tarone, 2014) showing serious support for this line of research on materials use. In one of these responses, Morgan and Martin (2014) questioned the use of the term 'affordances' by Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013). Morgan and Martin (2014) clarified affordances to be more a part of the process of learning that is not 'provided' by materials. Rather, affordances are always present in materials but go unrecognized until a time of need arises. While affordances play a role in ecological approaches to language learning, there remains a need for further clarification in applied linguistics research.

To operationalize classroom affordances, Thoms (2014) examined teacher reformulations in Spanish literature classes taught in Spanish at an American university. Audio recordings of whole-group interactions were analyzed in relation to the referencing of materials such as essays and films that had been assigned as homework. Working in a grounded way, Thoms found three types of affordances related to teacher reformulations he calls *access-creating, funneling, and content-enhancing*. Access-creating is when the teacher reformed learner speech not as a form of feedback but as a way for other learners in the class to understand what the student-speaker said. So, teacher reformulations served the other members of the class who were listening to the interaction between the

teacher and a particular student. In this way, responses from the participants became materials in a way similar to what Keddie (2014) called implicit texts as explained earlier. In funneling, the teacher reformulated her own speech in front of the class so as to make herself better understood. Funneling was done in response to the teacher perception that something she told the class was not understood, as in instances when she asked a question to the whole group that produced no learner responses. In such cases there was a need to simplify her own language so learners could respond.

Content-enhancing began when a learner's utterance had a lexical or grammatical problem to which the teacher corrected while at the same time attending to the content of a student's message. Thoms (2014) argued that this affordance was not corrective feedback in an SLA sense but 'moments in the whole-class discussion when the instructor resolves a student's linguistic issues with the clear intention of acknowledging or enhancing the content of what the student is saying by giving voice to it' (p. 737). Through content-enhancing, teachers mediate both learner language and content, and Thoms concluded that good teaching practice includes creating an environment in a classroom rich in affordances by managing, monitoring, and facilitating learner contributions to whole class interaction. As such, Thoms (ibid.) views learner and teacher responses in activities as materials and materials use.

Another innovative study on materials use is Jakonen's (2015) work on ways in which materials are handled by learners of English in Finland. The study explored how the handling of documents affected actions of learners in a Content and Language and Integrated Learning (CLIL) classroom with a group of 14- and 15-year-olds. CLIL aims to provide subject knowledge in the language being studied. In the study, students learned history in English. The researcher looked at instances of requests for information or assistance by students, and the relationship between these requests and documents such as handouts, textbooks, and physical objects. Jakonen (2015) found that materials serve not only as the location for information, but also play a role in construction of interaction in classrooms. He argued that materials 'construct the interactional role of a student as someone who engages in [the] activities' (p. 111).

Since Guerrettaz and Johnston's (2013) landmark study, further research has been published on the use of materials in classrooms (e.g., Bosompem, 2014; Garton & Graves, 2014b; Humphries, 2014; Jakonen, 2015; Miguel, 2015; Seferaj, 2014; Thoms, 2014). Responding to the lack of research

on materials use, Garton and Graves' (2014b) edited volume includes a number of studies that address the subject. In a qualitative study on textbook use in the Japanese context, Humphries (2014) found that teachers continued to teach using the traditional *yakudoku* teaching approach [detailed in section 2.2] despite the introduction by the school of a new textbook that focused on speaking and listening for their high school classes. Teachers in the study pointed to a number of factors for not following the new textbook such as limited training in teaching with communicative approaches, passive behavior by students, and unsuitability of the materials. Humphries (ibid.) suggested that curricular change could be affected through policymaking that considered suitable working conditions at schools and use of appropriate materials for the local context. Furthermore, teachers could receive training in areas such as methodology, textbook selection, and strategies for developing student motivation.

In an insightful case study, Seferaj (2014) studied materials use by a teacher of 14-year-old students in Albanian secondary schools and explored factors related to the use of communicative texts in teaching practice. Findings revealed challenges of implementing communicative-based texts and teaching approaches in a context where traditional instruction mainly relied on grammar activities and translation drills similar to the Japanese context. The experienced teacher criticized communicative activities such as pair work as unfeasible in light of the national exam system, where focus rests on grammar. As such, the teacher adapted pair work activities to have learners write their answers to the activity as prep time or abandoned pair work entirely in favor of engaging learners with controlled teacher-student interactions to attend to accuracy.

Seferaj (2014) concluded that local experts are in a stronger position to develop more appropriate communicative activities in a given context 'rather than impose models of communicative teaching' (p. 101). Furthermore, Seferaj (ibid.) advocated better communication between colleagues to discuss practice and that observations of language lessons by teachers may lead to professional development. The study highlighted how research in materials use can lead to implications for materials writers, teaching practice, and teacher training. In addition, the study showed how teachers adapt materials. Adapting materials is another area in the literature considered as materials use that has received attention by researchers.

3.11   Adapting as use of materials

In researching use of materials, the present study addresses adaptation. Prior work on adapting lessons has largely focused on ways teachers adapt materials in classrooms (McGrath 2002, 2013; Harwood 2010; Shawer, 2010; Tomlinson 2011; McDonough et al., 2013; Miguel, 2015). Tomlinson (2011) describes adaptation as 'making changes to materials in order to improve them or make them more suitable for a particular type of learner' (p. xiv). McGrath (2013) explains that a consensus in the field is that adaptation is when teachers omit, add, or change something in the materials. Furthermore, extemporization is proposed as a sub-form of adding and defined as 'a spontaneous response on the part of the teacher to a problem or an opportunity' (McGrath, 2002, p. 64). Maley (2011) includes reduction and branching, both of which suggest different ways to use the materials. Adaptations to lesson materials are usually in response to '[. . .] what the materials contain, measured against the requirements of a particular teaching environment' (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 69) so that the changes to materials are more appropriate for a given teaching situation. As such, adaptation links materials to evaluation (Saraceni, 2003; McDonough et al., 2013). As for purposes of adaptation, McGrath (2002, 2013) writes that the aim is twofold: (1) to create a more suitable match with the circumstances of use, and (2) in answer to ways in which the material may be inadequate.

McDonough et al. (2013) offer a framework for adaptation that includes classroom techniques of adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying, and reordering. Table 3.1 has a list of these techniques with accompanying definitions.

Table 3.1 Techniques of adaptation. Adapted from McDonough et al., 2013, pp. 70–76.

Technique	Definition
Adding	Putting more into the materials by extending or expanding
Deleting	Taking out whole or parts of sections of the material
Modifying	An internal change in the approach or focus of an exercise or piece of material done by rewriting or restructuring
Simplifying	Related to modifying, making elements of materials easier to understand
Reordering	Putting parts of the course book into different order

Of note in such definitions is a difference in terms used by different writers for similar techniques. McDonough et al. (2013) suggest that adding has two sub-categories of extending and expanding.

Extending is to add more of what is already found in the materials. Expanding is developing the materials in new directions. This notion of expanding is similar to McGrath's (2002, 2013) sub-category of exploitation, which is defined as 'creative use of what is already there' (McGrath, 2002, p. 65). Writers on adaptation acknowledge discrepancies as minor differences in terminology for similar actions of adaptation (McDonough et al. 2013). These sub-categories of adding have a role in the analysis chapters of this thesis.

Reasons for adapting materials are numerous, and researchers provide detailed lists (e.g., Cunningsworth, 1995; Islam & Mares, 2003; McDonough et al., 2013) that include: personalities of learners (Cunningsworth, 1995), not enough grammar instruction (McDonough et al., 2013), and unsuitable topics of lessons (Islam & Mares, 2003). Taken together, these scholars point to ways in which teachers desire to solve problems perceived with the materials and classroom use by learners, i.e., the needs of the learner in relation to what the materials provide.

McDonough et al. (2013) provide objectives for adaptation and suggest that teachers adapt due to needs to personalize, individualize or localize materials.

1. Personalize – to increase the relevance of content relative to learner interests and needs.
2. Individualize – address learning styles of individuals and members of the class working together.
3. Localize – account for the international geography of ELT and understand that what may work in one place may fail in another.

Similarly, McGrath (2013) points to principles of adaptation, which are used to justify adaptation techniques. In addition to personalize, individualize and localize as above, McGrath (ibid.) also offers:

1. Modernization – to insure language is up-to-date with contemporary use.
2. Humanizing – to empower learners to draw connections between the materials with what is in their minds (Tomlinson, 2003).
3. Simplification/complexification/differentiation – to make materials either easier or more complicated to account for individual differences in proficiency level or learning styles
4. Variety – to create diversity of lessons throughout the book by not consistently doing activities that repeat.

Saraceni (2003) makes a case for the inclusion of learners as a part of the process of adapting. She suggests a model for adapting courses that are learner-centered, flexible, open-ended, relevant, universal, and authentic from learners' perspectives. Likewise, Islam and Mares (2003) aim to shift

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views of adaptation from teachers to learners. Islam and Mares (ibid.) build on the generally accepted objectives of personalization, individualization, and localization to include: choice, an account for sensory learning styles, learner autonomy, encouragement of higher-level cognitive skills, and more accessible and engaging language input. Though Saraceni (ibid.) and Islam and Mares (ibid.) both offer some real examples of classroom activity, these suggestions for learner adaptation mainly rely on existing theoretical literature and intuition, which suggests a need for research into adaptation. All of the above techniques, objectives and principles offer a theoretical basis for adaptation by teachers and learners. As such, these constructs can be used to support research of materials use in classrooms.

3.12   Research on adaptation as use of materials

Adaptation is the area of materials use that has received the most research attention (e.g., Shawer, 2010; Bosompem, 2014; Humphries, 2014; Igielski, 2014; Nuangpolmak, 2014; Seferaj, 2014; Thoms, 2014; Miguel, 2015). In a grounded study, Shawer (2010) identified categories for teachers based on the ways in which teaching strategies and materials use unfolded in classrooms. Shawer (ibid.) found that teachers in the study fit three categories: *curriculum-developers, curriculum-makers* and *curriculum-transmitters*. Curriculum-developers used macro-strategies (e.g., curriculum adaptation, experimentation, and addition) and micro-strategies (e.g., textbook cherry picking, flexible ordering, and lesson adaptation). Curriculum-makers relied on needs assessment to create curriculum topics and develop teaching strategies. In addition, these teachers adopted multiple sources of input and strategies without the textbook. Curriculum-transmitters followed a transfer approach to teaching by following the textbook material in a page-by-page or unit-by-unit manner with little or no adaptation. By following the textbook closely, these teachers managed the classroom materials in a way similar to what Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) called materials as curriculum.

Nuangpolmak (2014) details a personal case study of how textbooks can be adapted to meet differentiated needs of learners. Because learners in one writing course in Thailand had mixed proficiency levels, Nuangpolmak (ibid.) used a multilevel task approach to design three sets of class materials at three levels of proficiency based on the same writing task found in the course book. Learners were asked to choose the level they felt most comfortable with for each writing assignment

throughout the semester in an effort to nurture learner autonomy. Different levels could be chosen for different assignments. Rather than focus adaptation on ways teachers teach, Nuangpolmak (ibid.) suggested that emphasis should rest on ways in which learners learn.

Similarly, Igielski (2014) adapted materials to address the diverse cultural, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds of her students, many of whom were from immigrant families in the United States. Igielski (ibid.) compared the use of industry-standard textbooks to self-designed materials. The self-designed materials addressed personal backgrounds of learners to make these materials relevant to the learners' lives. Through a series of classroom activities, she found learners more responsive to lessons with the new materials. Igielski (ibid.) argued for materials that 'engage students in language-rich, culturally aware, and personally validating educational experiences' as a means to better academic success, stronger emotional ties to learning, and increased social understanding (p. 155). Results from both Nuangpolmak (2014) and Igielski (2014) demonstrate ways in which teachers find success by adapting materials based on personalized and localized needs: proficiency levels in the former, and diverse cultural backgrounds in the latter.

Several studies have applied the McDonough et al. (2013) techniques for adaptation as shown in Table 3.1 to materials use research. Bosompem (2014) studied use of course-book materials by 12 teachers in Ghana through open-ended questionnaires and interviews. Teachers reported widespread use of adaptation in their classrooms to address deficiencies in textbooks, respond to learner needs, stimulate student participation, assess learners, and spark creativity. In addition, some inexperienced teachers reported reluctance to adapt for fear of a lack of permission. However, it was found that these teachers had been adapting without realizing it. This lack of awareness of what is meant to adapt lessons led Bosompem (ibid.) to suggest more explicit teaching of adaptation in training programs.

Miguel (2015) applied the McDonough et al. (2013) framework to ways in which teachers adapted materials in an L2 Spanish classroom. Through classroom observations, Miguel found frequent adaptations to the materials by teachers and that deleting accounted for the most frequent type of adapting in the data set. Reasons for deletions were reported by teachers as mainly being due to time constraints caused by a need to prepare learners for frequent exams. Interestingly, the sections most often deleted were video activities, showing that videos take up valuable class time and may be one of

the first things deleted when faced with a tight exam schedule. Furthermore, Miguel applied Shawer's (2010) categories for teachers to her data and found that the roles of the teachers can shift between categories. Sometimes teachers acted as curriculum-transmitters, while at other times teachers acted as curriculum developers. This finding contrasted with Shawer (ibid.), where the teacher categories were reported to be mutually exclusive. In sum, studies on adaptation focus on classroom adapting by teachers and represent ways materials use occurs in the classroom.

To summarize this section on materials and materials use, the research on materials use in classrooms is still in a nascent stage. The two major lines of classroom research in materials use are: (1) classroom ecology, and (2) adaptation. These studies are often approached from grounded and/or data-driven approaches. In both lines, research is informed and supported by literature on teaching materials.

3.13   Summary of video and materials

This chapter synthesizes literature on videos for language teaching with that of materials and materials use in classroom instruction to position this thesis as a study into use of video materials in language classrooms. The literature illustrates a gap with regard to use of video materials during classroom interaction. Previous research into video for language teaching has largely focused on either the content of the videos or on quantitative data. Deeper knowledge of classroom interaction in video-based activities is of prime importance in order to understand the impact of the use of video materials on the language learning process.

Researchers in the burgeoning area of materials use have turned to investigate classrooms in an ecological way, which posits that process is inseparable from learning. An ecological approach offers a view to explore relationships between participants and materials in areas crucial to understanding materials use such as topic, type, and organization of discourse. Furthermore, the notion of affordances offers an insightful way to understand use because they are relationships between participants and the environment. For these reasons, I take an ecological approach to research in this study [details in Chapter 5].

Found throughout the literature on video materials is a view that holds the classroom use of such materials as beneficial for language learners. In particular, the skill of foreign language speaking is one of the major areas where video is believed to impact language education, and the literature contains recommendations for activities that rely on themes from the video materials as a base to elicit topics of discussions in language-learning classrooms. I use concepts from this literature to learn whether or not these benefits occur in the classroom through active viewing and authentic video. Moreover, literature on video materials helps to frame the video-based materials and activities used in the present study within the field [details in Chapter 4].

Other concepts from the literature are used in this study for analysis. I apply the McDonough et al. (2013) framework for adaptation techniques to data analysis for two main reasons. First, in doing so, I rely on literature from materials development and methods in ELT to inform research on materials use. Literature from the more mature field of materials development can support research on materials use. Furthermore, research on classroom use should be able to support materials development in a symbiotic way. Second, other researchers have applied the framework in analysis of materials use and have gotten fruitful results (e.g., Bosompem, 2014; Miguel, 2015). In addition, objectives of adaptation found in McDonough et al. (2013) and McGrath (2013) are applied to data analysis.

All of the components reviewed in this chapter combine to indicate value and create space for a study on ways learners and teachers use video as it relates to participant interaction in Japanese university classrooms. In the next chapter, I give a detailed account of the participants and materials involved in the present study.

CHAPTER 4:   Participants and Materials

4.1 Introduction

Because the focus of the present study is on the ways in which the video-based materials are used, in this chapter I explain details about the participants and materials. All participants bring with them perspectives which most likely affect ways that classroom interaction unfolds in the lessons under observation. Furthermore, these perspectives would also likely affect data generated from the additional data collection methods [detailed in Chapter 5]. The chapter begins with a description of the institutional setting where the participants study and teach, followed by ethical considerations for research related to the institutions and the participants. I then provide demographic information about the participants before describing the textbook materials in detail. Due to the interpretative nature of the qualitative research methods adopted in this thesis [detailed in Chapter 5], I conclude the chapter by addressing my researcher biases through reflexivity.

4.2 The institutional setting

This study took place at a large private university in central Japan. Because a high percentage of universities in Japan are private [detailed in section 2.6], results are likely to have relevance for the majority of university learners in Japan. This campus is typical of private universities in that it is considered a mid- to low-tier school in the country. All learners enter the university as members of the College of International Relations. The college has two departments: The Department of International Studies, and The Department of International Liberal Arts. Learners from both departments major in International Relations though the curriculum is somewhat different for members of each department. While majors in English are not offered by the university, foreign language teaching plays an important role in the curriculum. Freshmen are required to take foreign language classes regardless of membership in either department. Although English is by far the most popular language course to take, other languages such as French, German, Spanish, Chinese, and Korean may be selected instead.

At the time of data collection, eight English courses were on offer at the university. Four of these courses comprised the language course requirements for freshmen. Of these required freshmen English

courses, two focused on speaking and listening, and the other two on reading and writing. The remaining four English courses could be taken as electives after the freshmen year. Broadly speaking, the courses had a communicative-based orientation. The elective courses were divided in a similar way with a focus on speaking and listening, reading and writing, or discussion and presentation. The syllabus for each course suggested that teachers follow units in the required textbook, and the use of supplemental materials was encouraged, so teachers were given autonomy over the teaching of lesson content. Each course met for two 90-minute lessons a week for a 15-week semester.

4.3 Entry to the field

For any research project it is necessary for the researcher to enter the field in an ethical way to recruit participants. In order to follow a principled process of research, two preliminary procedures were conducted prior to entering the field to collect data. The first procedure was in regard to ethical concerns for conducting research involving human subjects. The second was the recruiting of participants within the boundaries of the case [details in section 5.4]. The following sections detail these preliminary steps.

4.4 Research ethics

On December 14, 2010, Aston University's Language and Social Science Ethics Committee granted approval for this research project. Next, institutional approval was obtained from the university where this study took place. As is usual in Japan, the university had a lenient policy toward classroom research. The main criteria for conducting classroom research at this university were detailed by a policy containing three major stipulations: (1) the identities of the students had to remain anonymous, (2) the name of the university could not be revealed, and (3) permission must be granted voluntarily from the teacher. As part of the matriculation process at the university, all students had signed an *a priori* consent form agreeing that any research conducted in classrooms is acceptable. It is uncommon practice in Japan to have students sign a consent form (Kikuchi and Browne, 2009).

However, as a means of further ensuring compliance with ethical protocols on an international scale, I provided each student participant with a bilingual (Japanese and English) consent form for the

present study before any data were collected [Appendix A]. In addition, I met with all the student

participants to explain in Japanese that I would not only abide by all of the institutional criteria listed

above but also hold myself to a higher standard of ethical conduct. As such, I made it clear to all

participants that: (1) participation was voluntary, (2) all participants had the right to drop out of the

study at any time without the need to give a reason, (3) none of the data collection methods would

interfere with class time, and (4) no part of the participation had any bearing on students' grades for

the course. All learners and teachers voluntarily signed the consent forms [Appendices A & B].

4.5 Learner participants

A total of 214 Japanese learners in 12 classes participated in this study, of which 56% were

freshmen and 44% sophomores. The average age of the learners was 19 years and five months.

Females represented 51% of the population. A total of 81% of the learners had never been outside of

Japan, and of those few who had been abroad, just 16% had stayed for more than a year. The learner

groups were chosen through purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2008), in which participants are selected

based on a set of specific characteristics. In this case, classes were identified on the basis of the

syllabus content and course materials that had a focus on oral communication skills. Because the aim

of this study is to learn about the use of video materials in classroom interaction, all learner

participants were selected based on enrollment in either the speaking and listening courses for

freshmen, or the electives that focused on speaking and listening or discussion and presentation.

Because I worked as a limited-term, part-time lecturer at the university where data were collected, I

could easily recruit both student and teacher participants and be on campus to observe lessons. As

such, this study is considered to have a sample of convenience (Brown, 2004; Dörnyei, 2007).

According to results from the A.C.E. test, a placement exam administered by the university and

taken by the learners in December 2012, the learner participants' English level is approximately A2 on

the Central European Framework of Reference (CEFR). However, researchers have questioned the use

of the CEFR for the Japanese context (Negishi, 2012). Negishi, Takada, and Tono (2013) reported that

96% of secondary school students scored as A2 or lower (A1 = 85% and A2 = 13%) for speaking

proficiency. From these results, Negishi, Takada, and Tono (2013) concluded that '[t]he EFL

population in Japan can be assumed to be heavily skewed towards lower levels' (p. 142). As such, the learners in this study most likely approximate the level at the border of high A1 and low A2 in speaking proficiency. Thus, this study focuses on learners with low-proficiency levels of speaking. Findings are therefore based on a sample population at the proficiency level most relevant to the Japanese population.

4.6 Teacher participants

In total, eight teachers agreed to participate. Recruitment began for teacher participants in May 2012. As mentioned above, all teacher participants had to be teaching courses where oral communication was a part of the syllabus. As a part of the teacher recruitment process and to initiate procedures of informed consent (Duff, 2008; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014), I met privately with teachers to introduce them to the study. Teachers of the freshmen were asked if they would be willing to use video materials in class and have students work in pairs to do speaking activities found in the materials. When a teacher demonstrated an interest in participating, I followed up the initial meetings with an email that included an attached package containing an explanation of the data collection methods [detailed in Chapter 5]. All correspondence with the potential participants was done in private through email, phone calls, and one-on-one meetings because this study took place on one campus where many of the teacher participants knew each other. Given such relationships, there was no way of knowing what kind of effects that participation might have for any number of reasons. While I could exert no control over teachers speaking to each other about participation, in order to comply with ethical standards, I worked to maintain the anonymity and privacy of the teachers from the earliest part of the recruitment process.

After volunteers had agreed to participate, I held hour-long orientation sessions with each teacher to review the course materials, explain how to use the audio equipment to record classroom interaction, and finalize the procedures of informed consent. Restrictions were not put on the style of teaching, and the participants were encouraged to teach the lesson material in their own way. Teachers were asked to assign the speaking sections of the units as a classroom activity because peer interaction was an area of focus in this study.

During these orientation sessions, several teachers voiced reservations about the data collection process because most had never before participated in a classroom research project and had no experience with audio recorders in their classrooms. These teachers' chief concerns surrounded the use of the audio recorders. Specifically, teachers expressed uneasiness about having the recorders placed in front of the students during pair work. I gave the teachers the opportunity to withdraw from the study, made it clear that participation was completely voluntary, and that teachers could withdraw at any point. Then, I explained that students usually get used to being recorded after one or two times and that provisions were built into the study design to account for such concerns where recordings would be made over the course of the semester to allow students to become familiar with the process. As mentioned earlier, learners were also provided with the right to refuse being recorded.

Table 4.1 Biographical data on teacher participants

Teacher	Education	Subject	Teaching Experience & Status	Nationality & Gender	TESOL Training
Miho	M.A.	Educational technology & TESOL	13 years Part-time	Japanese female	Yes
Roger	M.A.	Education	21 years Part-time	American male	No
Becky	M.A.	TESOL	2 years Part-time	American & Filipino female	Yes
Black	M.A.	Philosophy	5 years Part-time	British male	No
Kengo	M.A.	TESOL	15 years Full-time	Japanese male	Yes
Mike	M.A.	Educational counseling	13 years Part-time	Australian male	Yes
Starflower	M.A.	TESOL	30 years Part-time	Australian male	Yes
Yuta	M.A.	English literature	9 years Full-time	Japanese male	No

Note: All names are pseudonyms. Status means the status of current employment at the university during the data collection period.

All teachers in the study were my co-workers, which can be advantageous in case studies because consent can be easier to obtain and extended observation time may ensue (Duff, 2008). Table 4.1 contains biographical details of these teacher participants, with all teachers being identified by

pseudonyms. Two teachers exercised their option to self-select their own pseudonyms (Starflower and Mr. Black) while other teachers were comfortable with assigned names.

These biographical attributes in Table 4.1 demonstrate a rich diversity in the backgrounds of the teacher participants. The eight teachers (six males and two females) represent five nationalities; a variety of age groups including those in their twenties, thirties, forties and fifties; and include long-term foreign residents, native Japanese, and teachers new to living in Japan. Each of the teachers has a Master's degree (M.A.), and six have formal training in TESOL. The demographics of the teacher participants formulate a well-balanced group indicative of the characteristics of instructors found teaching at Japanese universities today. For classroom materials, each teacher taught video-based lessons using one of two textbooks described below.

4.7 Description of textbooks

Teachers used one of two textbooks for the video-based lessons. Both textbooks rely on video as a part of a unit and contain activities aimed to develop the skill of speaking. Grandon (2014) found that Japanese students self-reported positive attitudes toward videos for learning English and were open to studying English from a variety of video genres. Video materials from one textbook contained television newscasts while the other textbook used music videos. Thus, materials from two genres of video were selected for the classrooms, making this study a multiple case study [details in Chapter 5], a research strategy believed to produce strong findings (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). Each of these course books and video materials are discussed in the following sections.

4.7.1   Textbook one: *ABC World News 14*

ABC World News 14 (*ABC*) is a video-based textbook that includes a DVD containing clips from American television news. One reason for using *ABC* is that news programs remain a popular genre for university EFL instruction in Japan with many domestic publishers offering titles such as *What's on Japan 8 NHK English News Stories,* and *BBC Seeing the World through the News 10*. New editions of these books are updated on a regular basis with current news stories, and a version of *ABC World News* has been in print for 25 years making this book one of the longest running news-based

texts in Japan (Yamane & Yamane, 2014). A second reason is that news-based textbooks had been in use at the university where this study took place for a number of years. Thirdly, the professional literature often points to newscasts as materials for the language classroom. For example, Sherman (2003) recommends newscasts for language teaching due to ease of accessibility, authenticity of language, and motivation provided to learners. A fourth reason comes from my own research where approximately half of the learners from campuses of three other universities reported an interest in using television news clips to learn English (Grandon, 2014). Finally, a fifth reason is because *ABC* is the required text for the second-year students.

Video-based textbooks often follow a three-segment pattern of pre-video, during-video, and post-video activities [section 3.3]. The units of *ABC* lessons followed this three-segment pattern [example displayed in Appendix C]. Each lesson began with pre-video activities that were almost always consistent from unit to unit. The pre-video activities in *ABC* had three major sections: *Preview questions*, *Vocabulary check* (a matching exercise), and *Fill in the blank* (a cloze exercise related to the vocabulary-check exercise). These pre-video segments all had links to the video material. *Preview questions* were always accompanied by a Japanese translation and a monochrome screen shot from the video for the unit. Both *Vocabulary check* and *Fill in the blanks* appeared under the heading of *Warm-up exercises* and used lexical items that came directly from the transcripts of the video newscasts for a particular unit. The cloze activity uses the *Vocabulary check* words as the fill-in answers.

Video playback for *ABC* was a part of the *News Story* section. In this section of each unit, there were no instructions on how many times to play the video or even exactly what to do. Likewise, neither the notes in the front of the book nor the teacher instruction booklet had any details about playing the video. While it is fairly evident that the video should be played at this point in the lesson, assumptions may lead to a lack of clarity for how to use the materials. The *News Story* section has a transcript of the video, and certain areas of the transcript are blank, so the section appears as a cloze activity. The assumption, at least for part of the activity, is that learners should watch the video and fill in the appropriate answers. When I explained the lessons to the teachers in their orientation sessions before the semester began, I suggested the video be played as often as teachers felt necessary.

The videos were authentic news broadcasts from the American television news program *ABC World News* that came on a DVD included with the book. On average, each news report for a particular lesson was 2:05 in duration, with the longest run time at 3:20 and the shortest at 1:45. No captions or subtitles were included on the DVD. The post-video section, *After you watch the DVD*, has five exercises. Exercise A is a cloze activity based on the video transcript meant to be completed while listening to a separate audio CD that had an exact copy of the audio from the DVD. Exercise B has multiple-choice questions about the video. Exercise C is a translation activity. Exercise D is another cloze activity, and finally Exercise E is a discussion practice. Teachers could request an answer booklet that includes not only the answers to the activities, but also a Japanese translation of the newscast transcript. Recommended procedures for the lessons appear in Appendix D.

4.7.2 Textbook two: *Digital Video Day*

Digital Video Day (DVDay) is a textbook I authored that uses video as a base for speaking instruction. Leading up to the time of data collection, the textbook was being used at three other universities in Japan but not at the university where this study was conducted. *DVDay* lessons follow a communicative approach and place an emphasis on open-ended speaking activities. The major sections rely on list-generating activities as preparation for speaking [example chapter in Appendix E]. *DVDay* materials were brought into the speaking lessons as supplemental material for the freshmen courses.

In this study, the research focus is on the video-based activities in the book. *DVDay* does not have a pre-video section with cloze activities like the *ABC* textbook. Instead, the video activities begin with video playback followed by three post-video activities: *post-video brainstorming* (PVBS), *whole-group brainstorming* (WGBS), and the *final speaking activity* (FSA). In PVBS, learners work in pairs (or in rare cases in groups of three) to create lists based on some aspect of what is in the video material. Once these lists are created, the teacher calls the learners back to the whole group in WGBS to elicit 'answers' in the form of the list items that learners produce in their lists, and then the teacher writes these responses on the board. Finally, the learners go back into their groups for the FSA, where learners are directed to speak together using the video material as a stimulus for discussion. The time

given for discussion begins at four minutes and gradually increases by a minute each lesson for the next seven units. Appendices F and G display the suggested procedures for the lessons given to teachers and the procedures for the video portion of the lessons, respectively.

DVDay videos are structured in an unconventional way. As mentioned earlier, most of the soundtracks consist of instrumental music. Thus, the video components include no English listening requirements, i.e., they are music videos. These music videos are non-linear, imagery-driven montages displaying a documentary-like depiction of place with elements of local culture from countries around the world such as the USA, Greece, and Canada. The videos are reminiscent of picture-description material found in textbooks and high-stakes speaking tests except with the inclusion of music and motion. Students receive visual input via music videos, then attempt to find their own way to communicate about the imagery with a preparatory step of list generation. Created before the writing of the textbook as video art, the video content lies at the foundation of the *DVDay* materials and is regarded as authentic material where the impetus for production contrasts with material designed specifically for educational purposes (van Lier, 1996; Gilmore, 2007). Influence on the design for these videos arose from a number of areas including travel diaries and short segments on world culture broadcast on NHK television in Japan. A number of the *DVDay* videos have been broadcast on cable television in the United States and have won awards in video contests, indicating a professional standard.

The average duration for *DVDay* videos is 6:16. However, the first two videos are not used for the final speaking activity and are longer in length. Instead, these first two videos are followed only by post-video brainstorming for the first two weeks as the learners become accustomed to using the audio recorders, viewing the music videos, and doing the PVBS activity. The average duration of videos used for the final speaking activity is 5:46, with the longest being 7:09 and the shortest 3:57 in length.

Although I had written the lesson materials and produced the videos in *DVDay,* for the purposes of the present study, all participants, i.e., both teachers and learners, received completely anonymous versions of the materials. Instead of using the published *DVDay* textbook, all participants received photocopies of the units containing no trace of my name or the original title of the textbook. In

addition, all mentions of my name were removed from all titles and credits in the videos. Copying and distributing the lessons presented no legal issues because I hold the copyright for the work. Teachers and learners were not told the original name of the textbook from where the lessons were copied, rather that the materials were from a published book currently used in the field and that the material had been anonymized for research purposes.

The music videos were referred to by the generic term *wordless-videos* (WV) instead of *DVDay* videos, and the lesson format termed a *wordless video lesson* (WVL) in the event that anyone might recognize the original name of the textbook as one I wrote. Chances of recognition were unlikely because *DVDay* had only reached a limited audience. Furthermore, all information on the Internet linking me to the materials was removed, leaving nothing to trace me to the materials. The rationale for having these materials remain anonymous is that teacher and student participants are able to provide a more critical and unbiased assessment of the activities and materials without the risk offending me. Participants remained unaware of the creator of the materials for the duration of this study.

The two genres of video in each book clearly differ. Wherein the news programs contain English broadcasts, the music videos rely on the language of images and music to present information. Although the video genres differ, to be clear, this study is not about comparing the genres. Rather, the research focuses on the use of each genre by the participants. Using two genres of video adds substance to this study and aligns with conclusions reached in previous research of video material in speaking classes (e.g., Smith, 2005; Herron, York, Corrie, & Cole 2006; Grandon, 2014). These studies recommend that a fruitful direction forward for research of video-based lessons is to study how different types of video are used in practice as opposed to studies comparing the use of video against classrooms without video. In addition, these studies indicate that a qualitative methodological design may be able to yield a deeper understanding of video-based lessons such as the methodology in the present study [detailed in Chapter 5]. In such studies, the researcher is considered as a participant with biases that can be reconciled through reflexivity.

4.8 Researcher reflexivity

Reflexivity is one way that I addressed my biases in this study. Edge (2011) asserts 'reflexivity in qualitative research is concerned with the ongoing, mutually shaping interaction between the researcher and the research' (p. 35). Because data from this study are collected in classrooms using materials I created, I am a stakeholder in the outcomes. For this reason, it is prudent to address my position as researcher and my biases at this stage of the thesis. My position as researcher consists of a variety of roles including those of colleague, TESOL teacher, employee, materials developer, and artist. These roles exert an influence in the construction of the research itself, which 'is accepted as a part of constructivist epistemology' (Charmaz, 2014, p. 238) [detailed in chapter 5]. As a result, my biases have an effect on the research. In this sense, one cannot account for the findings in this study without a consideration of the beliefs and values of the researcher. Thus, I am also viewed as a participant within this study. By reporting on my biases and reflexive thinking, this study becomes more truthful and trustworthy.

I can neither ignore nor escape the biases within this study that simultaneously contain both pros and cons. For example, I could not break free from the fact that I had created the *DVDay* videos and materials. On one hand, this fact fueled my curiosity to learn how video materials are used in both *DVDay* and *ABC* classrooms. I also had a deep familiarity with the content of the *DVDay* materials and how my own students use them in classes, both of which provide potential to add insight from an insider's view. On the other hand, I believe video to be an important part of EFL classrooms, a bias that could interfere with my ability to make sound judgments regarding these lessons. Through journal entries and reflexive memo writing, I found ways to identify and address biases.

Reflexivity helped me function in my role as researcher, i.e., my researcher role, at times, could supersede my role as materials writer, or at the very least, I could see myself as existing in both roles and begin to understand the advantages and disadvantages of both. Upon further reflection, I came to realize that any negative results would have no direct bearing on my ability to create videos because what is being studied is how students are able to use such material for language lessons, not a value

judgment on the quality of the video. Reflexivity helped me to get on with the research process by giving me confidence to conduct research in classes using my materials.

Some of my biases took years before I could recognize them. For example, the entire basis for a study involving group work and peer interaction in EFL classrooms rests on a fundamental belief that group work itself is a valid procedure for language study. Some arguments in applied linguistics (e.g., Holliday, 2005) consider learner-centered activities such as group work a hegemonic practice imposed on other educational contexts by a dominant culture. Through Communicative Language Teaching, teachers from Western countries could be said to impose group work on the educational context of Japan, a country where such practice had not normally been a part of the traditional classroom [detailed in Chapter 2]. Critical debate on group work as a classroom procedure is not new to me. What is new is that such a procedure can be viewed as an ethnocentric practice by circles within the TESOL community where '[t]he apparent liberalism of learner-centeredness conceals the manipulative attempt to improve learner behavior' (Holliday 2006, p. 386).

When I reflect on my view for holding group work as a valid technique for language classes, I think to the student motivation for learning to speak a foreign language. Many learners appear to study a foreign language in order to connect more deeply with a greater number of people who do not share their mother tongue. As a believer in experiential learning, my view of pair work places value on the experience itself, especially in the Japanese context, where the opportunity to encounter English remains rare on a day-to-day basis [detailed in Chapter 2]. In my view, pair work has a place within the classroom to develop speaking not as superior to other forms of instruction, but as part of a holistic learning experience. I have no desire to manipulate behavior. Thus, I view my motivation to investigate pair work as a way to help learners achieve their goals. My basic assumption is that the learners want to learn to speak English, although I recognize that this assumption might not always be the case.

Throughout the data collection period, I consciously attempted not to impose my biases in areas such as interview questions or questionnaire design [details in Chapter 5]. At other times, I could draw on my experiences as a member of the TESOL community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) for

insights that may be more challenging for outsiders to comprehend. Instead of viewing the subjective

perspective of an insider as one to be rejected, this perspective is accepted and considered to support

the robustness of the research.

My emic perspective adds value to this study. For instance, in my own university classes, I taught

the same video lessons as the teacher participants. Having written the material and produced the

videos for *DVDay* results in familiarity with the lessons, yet I continued to teach these lessons in my

own classes to remain close to what occurred with the participants. During the data collection period, I

also taught *ABC World News* lessons, so that I was going through similar processes as the participants

whom I would later observe and interview. Such closeness to the material can foster a deeper

understanding of data produced by teacher and student participants because I could identify with

classroom processes and attitudes from an insider's position.

From this emic perspective, I also recognized the need to create a distance from and strike a

balance between my various roles, so bias would not drive the research. Although I taught all of the

lesson materials involved in this study, none of these data came from my classrooms. Rather, the

classrooms were those of my colleagues. Thus, I could take a step away from using my own materials

in my own classrooms as data.

In the above section, I include the implications of the biases in this study. I made informed

decisions by taking account of my own beliefs while striving to remain aware of how such beliefs

influence me as a researcher through my reflexivity. At the same time, by reporting my beliefs and

reflections, this research study becomes more transparent.

4.9 Summary

In sum, this chapter provided details of the study design in terms of locale, ethics, participants, and

materials. The focus of this study is to learn about the ways in which the participants use the video-

based materials in lessons from two genres of videos: the news-based broadcasts in *ABC* lessons, and

the music videos in *DVDay* lessons. By including two genres of videos, I look at what learners and

teachers do with the video and video-based materials in terms of materials use in each. The research

sites are the classrooms in which these video-based lessons are taught. Furthermore, the ecological

approach adopted includes data from teacher interviews and student questionnaires to understand

materials use. In the next chapter, I explain the methodology used for data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER 5:   Research Methodology

5.1 Overview of methodology

In this chapter, I present rationale and explanations for my research methodology and methods used for data collection and analysis. Because this study focuses on classroom activities, both teachers and learners are observed and audio recorded in language lessons. Furthermore, the teachers are interviewed, and learners are asked to complete questionnaires to learn the ways in which the participants use video materials in class. The well-rounded data set requires a variety of analytical procedures as explained below. The heart of analysis foregrounds the classroom audio recordings and observations while interview and questionnaire data serve a supporting role. Classroom use of the video materials is analyzed in two main ways: (1) through discussion topics in classroom interaction, and (2) by tracking language on an inter-activity basis, both of which are described below. The first section of this chapter addresses the views and philosophical positions on which this study is founded through research paradigms. Next, the discussion moves to detail data collection methods before finally explaining methods of analysis.

5.2 Research paradigms

Research paradigms refer to philosophical beliefs and assumptions regarding the nature of reality, knowledge, and values; or respectively ontology, epistemology, and axiology (Richards, 2003; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Creswell, 2012).   These paradigmatic considerations propel

> '[. . .] us beyond regarding research methods as simply a technical exercise and as concerned with understanding the world; this is informed by how we view our world(s), what we take understanding to be and what we see as the purposes of understanding, and what is deemed valuable' (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 3).

Because philosophical positions underpin research paradigms, one's philosophical view of ontology leads to a particular paradigm. Ontology is a belief formed about the nature of reality (Richards, 2003). A debate central to ontology is based on opposing views of how one sees reality. Broadly speaking, while some researchers view reality as existing outside of the self (the realist

position), others adopt a view (the relativist position) which posits reality as being jointly constructed by individuals with the environment (Richards, 2003). The ontological position I adopt is the relativist position, and I work in the paradigm of social constructivism. Croker (2009) explains social constructivism as a 'belief that there is no universally agreed upon reality or universal "truth"' (p. 6). Instead, 'meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world' (Merriam, 2002, p. 3).

My relativist view forms the foundation for the theoretical constructs on which this study is based. In terms of theoretical perspectives for language learning and teaching, van Lier (2010) refers to cognitive theories as a mentalist position (based on the realist position) and socially orientated theories as an environmentalist position (based on a relativist view). Furthermore, a third theoretical position arises in between the cognitive and the social that van Lier (ibid.) calls an interactivist position. Such a theoretical position can be considered as a *sociocognitive perspective* (Atkinson, 2002, 2010; Batstone 2010), which is the theoretical basis I draw upon in this thesis.

The sociocognitive view has recently gained attention in research on language learning and teaching. 'Sociocognition is based on the view that neither language use nor language learning can be adequately understood without recognizing that they have both a social and cognitive dimension which interact' (Batstone, 2010, p. 5). Similarly, Toth and Davin (2016) argue that 'highly effective pedagogy requires viewing language and language learning as both cognitive *and* social' (p. 149, emphasis as in the original). However, a sociocognitive view presents a challenge to the research community due to ontological differences between cognitivist-minded and socially-minded views. Some researchers believe that this divide will never be bridged while others seek to find ways in which the social can be resolved with the cognitive. To this point, The Douglas Fir Group (2016) argue for the necessity of just such alternative ontologies so that 'researchers are to be able to shed a stronger empirical light on how multilingualism unfolds in the lives of people across their private, public, material, and digital social contexts' (p. 21). Similarly, Charmaz (2014) maintains that researchers may rely on both positions in practice. Such thinking acts as support for a sociocognitivist position in the research community.

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Some cognitivist researchers in SLA have had a softening of their beliefs in a strictly cognitive approach. Currently, in the field of applied linguistics, both cognitive-minded and social-minded researchers are converging in a move that Ortega (2011) calls *epistemological diversity*. Ortega (ibid.) argues that '[. . .] the social turn in SLA has led the field into the kind of fruitful epistemological diversity that affords unique opportunities to enrich our multilayered understanding of additional language learning' (p. 178). Similarly, Markee (2015) adds that research in the field is now starting to mix lines with the ontological and epistemological disagreements from the 1990's a thing of the past: '[due to] the ongoing rapprochement between cognitive and social approaches to understanding classroom discourse and interaction [. . .] applied linguistics is in a much better place [. . .]' (p. 522). These views become important for a study such as this one based on use of material in the language classroom because materials use revolves around not only individual perceptions of materials, but also social interaction between people in a classroom in relation to the materials.

Recent research in the growing area of materials use has turned to sociocognitive-based footing (Atkinson, 2011) to understand ways in which materials are used. More specifically, as part of the approach in this thesis, I rely on van Lier's (2000, 2004) perspective of the ecology of language learning [explained in Chapter 3]. As do other sociocognitive-minded researchers, Chemero (2009) argues that an ecological perspective requires a new ontology that shifts from the strictly cognitive view or strictly social view to an ontology that accounts for an actor's relationship to the environment. In drawing on sociocognitive and ecological positions, I follow recent research into the use of materials in language classrooms that has relied on such perspectives to understand relationships between materials and participants (e.g., Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Thoms, 2014; Jakonen, 2015). Now, I turn to provide rationale for the methodology selected for the research design in this study.

5.3 Qualitative research design

Due to the nature of my research questions [section 1.4], the call for qualitative studies on video use in classrooms [section 3.6], prior research on use of materials [sections 3.8, 3.10, & 3.12], and the ecological approach taken in this thesis [sections 3.9 & 5.2], I adopt qualitative inquiry for the research design. Qualitative inquiry seeks to understand processes as they occur in a person-orientated

world (Richards, 2003). Corbin and Strauss (2008) broadly characterize such inquiry as fluid, evolving, and dynamic. Other researchers depict qualitative research as having honesty and well-written accounts (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014), deep understanding (Wolcott, 1990), transparency (Given, 2008), and trustworthiness, credibility, and authenticity (Lincoln & Gruba, 1985). In addition, analysis in qualitative research may have an interpretative nature (Corbin & Straus, 2008; Silverman, 2011). 'Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding what those interpretations [of reality] are at a particular point in time and in a particular context. Learning how individuals experience and interact with their social world, the meaning it has for them, is considered an *interpretive* qualitative approach' (Merriam 2002, p. 4). The interpretative nature of qualitative research is part of its strength, and such studies seek to provide a thick description (Geertz, 1973) to study 'phenomena which are simply unavailable elsewhere' (Silverman, 2011, p. 17).

For the present study, the qualitative-research approach matches well with the objectives because such research often begins with a view that the classroom needs to be studied on a holistic level to help account for a diverse number of variables (McKay, 2006). Researching classroom interaction from different classrooms by different teachers using two genres of video material certainly presents a number of variables. As such, Herron et al. (2006) call for researchers of video-based speaking activities to conduct research qualitatively due to the many variables in the classroom setting [detailed in section 3.6]. The challenges presented by controlling for variables are further compounded by the complexity of interaction in language classrooms (Tudor, 2001, 2003). Qualitative research can help to make sense out of complex settings. Furthermore, qualitative research aligns with the ecological approach I rely on in this thesis (Cao, 2011, 2014). Moreover, qualitative inquiry appears most suited to my skill set, belief system, and experience as an educator [detailed in Chapters 1 & 4]. Investigating materials use through a qualitative approach can have an impact on instructional techniques and materials development.

5.4 Research tradition: Case study

Research in this thesis sits within the qualitative approach, and in particular, uses a case study approach as its primary research framework in order to investigate phenomena of interest based on

what I aim to find out through my research questions [section 1.4]. Case study is an 'in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, programme, or system in a "real life" context' (Simons, 2009, p. 21). Miles et al. (2014) define a case as 'a phenomenon of some sort in a bounded context' (p. 28). In extracting key concepts of case study research offered by multiple definitions within the field of applied linguistics, Duff (2008) suggests boundedness, in-depth study, multiple perspectives, particularity, contextualization, and interpretation as integral pieces of a case study.

Case studies are defined by the boundaries of the case (Creswell, 2008; Simons, 2009). The case in this study is that of activities in video-based EFL lessons, with particular regard to the classroom interaction that occurs related to the viewing of videos. Rather than the case being a single person or group, the case in this thesis is a particular event or program of study. Multiple perspectives for the case arise in data collected from the numerous participants through audio recordings, direct observation, teacher views, student views, and researcher participation [detailed below], and subsequent analysis. Thus, the case in this study is bounded by the societal and educational context of Japanese universities with the heart being a classroom event: activities occurring within the EFL classroom related to video-based lessons. Furthermore, the case in the present study is classified as an *intrinsic case study* where the research 'is undertaken because, first and last, one wants better understanding of this particular case' (Stake, 2005, p. 445). Below, I describe the procedures for data collection and analysis.

5.5 Data collection methods and techniques

The large number of data collection methods for qualitative research are described by Corbin and Strauss (2008) as a 'virtue' (p. 117). The primary data for the present study are collected by three main methods: classroom recordings and observations, teacher interviews, and student questionnaires. The rationale for the selection of these methods is explained in the following sections. In turn, each method is discussed first in general terms, followed by the specific details of its practical use in this study.

5.5.1 Classroom observations

Classroom observation is a natural choice for a data collection technique in a study based on EFL classrooms. 'Techniques used for data collection should be well matched to what you are trying to find out' (Burns, 2010). Because the present study focuses on the use of two genres of video material in the classroom, the nature of the study helps dictate that research be conducted in the language-teaching environment. Classroom observations serve as a way to help understand what is going on in the classroom setting (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Observation moves data from being self-reported to being directly observable information and is considered as a basic data source for empirical research (Dörnyei, 2007). Furthermore, observation occupies a crucial place in qualitative research because '[. . .] it is not unusual for persons to say they are doing one thing but in reality they are doing something else' (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 29). Thus, direct observation is a way to ensure that what is reported is actually happening in the classroom.

Classroom observation also has weaknesses and limitations. Dörnyei (2007) states '[. . .] only observable phenomena can be observed, whereas in applied linguistics so many of the key variables and processes that researchers investigate are mental and thus unobservable' (p. 185). Behavior of students can be observed, but the meaning of what is observed cannot (Bernard, 2011). Another disadvantage of classroom observation is that these data only depict a snapshot of limited periods of time so that any conclusions reached can only be indicative rather than conclusive (Harbon & Shen, 2010). Furthermore, the use of video or photographic imagery taken in classrooms raises ethical concerns (Richards, 2003) because publication of images can compromise the identity of the teacher and student participants. Due to such limitations, many studies employing classroom observation are designed to have two or more methods of data collection.

In the present study, I conduct observations as a nonparticipant-observer by sitting in the back of classrooms and taking field notes. For field notes, I adopt a method from Humphries (2011, 2014) using a pen with multi-colored ink cartridges and dividing the notebook paper with a vertical line. Factual classroom happenings were written in black ink on the left side of the line and reflective remarks in blue on the right side. Red was used to write questions that needed clarification, which I

later asked the teacher about after class as a type of teacher interview [details below]. Any answers to these questions were written in green ink. This low-tech system was valuable for keeping my notes organized and did not require very much equipment or expense. With the flurry of activity in the classroom and its highly complex environment (Tudor, 2001; Dörnyei, 2007), details are easily missed during the process of taking notes. For example, certain classroom exchanges between participants may be inaudible or not understood.

Another challenge in conducting classroom observations is that teachers doing research can encounter practical problems such as heavy teaching loads (McKay, 2006). My own heavy teaching schedule presented just such a problem when the time slots of many of my lessons overlapped with those of the teachers I was attempting to observe. Fortunately, there were provisions within university policy that allowed for a certain number of my lessons to be rescheduled so I could conduct observations. This time conflict was also one of the reasons that audio recorders were used to capture the classroom events.

5.5.2   Classroom audio recordings

While classroom procedures were chronicled through observations and notes, the collection of data from classroom interactions required recording devices. Recordings of classroom interaction can be viewed as an extension of observations. Furthermore, recordings offer the advantage of creating permanent records of activities and can be transcribed for further analysis. Use of recorders to document classroom interaction assists in assuring the accuracy of field notes and provides a more credible account of what was said and done thereby aiding to the reduction of bias and leaving a confirmable audit trail. Such transparency is a hallmark of qualitative research (Given, 2008; Holliday, 2010).

However, recording devices may act as a disadvantage to gathering accurate data because recorders can also create an impression that the classroom is 'on display' and lead to unnatural actions on the part of the students and teachers (Harbon & Shen, 2010). Other concerns include the requirement of electrical power. Recorders placed around the room are far from power outlets and therefore require battery power. Should the battery be depleted in the middle of a class, data would be

missed. To insure reliable recording, I changed batteries after each class, which meant that I had to have a large number of rechargeable batteries. In addition, there was a learning curve involved to work with the hardware and software in the recording and post-recording phases. Lastly, recording devices and batteries have a high cost.

One question that inevitably surfaces with regard to recording devices is whether to use video recorders or audio-only recorders for the task. Video recorders have an advantage in their ability to capture the visual and aural elements of classroom activity and can assist researchers to notice semiotic information that would be missed in audio-only recordings. With video, non-verbal behavior such as gesture, gaze, facial expressions, and proximity can be viewed after the fact (Swann, 2001; Richards, 2003; Duff, 2008). Although video recording does have much to offer for data collection, there are times when it can be a hindrance. Video cameras can be so intrusive in a classroom that teachers may ask to have them removed (Duff, 2008).

Moreover, video cameras are built more for recording images than for sound and often contain microphones that are of poor quality. As such, the audio may have to be recorded separately (Richards, 2003). Dörnyei (2007) reveals that sometimes video cameras cannot obtain a shot of the entire classroom because the lens of the video camera is not wide enough to get full coverage of the classroom. As a non-participant observer, I opted to ask the teachers to record speaking activities in their classrooms with audio-only recorders both when I was present to observe and when I was unable to attend. Diminutive audio recorders offer a less intrusive way of making digital recordings and were appropriate for this study because of the intent to explore lesson structure and verbal interaction.

In addition to the scheduling conflict with my own heavy teaching load, lessons delivered by the teachers were often taught during simultaneous class periods. For example, if Becky and Miho both taught lessons in Period 1, I would have to choose to be in one classroom or the other. This overlap created a scheduling conflict for observation times and use of the recorders. To resolve this problem, I used a total of 12 recorders and made recording kits that I delivered to the teachers' classrooms. Each kit contained a small equipment bag filled with three TAS-CAM DR-05 hand-held audio recorders loaded with fully charged batteries and a 16 GB micro SD card. Also in the bags were simplified operational instructions for the recorders, my phone number, and a spare set of batteries. I went to

each classroom to retrieve the recorders at the end of each lesson. In this way, teachers were not burdened by having to carry the recorders all day, and I could exert greater control over the sensitive data being generated. Upon gathering the recorders, I archived and secured them in a locked room.

The unobtrusive recorders proved to be ideal when placed on the desk in front of pairs of students engaged in speaking activities. Stereo microphones built into the top of the units protrude out at angles allowing for a solid separation of recording channels, i.e., people sitting on the right and left could be clearly distinguished while listening to playback with headphones. This feature proved beneficial when later transcribing, especially when the participants had similar sounding voices because the learner sitting on the right could be heard in the right ear of the headphones, and the learner sitting on the left in the left ear. In addition, the microphone sensitivity of these recorders could be boosted to allow for students' voices to come forward in the recordings and limit interference from the background interaction of other pairs in the room.

The 16 GB micro SD cards in each recorder ensured that there was enough space to record lessons over a semester. In addition, the spacious cards allowed me to keep data intact without having to erase the cards throughout the study, resulting in an instant archive. One concern in handling SD cards in this way is that the recorders given to the teachers contained sensitive data. Any damage or mishandling of the recorders could cause these data to be lost. To assure against loss, all data from the previous recording sessions were backed up prior to redistributing the recorders to the teachers.

Classroom observations and audio recordings provided me with observational data from the classrooms. Observations and recordings are considered to be the main part of the overall data set for this study because of their empirical nature. Following the framework of qualitative research and research traditions discussed above, the gathering of additional data has the potential to foster even deeper understanding of a case. Additional data in this study included both teacher interviews and student questionnaires in order to provide the participants with a greater voice, complement observation data, and add rigor.

5.5.3 Teacher interviews

Recent literature on interviewing in qualitative studies suggests interviews are co-constructions between all parties (Richards, 2009). 'Given its centrality in a recent turn toward more sophisticated analyses of knowledge production, the interview can no longer be viewed as a unilaterally guided means of excavating information' (Gubrium & Holstein, 2012, p. 27). Aligning with this view, Duff (2008) states an interview is a 'version of the truth' comprised of a two-person process with topics discussed and developed for a specific reason (p. 133). Simons (2009) argues that subjective interview data comprise a crucial component of any case study and that the analyzing and interpreting of such data lead to valuable insights into a case.

Used in combination with a diverse data set, interviews assist to round out data into a more comprehensive whole (Kress, 2011). To follow the research principles of transparency of method (Holliday, 2010) and trustworthiness (Lincoln & Gruba, 1985), I modeled the interviews within a framework which Mann (2011) refers to as *active-interviews*. Active-interviews account for the influential role played by the interviewer during an interview and see interviews unfolding as a co-constructed process by both parties. Due to my prior relationships with the teachers as co-workers, the further forging of these relationships throughout this research study, my shared experiences with the material, and our shared backgrounds as EFL university instructors; these interviews are also *acquaintance interviews* (Garton & Copland, 2010).

Teacher participants were interviewed in two main ways. First, I conducted what I term *mini-interviews*. After lessons that I was unable to observe, teachers sometimes wanted to speak about the lesson they had just taught when I picked up the audio recorders at the end of class. In these instances, I would ask the teacher for permission to switch on a recorder to capture our exchange. Other times, curiosity arose about a phenomenon in class during classroom observations. After getting permission from the teacher, I would record what we said to each other after class.

These mini-interviews often lasted a very short time and provided a number of benefits. The mini-interviews:

- happened while the experience was fresh in the teachers' minds,

-helped ensure that I understood what the teachers were doing in class,

-provided a chance to answer any questions from teachers,

-kept me comprised of any issues, and

-allowed for signposting of up-and-coming activities.

The second type of interview was an exit interview following the completion of the course. These longer and more formal interviews were held in a private setting to limit the potential for interruption. The arrangement of the semi-structured interview questions (Appendix H) proceeded from general points of fact to specific ideas and opinions (Richards, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008). In teacher interviews that I did in an earlier study (Grandon, 2012), this strategy led to very natural and flowing responses. For the present study, teachers were given the semi-structured questions prior to the interview. This strategy had two main aims. The first was to alleviate potential anxiety that may accompany going into an interview cold, and the second was to grant preparation time that could lead to more reflexive answers.

By following the methods and techniques detailed thus far, data were gathered from classroom observations, recordings, and teacher interviews in relation to video usage in the lessons. To facilitate a further understanding in this multiple case study, the learner perspective was included through questionnaires designed for and administered to the student participants.

5.5.4   Student questionnaires

There are a number of reasons why student questionnaires were selected as a method of data collection for this study. According to Dörnyei (2007; 2010), the inclusion of student questionnaires assists in making the study more comprehensive on several fronts. First, the students can contribute thoughts and opinions that can drive the study in directions not yet considered. Second, the inclusion of the questionnaire data provides a more holistic picture of the classroom by granting a voice to the student participants. Third, quantitative data can support the qualitative data through the production of descriptive statistics. Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggest that there is much value in research that

combines objective and subjective components. Moreover, case study research places value on the inclusion of the rich variety of perspectives that exist within the case (Simons, 2009).

Furthermore, questionnaires can help to make classroom research more valid and reliable because these data provide facts, behaviors, and attitudes of those that answer them (Dörnyei, 2010). Because the students in this study are university freshmen and sophomores in Japan, questionnaires had an additional advantage because these instruments elicited data from students in their native language. Moreover, questionnaires written in Japanese help counter any imbalance of power exerted by the English language itself or that of a foreign male researcher/teacher over young students, the presence of which can have an inhibiting or stifling effect (van Leeuwen, 2005). Thus, producing questionnaires in Japanese appears to increase the potential for them to be answered accurately and truthfully.

Questionnaires also have disadvantages. One limitation concerns the legitimacy of the answers provided by the participants. No real way exists to ensure that participants have answered truthfully or even accurately (Bernard, 2011). Limitations also exist in relation to the statistics produced by the questionnaire data. Descriptive statistics can only produce data relevant to the one sample population surveyed, and the results cannot be generalized across a wider population (Dörnyei, 2007; Field, 2009; Phakiti, 2010).

Furthermore, bias can also arise in the original construction of the questions. Language and culture present issues in questionnaire construction in the form of translation, and even professional translators can make errors. To ensure translation accuracy, I followed Dörnyei's (2010) recommendation that translated questions be re-translated back into their original language by a second translator in a process of *back-translation*.   In addition, questionnaire design can differ by culture according to the multimodal concept of *localization,* which includes the notion that semiotic resources of a print document should follow cultural norms of a particular region (Hiippala, 2012; Grandon, 2013). Despite the limitations involved in including questionnaires as a part of these data, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages when the need to include students' voices in order to provide a holistic portrayal of the phenomenon under investigation is considered.

Questionnaire questions were designed to understand attitudes, beliefs, and description of the student participants. Individual Likert-items were developed following the early analysis of transcriptions of peer interactions from the classroom recordings. These transcripts were the first ones selected for transcription in the midst of the data collection semester as a way into these data and to inform the design of the questionnaire. The audio transcripts were selected for transcription based on a balanced representation of recordings from the classrooms of seven teachers. The total time of these audio recordings equaled 81 minutes. Furthermore, the questionnaire included two open-ended questions to generate qualitative responses from the learners. Therefore, this study is a qualitative one that includes some numeric data as is common in qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007; Miles et al., 2014). Appendix I has a copy of the questionnaire. Additional details on the design of the questionnaire are described in a section below.

5.5.5   Data totals

By the end of the data collection period, raw data collected from the classrooms had reached 386 recordings as shown in Table 5.1 below. To transcribe all of these recordings is unmanageable for this project, especially when considered in combination with the rest of the entire data set consisting of observation notes, interviews, and questionnaires. In qualitative data analysis, Miles et al. (2014) argue for *data condensation*, which is 'the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and/or transforming the data that appear in the full corpus [. . .]' (p. 12). These researchers suggest that data condensation enhances the strength of a research project and that condensation of data should continue throughout a qualitative project. Furthermore, Miles et al., (ibid.) add that data condensation is a part of the analysis of data.

Table 5.1 Raw data totals prior to data condensation

	ABC	*DVDay*	Total
Classroom recordings	200	186	386
Student questionnaires	126	86	213
Teacher interviews	11	11	22
Classroom observations	12	9	21

I looked for ways to apply data condensation to these data. First, Yuta decided after one week to withdraw from the classroom observations, so I removed data from his classes. Next, I examined the levels of the learners in more detail and found rather large discrepancies in the scores from the A.C.E. test mentioned above [section 4.5]. While all of the learners were grouped at A2, is it clear that use of CEFR to rank learners in the Japanese context requires an overhaul as suggested by Negishi, Takada, and Tono (2011, 2013). In this study, learners were grouped into these classes by scores on their university entrance exams. Unfortunately, the university administration would not release that information to me. However, the administration did provide me with permission to see the results from the A.C.E. test of each class, conditional upon permission from the teachers of the individual classes. When I asked the teacher participants in this study if they were willing to share the results with me, all of them agreed.

Because the scores on these tests varied widely by each class, I decided to focus on the learners in the sample who showed the levels nearest to the middle or average of the total scores. Learners in one of Starflower's classes were considerably higher than the average, and learners in Black's, Roger's, and one of Becky's classes were considerably lower than the average. Therefore, I withdrew data from these classrooms for further analysis, including a number of transcriptions from the final speaking activities. This level of data condensation still left me with an abundance of data.

I applied sampling strategies to further inform the direction of data condensation in order to choose the recordings for transcription that appear as the actual extracts in the analysis chapters. Similar to comparable case selection, which is where sample selection is based on similar relevant characteristics over time (Miles et al., 2014), I selected a balance of recordings from the final speaking activities of both textbooks that took place in the beginning, middle, and end of the semester. In this way, selection was driven both by concepts from my research questions regarding use of video-based materials and a concern for representativeness. As such, the transcripts show interaction based on multiple videos over time. Comparable case selection is a replication strategy. Miles et al. (2014) explain that replication strategies can reinforce precision, trustworthiness, and robustness to findings in qualitative studies. Furthermore, I selected multiple recordings of peer interactions from the same

lesson as a means to strengthen transparency. Moreover, I considered the observer's paradox (Labov, 1972), which states usual behaviors of participants may be influenced by the presence of an observer. As such, I further balanced the selection of audio recordings to transcribe between those from lessons when I was in the classroom for observations, and those when I was unable to attend. Applying sampling strategies to the data condensation in these ways is a reasonable means to choose audio recordings for transcription.

Table 5.2 Data totals after data condensation

	ABC	*ABC* Duration	*DVDay*	*DVDay* Duration	Total	Total Duration
FSA activity transcripts	11	1:21	22	3:08	33	4:29
Classroom observations	8	12:00	4	6:00	12	18:00
ABC sampling	3	1:07	n/a	n/a	3	1:07
PVBS & WGBS sampling	n/a	n/a	30	4:05	30	4:05
Student questionnaires	68	n/a	48	n/a	116	n/a
Teacher interviews	8	3:16	6	2:47	14	6:04

Note: Times are displayed in hours and minutes. 3:08 = three hours and eight minutes. n/a = not applicable.

As displayed in Table 5.2, data for this thesis include: transcripts of 33 peer-speaking activities for 4 hours and 29 minutes, 18.0 hours of classroom observation from 12 lessons, 1 hour and 7 minutes of *ABC* sampling, 4 hours and 5 minutes of the PVBS and WGBS sampling, 116 student questionnaires, and 6 hours and 4 minutes of teacher interviews. Lastly, data include artifacts such as the textbook materials and teacher handouts. Following data collection, the recordings of classroom interactions and teacher interviews were transcribed for analysis.

5.6 Data analysis methods

This section describes the procedures and rationale for analysis including the transcription process, translations from Japanese to English, the tracking of topics in interactions, the tracking of inter-activity language threads, the coding of questionnaire data, the treatment of interview data, and the identification of adaptation techniques.

5.6.1 Transcriptions

I transcribed data from the classroom interactions and the teacher interviews with InqScribe version 2.2.3, a software package designed for transcription. In addition, I used a foot pedal and headphones, both indispensable tools for the process. Transcribing with InqScribe in this way served the needs of this study well. Features such as inserting time codes allowed for the returning to parts of the recordings that were difficult to hear or comprehend, and text created in InqScribe was easily exported to Microsoft Word for further formatting and analysis. Because I did all of the transcription, the very act of conducting the process served as a beginning part of analysis (Wong & Waring, 2010).

Guidelines for the presentation of Japanese in Romanization have discrepancies that may even lack specific rules (Kudo, 2011). For presentation of the Japanese in the bilingual transcriptions of the classroom interaction, a modified version of the Hepburn System of the Romanization of Japanese writing is adopted as is common in applied linguistics studies on classroom interaction (e.g., Mori, 2002; Moore, 2009; Yasui, 2011). A native speaker of Japanese verified all of the Japanese sections of the transcripts by listening to the recordings while reading along with my transcriptions. When discrepancies arose, we listened together to reconcile the differences.

Extract 5.1 is an example transcription from one of the final speaking activities. Similar to Thoms' (2014) study on classroom ecology [detailed in section 3.10], the transcripts are provided in a straightforward manner without intonation markings. Such transcription conventions are also used by other researchers of the classroom ecology (e.g., Batstone & Philp, 2013). Following Barker (2010), the transcripts are also presented without hesitation and pause times because in unstructured learner interaction many Japanese may hesitate for unusual periods of time. A vertical layout pattern was chosen for the display of the transcripts because the majority of the interaction examined was peer-to-peer and vertical formatting gives the impression that the participants are on equal footing in terms of power (Edwards, 2001).

I used both digital and paper copies of the transcripts for reading and analyzing. Beginning early in the analysis process, I read the transcripts multiple times, made notes in the margins, and wrote analytic memos on each transcript as is common in qualitative studies (Saldaña, 2013; Charmaz 2014).

Memo writing encourages researchers to stop in order to reflect on data, compare them, and explain links between them (Charmaz, 2014). I continued memo writing throughout the study. Also throughout analysis, I periodically returned and re-listened to the original audio recordings as a part of the process. Furthermore, I kept analytic memos not only on the coding [detailed below], but also on the overall impressions of these data. As previously mentioned, particular focus rests on the audio recordings of the classroom interaction for analysis in this thesis.

5.6.2   Translations

The translations from Japanese to English in the transcripts went through rigorous steps to ensure accuracy. First, I translated most of the Japanese sections. Then, a native speaker of Japanese verified my translations and helped me with sections I found too challenging to translate. Once the translations satisfied both of us, a second native Japanese speaker acted as a third party to verify the accuracy and help make the translations read with a better conversational style that was true to the interaction in the original Japanese. I worked closely with the second translator as her assistant, so I was directly involved with each step in the translation process. Through this series of checks, the translations reflect an accurate and smooth rendering into English. For the final versions of the bilingual transcripts, the Japanese is presented in italicized Roman letters followed immediately by the English translation in parenthesis. Extract 5.1 displays examples of the look in the transcripts.

Extract 5.1 Examples of English translation 006_R1_121206_0075_New_York

```
097   F:      I I interested in ryuugaku (studying abroad) to
              study abroad
098   M:      mm
099   F:      but I I don't have yuuki ga nai  (I don't have
              courage) (laughs)
100   M:      ahhhh (ahhh)
101   F:      chousenga  (challenge it)
102   M:      mm (mm)
103   F:      muzukashi mitaina (looks difficult)
104   M:      ano (ah)
105   F:      mmm I I want to go to Korea
```

I use generic letters to denote the students in the transcripts (e.g., M & F, R & L, B & G, OMS & MFS, L2 & R2, etc.). The letter 'T' denotes the teacher. Because teachers randomly paired learners each week and also selected random pairs to record, these students are usually different although they

share the same generic 'name'. Once the transcripts were translated, I analyzed the interaction for topics and topic flow for reasons I explain below.

5.6.3   Topic and topic flow

My rationale for analyzing topics is based on a number of factors. One of my research questions is to understand how participants use the video materials in classroom interaction [section 1.4]. Because topics indicate a use of materials, identifying topics is a good way to understand whether or not an influence of the video is present in the interaction. In addition, the video literature suggests that learners use topics from video-based materials to elicit interaction in speaking activities that may be relevant to their own lives, which is associated with having an impact on speaking skills [as detailed in section 3.5]. Furthermore, investigation of topic within student interaction is considered by Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) to be a primary component for understanding interrelationships between materials and practical use in the classroom ecology [detailed in section 3.10]. Similarly, Ryan and Bernard (2003) endorse analysis of topic transitions and shifts as a way to identify themes in data. Moreover, the suitability of topics in language lessons relates to use of materials through adaptation [detailed in section 3.11]. For these reasons, I chose to analyze topics in peer interaction.

In the pair-work interaction, topics are analyzed in two main ways. First, initial moves are analyzed in each group as a means to understand: (1) how learners begin the activity once the floor is handed to them, and (2) if orientations within the initial moves in the activity are topically related to the materials. Second, with the rise of each successive shift of topic in the speaking activities, topic shifts are marked, labelled, and chained together. I map the series of topic shifts for the activities in each of the peer groups to create a topic flow that can be read at a glance. When taken as a whole, the series of topic shifts results in a flow of topics for the duration of the final speaking activities. In the following sections, details of these methods are shown for both the initial moves and the flow of topic shifts.

First, I coded data from the initial moves in the peer interaction. I did the early cycles of the coding by hand on printed transcripts by making notes in the margins and grouping similar features found within the interaction (Saldaña, 2013). After several coding iterations, I entered the final codes

into HyperRESEARCH version 3.7.3, a software package designed to assist in the organization and coding of qualitative data. Data were then coded in the computer.

Each initial move in the peer interaction of the final speaking activities is coded in two layers: (1) to describe the *type of move*, and (2) to know the *category of action* undertaken in each move type. Types of moves are either statements or questions and are coded as such. These descriptive codes for types of moves allow for an understanding of *what* occurred in the initial move. In the second layer, I developed a coding scheme of specific categories of action with process coding (Saldaña, 2013) to understand the thematic content within each initial move, i.e., action learners do in the move types. Three codes for categories of action emerged during this second layer of coding: (1) *clarifying question prompt*, (2) *reading question prompt*, and (3) *video themeing*. The *clarifying question prompt* code is used when learners speak about the procedure that is supposed to be used in the pair work activity. The *reading question prompt* code is used when learners read the question prompt to begin interaction. The *video themeing* code means the learners speak about the video material. Table 5.3 gives an example of each of these codes. Once I had developed these codes, I returned to recordings for theoretical sampling, 'a method of data collection based on concepts derived from data' (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 144). Transcriptions of additional initial moves aligned with the codes, indicating saturation.

Table 5.3 Examples of coding for types of moves and categories of action

Extract	Type of move	Category of action
154 G: Pro and con *tte nani* (means what?) (102 R3 Becky Mom's Guilt)	Question	Clarifying question prompt
238 R: ah nutrition *da* (it is)[. . .] (104 R3 Becky ADHD)	Statement	Video themeing
056 L: how are your eating habits? [reading] (104 R3 Becky ADHD)	Question	Reading question prompt

The two layers of coding for the initial moves are the first main method for understanding topics in the final speaking activities. To reiterate, such analysis provides an understanding of not only what each

move is, but also the thematic content of the interaction in these moves. As such, the ways in which learners use the material in the initial moves become clear.

The second main method for analysis of topics in learner interaction concentrates on how learners manage peer-to-peer discussions by shifting topics throughout speaking activities. Operationalizing topic has been a challenging endeavor in applied linguistics (van Lier, 1988; Morris-Adams, 2014). Researchers analyzing interaction have offered various definitions of topics (e.g., Brown & Yule, 1983; Slimani, 1987; van Lier, 1988; van Lier & Matsuo, 2000; Chafe, 2001; Morris-Adams, 2014). Brown and Yule (1983) state a topic is 'what is being talked about' (p. 71). van Lier and Matsuo (2000) define a topic 'as a clearly noticeable content orientation of a particular chunk or subunit in a conversation' (p. 272). Chafe (2001) defines a topic as 'a coherent aggregate of thoughts introduced by some participant in a conversation, developed either by that participant or another or by several participants jointly, and then either explicitly closed or allowed to peter out' (p. 674). Morris-Adams (2014) defines topics in conversation 'as stretches of discourse, with an identifiable and sustained focus, and bounded by specific moves that led to a recognisably complete or partial change of focus' (p. 152). The study of topic includes not only the identification of a topic, but also ways in which one topic changes or moves to another, i.e., the boundaries around topics.

Because speakers move topics in subtle ways often with unclear boundaries, some researchers adopt a view of a topic shift rather than a clear-cut topic change. Wong and Waring (2010) define topic shift as a shift in emphasis within a topic or a move towards a new topic in either a disjunctive manner or in a stepwise fashion. In the former, Wong and Waring (ibid.) state disjunctive shifts are often accompanied by disjunctive markers such as *by the way*, *anyway*, or *one more thing* used as abrupt breaks from the topic at hand. In the latter, stepwise topic shifts gradually move a topic to a new focus in three ways: (1) using a pivot move followed by a new focus, (2) invoking semantic relationships, and (3) following a pattern which summarizes a prior topic then moves to ancillary matters before beginning a new topic.

Similarly, in terms of topic shifts, Morris-Adams (2014) draws a distinction between topic transition and disjunctive topic shifts. According to Morris-Adams (ibid.), topic transitions have a connection to current or previous talk, and she operationalized the concept as 'instances of talk which,

by a variety of means, take the topical content in a different direction, while maintaining either lexical or propositional links with previous talk' (p. 153). Disjunctive topic shifts are 'clearly bounded and unconnected sequences' (Morris-Adams, ibid., p. 153).

Topic is an integral part of understanding what the students do in their speaking activities as use of materials from an ecological approach. Because the speaking activities are opened-ended and resemble conversational interaction found outside of the classroom, I follow Morris-Adams' (2014) definitions for topic and topic shift with particular attention to the topic transitions. To meet the needs of the present study, which focuses on interaction in EFL classrooms between learners engaged in relatively unplanned, spontaneous speaking activities, I adapted her definition of topic transition to include not only links to previous topics, but also any links to the video-based materials as summarized in Table 5.4. Such a change aims to provide insight into whether or not topics and topic management within these data contain relationships to the video-based materials.

Table 5.4 Summary of definitions for identifying topic shifts

Name	Definition
Topic transition	moves showing a connection to the current or previous speaking topic
Disjunctive shift	clearly bounded and unconnected sequences
Topic shifts	overarching heading including both of the above

Adapted from Morris-Adams (2014)

In this thesis, topic transitions are identified and labeled with topic names to: (1) establish boundaries for analysis of topics, (2) understand topical flow during speaking activities, and (3) look for relationships to the materials. However, topic naming presents a challenge because selecting topic names requires a degree of interpretation. Not only are selecting names for topics subjective, but also pinpointing topic transitions within the interaction is open to interpretation. Such interpretations are often a part of a qualitative research approach (Merriam, 2002, 2009; Charmaz, 2014), and one of the reasons why I chose to conduct a qualitative study in the first place. Furthermore, adopting an interpretative position aligns with my ontological stance of relativism as discussed earlier in this chapter. While my interpretations are subjective, the names for topics and selection of junctures for topic transitions are done in a rational and principled way.

Extract 5.2 illustrates the process of identifying and of naming topic shifts in peer interaction. In

a *DVDay* lesson, students work in pairs to discuss a video set in New York City. The first topic,

traveling to New York, begins in Turn 003. This topic does not last long, and a topic transition begins

in Turn 009. Because this topic transition moves the topic to past travel experiences, I marked the

transition in Turn 009, and labeled the new topic as *travel experience*. When learners shift the topic

again in Turn 040, I labeled the new topic as *travel aspirations*.

Extract 5.2 Sample of topic transitions R4_121206_0115_New_York

```
003  M:   ⇒   ah nandarona (ah what can I say) do you want to go go
                 to New York?
004  F:       yes
005  M:       why why yes
006  F:       mm to new year event
007  M:       new year event
008  F:       is gorgeous
009  M:   ⇒   ah that's nice mm have you ever been to mm New York
                 or other other city
010  F:       in America ?
011  M:       America mm America or other country
012  F:       oh yes I I have been to Germany
013  M:       Germany heh Germany
014  F:       how about you
015  M:       um ah I'm not yet so so in this spring I want to go
                 nandaro (what can I say) any any country I want to go
                 nandaro (what can I say) trip mm kaigai ni ikitai (I
                 want to go abroad)
016  F:       yes
017  M:       ah how did chigau (not that) how was Germany German
                 Germany
018  F:       nice
019  M:       nice
020  F:       very nice nice
021  M:       why why did you go Germany
022  F:       mm
023  M:       school trip or
024  F:       because I I st-  I go to Germany to study
025  M:       to study
026  F:       German yeah for three weeks
027  M:       thre- three? Three weeks
028  F:       three weeks
029  M:       for three weeks
030  F:       and nokorino (the rest of)(laughs) mm (mm)
031  M:       mm for three weeks
032  F:       weeks (laughs)
033  M:       so you can you can speak Germany Ge- German German
                 very well
034  F:       little
035  M:       a little
036  F:       a little
```

```
037  M:           ah a little mm or you are good at writing
038  F:           yes
039  M:           heh suge (wow great)
040  F:      ⇒   unnto (uhmmm)what
041  M:           mm
042  F:           country do you want to go
043  M:           I'm sorry one more please
044  F:           what country
045  M:           mm
046  F:           do you want to go
047  M:           um I have many country I want to go nandarona (what
                   can I say) America India and Thailand
```

By marking topic-shift points and labeling topics one after the other, I track the topics and link them together to produce what I term *topic flow* in this thesis. Topic flow is an analytic approach inspired by and adapted from Chafe's (2001) discourse flow. Discourse flow is a cognitive technique that views thoughts and sounds as separate streams working together to produce a topic (Chafe, ibid.). Because I view topics as being socially constructed by participants through a sociocognitive perspective and ecological approach [detailed in sections 3.9, 3.10, & 5.2], I have a point of departure from Chafe's (2001) discourse flow.

For analysis in this study, the topics are labeled based on what was spoken by participants in joint interactions. When topics shift, I label them, and topical navigation is shown by stringing the topics together as they emerge. For example, here is the topic flow for the entire final speaking activity from which Extract 5.2 is taken:

009 *traveling to New York>travel experience>travel aspirations>future residences>future career>speaking foreign languages*

This stringing of topics together results in a topic flow that serves as a synopsis for the interaction in each of the speaking-activity transcripts. In addition, working in this way provided a more fine-grained approach to the analysis thereby lending further rigor to the present study. Moreover, the string of topics in a topic flow helps to understand if speaking topics have links back to the video content. Thus, there is the potential to show ways in which learners used the video material to develop topics in speaking activities. Topic flow strings for each of the FSAs are listed in Appendix J.

Lastly, in terms of analysis of topics, Morris-Adams (2013) to refers to short sequences of interaction where topics are suspended to seek clarification or address a linguistic issue as side

sequences, a term that originates in conversation analysis (Jefferson, 1972; Svennevig, 1999). Side sequences in this study are episodes when participants confront linguistic issues, seek clarification, or have a question about language. Side sequences are separated from topic-flow strings for analytical purposes. Both topics and side sequences are addressed in the analysis. While analysis of topics is an important part of this thesis, such analysis is but one section of the overall analysis. Another section concerns the tracking of language through the various video-based activities.

5.6.4 Tracking of language threads through activities

To understand potential relationships between the video material and classroom interaction, I tracked learner language through the video-based activities. As mentioned in Chapter 4, *DVDay* lessons have three activities related to the video materials: post-video brainstorming (PVBS), whole group brainstorming (WGBS), and the final speaking activity (FSA). In PVBS, learners worked in groups to create lists of English thoughts and ideas based on the explicit text of video material [defined in section 3.2]. Because the instructions of the PVBS activity prompted learners to produce list items related to the video, whenever learners worked to make these items, the responses demonstrate an influence of the video images on language production.

During the next activity, WGBS, the teacher called the peer groups back to the whole class for a teacher-fronted activity, where the learners verbally offered list items to the teacher while remaining seated. The teachers then wrote these student responses on the board. In effect, by calling on peer groups around the room and writing the responses on the board, the teacher wrote a group list on the board. Classroom interaction in WGBS also has a relationship to the video material because learners contributed their list items from PVBS to the whole class. Therefore, list items in both PVBS and WGBS are connected to the explicit text of the video material. Lastly, learners moved back into peer groups for the final speaking activity (FSA) and were asked to use the video material to elicit speaking topics as is common in video-based activities [detailed in Chapter 3]. Figure 5.1 provides a graphic representation of the sequence of activities in this section of *DVDay* lessons.

Figure 5.1 Video related activities of a *DVDay* lesson.

At times, *common language* surfaced on an inter-activity basis throughout all three *DVDay* activities. Common language is defined in this thesis as list items discussed or written by participants in either PVBS or WGBS that exhibit lexical relationships and are recycled in later activities. In other words, common language is similar language that emerged in at least two of the three activities. Such common language is traceable to the video because the language originated when learners worked in either the PVBS or the WGBS activities. This common language was tracked through each of the activities to create a unit of analysis that links classroom interaction with the video material. I call these links *threads* because they tie back to the video. When common language was found across the classroom interaction of all three activities, I labeled the links as a *full-thread*. Threads where common language surfaced through lexical relationships in two of the three activities were labeled as *partial-threads*. However, analysis focused on full-threads because I was most interested in ways thread items emerged in the final speaking activity (FSA). In sum, full-threads provide traceable links to the video material in all three activities.

Taking inspiration from the topic-flow tracking system used for the analysis of topics as explained in the section 5.6.3 above, the flow for full-threads was entered into a spreadsheet that served as a concise road map for each thread. Interaction around each thread item in each activity is analyzed to learn about associated phenomena related to the thread items. Whatever occurs with the thread items is considered to have influence from video materials. Table 5.5 is an example of a full-thread at a glance. Appendix K shows a list of all the full-threads in *DVDay* interaction.

Table 5.5 Summary of a full-thread flow of a list item through all *DVDay* activities

Full-thread Name	Theme	PVBS Beginning	PVBS Episode	Link to WGBS	WGBS Main Floor	WGBS Sub-floor	FSA Link	FSA Use	Topic Theme
003-1 Becky Detroit	Hip hop	Sentence construction	n/a	Natural	Phrasal co-construction with teacher	rehearsal	lexical	-Phrasal uptake -Leads to learning opportunity in side sequence	More closely related

Because the sequence of activities differed in *ABC* materials as compared to *DVDay* materials, tracking common language through activities in *ABC* requires a different approach. As written in Chapter 4, the *ABC* materials have a classical sequence for video-based activities: pre-video activities, during-video activities, and post-video activities. The pre-video activities introduced vocabulary items that were all part of the video soundtrack. The during-video activity was a fill-in-the-blank where learners had a copy of the transcript of the soundtrack and filled in several missing words. The post-video activity was the final speaking activity prompted by discussion questions. As such, I looked for language common to these three activities of the lessons.

In addition, because *ABC* videos contained the language of news broadcasts, I analyzed the level of the language in the videos to determine the level of difficulty of the language being listened to in these lessons. To do so, I used the JACET8000 wordlist, a widely-used ranking of word levels for the Japanese context (Aizawa, Ishikawa, & Murata, 2005). The JACET8000 wordlist ranks difficulty of English words in 1,000 word increments from levels 1,000 to 8,000 with 8,000 being the most difficult. I used an online site (Someya, 2006) to determine the levels in the transcripts from the *ABC* video soundtrack.

5.6.5   Learning opportunities

As mentioned in Chapter 3, from an ecological perspective, van Lier (2004) argues that learning opportunities arise from participation and use. Wright (2006) suggests '[l]earning opportunities can emerge from the open-ended "social" talk as well as strictly controlled "institutional talk"' (p. 71). Other researchers and educators have been discussing learning opportunities and what this term may mean in classroom practice (Crabbe 2003, 2007; Allwright, 2005; Anderson, 2015). Taking a process-based orientation, Allwright (2005) contrasts a learning opportunity with a teaching point and suggests

learning opportunities are created by not only learners and teachers, but also by chance. Moreover, he states learning opportunities have no definitive limitation. 'The term can therefore cover an opportunity that occupies just a fleeting lesson moment, and equally appropriately, it can refer [. . .] to such big opportunities as taking a course of language lessons or visiting a country where people speak the target language' (Allwright 2005, pp. 17-18).

Crabbe (2007) offers a more cognitive-orientated definition: '[a] learning opportunity refers simply to a specific cognitive or metacognitive activity that a learner can engage in that is likely to lead to learning' (p. 118). Crabbe (2007) cites SLA concepts such as input, output, and feedback among others as good learning opportunities. Returning to a more process-orientated view, Anderson (2015) defines learning opportunities as 'potential acts of explicit or implicit learning that *may* occur during or as a consequence of the lesson' (p. 231). Anderson (ibid.) cites examples such as noticing, uptake, restructuring of interlanguage, and proceduralization of knowledge as learning opportunities, and he also includes metacognitive and affective factors.

One's view of learning opportunities seems to depend on one's view of learning. Unfortunately, no one can precisely define learning (Allwright, 2005). From a sociocognitive standpoint, learning is theorized as a process '[. . .] embedded in the context of locally accomplished social practices' (Doehler, 2010, p. 106). From such a viewpoint, Doehler (ibid.), explains learning 'consists of the continuous adaptation of linguistic and other semiotic resources in response to locally emergent communicative needs' (p. 106). From this view then, in classroom interaction, learning is thought to be based in the 'organized courses of practical activities, such as telling a story, discussing an event, negotiating a mutual understanding, but also in reading and writing' (Doehler, ibid., p. 107). Sociocognitive-minded scholars such as Philp, Adams and Iwashita (2014) argue that even 'learner interaction itself can be valuable for learning' (p. 31).

To resolve this issue of whether a learning opportunity is either a product or a process, Batstone (2010) distinguishes between holistic sociocognition and analytic sociocognition. The former takes the view that product is inseparable from process, while the latter takes the position that products 'can usefully be analysed at a theoretical level as separable elements' (p. 10). Batstone (ibid.) goes on to

explain that '[i]n separating out the cognitive from the social, analytic perspectives enable us to investigate how elements act upon one another and how, in doing so, they change one another' (p. 10). The analytic perspective further holds 'that particular elements or combinations of elements act upon one another to lead to partially predictable outcomes, and that at least some of these elements can be influenced by careful pedagogic intervention' (p. 11). As such, a sociocognitive view suggests that learning opportunities are not only products, but also simultaneously entrenched as a part of the process of interaction itself.

In synthesizing views of learning that account for both cognitive and social positions, Seedhouse (2010) points to a recent model from SLA research proposed by Ellis (2010) that conceptualizes learning as both product and process. In this model, Ellis (ibid.) theorizes learning as having four distinct components: a gap [in knowledge], a social construction, internalization/self-regulation, and transfer of learning as shown in Figure 5.2 below. Built into the model are three levels of assumptions.

Classroom interaction that demonstrates any of the four components identified in Figure 5.2 can be taken as evidence of the learning process taking place. As such, we can take interaction that displays a portion of the model not only as part of the learning process, but also as a learning opportunity. Therefore, one way learning opportunities become observable is with the emergence of the gap, which may occur by a variety of means. In this thesis, one type of learning opportunity is when a gap in knowledge surfaces.

1. The learner could not do x at time of a (the 'gap');
2. The learner co-adapted x at time b ('social construction');
3. The learner initiated x at time c in a similar context as in time b (internalization/self-regulation');
4. The learner employed x at time d in a new context (transfer of learning).

Level 1 – change originates in social activity and is scaffolded,
Level 2 - the learner demonstrates the ability of the new feature in a similar context but independent of scaffolding,
Level 3 - the learner can extend use of the new feature in an extremely different context.

Figure 5.2 Model of learning process. Adapted from Ellis, 2010, p. 44.

However, if as van Lier (2004) suggests, learning opportunities arise from participation and use, then learning opportunities may not be relegated only to responses to linguistic problems. For

example, participants may build upon another's response in some cases or reformulate a partner's response in others. Although there is no gap in knowledge in these instances, they are also taken as opportunities for learning. During interaction in both *ABC* and *DVDay* lessons, opportunities for learning arise through the use of materials. These learning opportunities can be linked to the use of the video-based materials as later chapters show.

5.6.6   Adaptation

In Chapter 3 [sections 3.11 & 3.12], I discussed principles and techniques of adaptation as use of materials. Because teachers adapted materials in this study, I analyzed the ways teachers used adaptation as use of materials. Similar to previous studies on adaptation such as Miguel (2015) and Bosompem (2014) [detailed in section 3.12], I use the framework of adaptation techniques from McDonough et al. (2013) as codes for the teacher adaptation of materials. I applied codes of adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying, and reordering as defined in section 3.11 to notes from classroom observations.

5.6.7   Student questionnaire data

Questionnaire data were treated in two ways. First, I compiled percentages for each Likert-item response. The percentages provide descriptive statistics on the beliefs of the students in the sample. For example, 72% of *ABC* learners agreed that they are better at explaining themselves in English after taking these lessons. Originally, I had included all of the learners in the sample prior to the data condensation process mentioned above. After determining which learners would fall out of the study through data condensation, I removed data from those learners. Descriptive statistics provide a snap shot for members of a particular sample (Dörnyei, 2007). These descriptive statistics are used to enhance data from the classroom recordings.

Second, the questionnaires also had two open-ended questions, which allowed learners to provide additional details about their experiences with the use of the materials. *ABC* learners and *DVDay* learners wrote 100 and 69 unique responses, respectively, for a total of 169 replies. These responses

were written almost exclusively in Japanese, and most of the responses were limited to one or two
sentences.

Table 5.6 Codes of student responses and examples

Code	Example of student responses
Classroom Technique	12b. After watching the DVD it's better to ask about our impressions. (Mike *ABC*)
Comments on Listening	1a. My listening ability improved little by little due to listening to English conversation repeatedly. (Starflower *ABC*)
Comments on Speaking	10a. Having the video encouraged us to have conversations. (Becky *DVDay*)
Critique of Video	7b. I wanted to watch BBC news and also wanted to watch news in which the theme is Japanese news in English. (Kengo ABC)
English Skills	9a. I had to use English so I think my English speaking and English ability improved a little. (Becky *ABC*)
Positive Video comments	10a. Every time the theme was different so I could go on without being bored. It was better than just using a textbook. (Miho *DVDay*)
Student Personalization	14a. I liked the contents of the DVD which contained areas (fields) I'm interested in. (Becky *ABC*)

Note: All examples are translated from Japanese

After I translated the responses into English, a native-Japanese speaker checked the translations to

ensure accuracy. The translation process marks the beginning of analysis of the questionnaire

responses. For further analysis, I printed the responses and read them repeatedly to develop codes.

After several iterations of initial coding by hand, I entered these responses into the HyperRESEARCH

software package and finalized codes for each response. The codes are listed in Table 5.6 with

examples.

5.6.8   Teacher interview data

I transcribed, printed, and bound data from the teacher interviews. As previously mentioned,

transcription serves as the first step in analysis. Interview data were also read multiple times, and I

used the technique of *themeing the data* as often found in qualitative studies (Saldaña, 2013).

Themeing 'identifies what a unit of data is about and/or what it means' with the goal to develop key

themes from a corpus (Saldaña, 2013, p. 267). I then was able to match themes in the teacher

interviews to data in the classroom observations and audio recordings. In this way, I selected the

teacher interview extracts included in analysis. These interview data augment the empirical data in the audio recordings and direct observations from the classroom activities.

As explained in section 5.6.3, analysis of the transcripts from peer interaction focuses on topics. Teachers had discussed topics as a theme in their interviews, so I then used constant comparison to return to the teacher interview data to learn what was discussed regarding topics. Common in qualitative research, constant comparison is when researchers '[. . .] compare one segment of data with another to determine similarities and differences' (Merriam, 2009, p. 30). In doing so, I selected interview extracts for further analysis related to topics. Comparing what happens in the audio recordings and classroom observations to the teacher interviews with regard to topics leads to a deeper understanding of topics from multiple data points.

5.7 Methodology summary

The research in this thesis is founded on relativist and social constructivist positions. I adopt a theoretical view rooted in sociocognition and follow an ecological approach. Because research on materials use is a relatively new area, there are few established directions on ways to analyze use. As such, I selected a qualitative research design not only to account for the complexity of the language classroom, but also due to the lack of control over multiple variables while collecting data from classrooms of different teachers using the two textbooks. This multiple case study relies on a variety of data including audio recordings of classroom interaction, classroom observations, teacher interviews, student questionnaires, and classroom materials. Analysis is exploratory and data-driven. Moreover, analysis combines analytic sociocognition with an ecological perspective. Therefore, I look at learning opportunities as both product and process. As do other qualitative researchers, I use diverse techniques to meet the needs of analysis (Miles et al., 2014). I focus on activities and interactions in the classroom ecology though analysis of topics, adaptations of materials, affordances of video materials, and common language found on an interactivity basis to understand ways participants use the video-based materials in practice. In the next two chapters, I provide analysis through means that I detailed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 6:   *ABC World News 14* Classrooms

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the use of the *ABC World News 14* (*ABC*) course book in classrooms. First, I show ways in which interaction unfolds during pair-work discussions in *Speaking Activity E* of the *ABC* units [detailed section 4.7.1] mainly referred to as the *final speaking activity* (FSA). The FSA is prompted by discussion questions that follow viewing the video. Analysis tracks topics in the FSAs as learners begin their speaking activity and as the topics shift throughout these interactions [detailed in section 5.6.3]. By analyzing the topics and topic shifts, ways in which learners use the video-based materials to elicit classroom interaction become clear. Next, I shift the analysis to the ways in which the teachers use the materials during the video-based sequences of the lessons. This section on teacher use provides an understanding of the full range of the *ABC* video-based activities. Finally, the analysis tracks common language throughout the pre-video, video, and post-video activities. Presenting materials use by both the learners and teachers gives a detailed understanding of the ways in which the *ABC* material is used in these language lessons. To be clear, I begin the chapter by presenting findings from the last activity first, then later in the chapter return to the beginning of the sequence of classroom events that lead to these final speaking activities (FSAs). I present the findings out of chronological order because I view the peer interactions to be of primary importance in this thesis.

6.2 Topics in *ABC* interaction

As mentioned above and explained in section 5.6.3, topics in the peer interaction during the final speaking activity are analyzed in two main ways: initial moves, and topic shifts. Each topic shift is labeled as a particular topic, and the shifts are then chained together to show the topic flow in the final speaking activities. In the following sections, both the findings from the initial moves and the topic flow are presented. Results show learners elicit topics related to the materials. In addition, learners are able to develop topics based on the materials that often shift into personalized topics. Lastly, opportunities for learning arise within these FSAs.

6.2.1   Initial moves in *ABC*

Concentrating analysis on initial moves is relevant to the present study for a number of reasons. Because many learners in the Japanese context have limited experience with pair work as discussed in Chapter 2, it is worthwhile to learn what learners do to begin the activity as a part of the whole. The initial moves help to understand ways in which the materials may be used to begin the speaking activity. Moreover, initial moves are relevant to the present study because we can learn ways in which the learners use the video-based materials as an impetus for topics. Topics in the initial moves would likely relate to the development of topics and topic shifts. For these reasons, analysis of initial moves is a part of the overall analysis.

While the teachers assign the speaking activities as agreed upon in the conditions for participation [section 4.7.1], the activities are conducted somewhat differently by the teachers. On one hand, Kengo and Becky assign partners for the pair work randomly and ask learners to discuss answers to specific question prompts. In this way, the class time allotted to the FSA is broken up into two or three segments because each unit has two or three questions. For this reason, learners in these classes have more chances to create initial moves. On the other hand, Mike and Starflower let their students choose partners and give them an uninterrupted timeframe for the FSAs where the learners decide how long to discuss each question. This technique results in the dyads being in their groups for a longer period of uninterrupted time during the FSAs; therefore, these learners have fewer chances for initial moves. These techniques for pairing learners and assigning question prompts represent not only ways in which the teachers use the materials, but also directions for learners to use the materials.

In the previous chapter [section 5.6.3], I presented the codes for the types of moves in the initial transitions. First, the initial moves are coded as either questions or statements. These descriptive codes simply state *what* the initial moves are. The second layer of analysis includes a coding scheme for specific categories of action within each type of initial move to learn what the learners do with the initial moves. Three categories of action emerge: (1) reading the question prompt, (2) clarifying the question prompt, and (3) video themeing. With both levels of coding, I detail not only what each initial move is, but also what is happening at that point in the interaction. As such, the way in which

learners use the material in the initial moves becomes evident. As a reminder to the reader, although the letters used to denote the students in the transcripts may be the same, these students are usually different [explained in section 5.6.2].

6.2.1.1   *Reading question prompt*

The most common way for learners to begin working together on the FSA is by reading the questions from the prompt aloud in their entirety. Extracts 6.1 and 6.2 show learners reading questions.

Extract 6.1 104_R3_121206_0078_Becky_ADHD

```
104  L:        how are you how are your eating habits? [Reading]
105  R:        yes yes I'm eh I'm eat I'm drinking ah milk everyday
```

Extract 6.2 R4_121008_0088_Mike_Disaster

```
001  L:        how did the Japanese people work together after the
               Tohoku earthquake? [Reading]
002  L2:       I think ah the Japanese people maybe to connecting
               each people like (unintl.) to think and the other I
               think to connecting is the most important so like
               (unintl.) mm to [pages flipping] (unintl.)
               volunteering is important
```

Reading whole questions is a straightforward way into the FSA that allows learners to immediately answer. However, in other cases, the learners read part of the question and translate it into Japanese as in Extract 6.3.

Extract 6.3 103_R2_121206_0075_Becky_ADHD

```
170  L:        future
171  R:        hum?
172  L:        future
173  R:        future
174  L:        future future eh shorai (eh in the future)[whispers]
175  R:        douyu koto? (what does it mean)
176  L:        shorai shorai shorai (in the future in the future in
               the future) [whispers] (unintl.)
177  R:        (laughs)
178  L:        future
179  R:        shorai nani? (in the future what?)
180  L:        shorai kennkou de itai ka? (do you want to be healthy
               in the future?)(laughs)
```

In Extract 6.3, Student L picks the word 'future' from the question prompt in Turn 170. Because

Student R does not seem to understand in Turn 171, Student L then repeats the word and translates it

into Japanese. Then in Turn 180, Student L establishes a topic for discussion in Japanese.

Likewise, in Extract 6.4, after reading a whole question in Turn 011, Student R confides in

Japanese that he is unsure of the meaning of the question prompt. Student L then translates 'equator'

into Japanese in Turn 012, and the other learners in the group seem to understand.

Extract 6.4 R8_121018_0007_Kengo_Elephants

```
011  R:      does the equator run through Kenya [reading] wakanai
             kore (I don't understand this)
012  L:      sekido to  koto (the equator)
013  R2:     ah soiyukoto (ah [it's] said like that)
014  R:      ah
```

By reading the questions first, the learners show an expected use of the prompts in order to move

into the FSA. However, the English prompts are not always understood, and at times, the learners need

clarification before the FSAs move forward. The next category of action also demonstrates the need

for clarification although in a different way.

6.2.1.2 *Clarifying question prompt*

Whereas learners in the previous section begin by reading the question prompt aloud, other

learners use Japanese to clarify the question prompts. Extracts 6.5 and 6.6 represent examples of

learners clarifying the question prompts in initial moves.

Extract 6.5 102_R3_121018_0055_Becky_Mom's_guilt

```
091  T:      raise your hand if you have questions OK
092  B:      hataraita hito (person who worked)[Student does
             literal translation of the question] (unintl.)nomoha
             nanika mitaina (talking about what's the)
093  G:      hum? (huh?)
094  B:      hataraiterunoni hataraiteiruttuka nanka onna no
             hito ga hatarakunoni kanou ni saseteru koto mitaina
             unn kanatte ato um (even working is working to work
             as a working woman what makes  it possible  for
             women  to work I suppose and um)  chil child
             kodomono sewani hataraiteiru hito ga hataraiteiru
             hahaoyaga un nante yundarou uh (looking after
             children working human working mother how can I say)
```

In Extract 6.5 above, Student B clarifies the question by translating the prompt from English to Japanese lexicogrammatical patterns using a process similar to the *yakudoku* grammar-translation method commonly used for English instruction in Japan [detailed in section 2.4]. In Turn 094, he works out an approximation of the meaning of the question so that a discussion topic is established and the learners can begin. Similarly, the learners in Extract 6.6 also translate a prompt from English to Japanese before moving forward.

Extract 6.6 101_R6121015_0051_Mike_Happiest

```
002  L:        nan demo ii tomo shiawase ni tsuite (anything is fine
               related to happiness)
003  R:        honto dane (that's true)
```

Learners demonstrate a need to clarify gaps in knowledge about the question prompts before continuing on with the activity. Because the clarification is often done in Japanese, use of Japanese indicates a need for clarification. These learners have the benefit of a shared mother tongue that allows for use of Japanese as means for clarification. Most likely, learners have had few opportunities to speak with classmates in English [detailed in Chapter 2], so they may not have confidence to move forward without confirmation in Japanese as Extract 6.6 shows. So, clarification not only addresses gaps in knowledge, but also can confirm a way to proceed with the activity.

Relying on translation to clarify the question prompt demonstrates a use of materials. Clarification shows that learners struggle at times to understand the question prompt. This struggle signals opportunities for both teaching and learning. Depending on their teaching views, teachers can either spend more time explaining the questions prior to putting learners in groups for FSAs to limit the Japanese or know that the learners clarify in Japanese before moving the FSA forward. The learner use of Japanese is relevant to the activity, so there are the benefits such as learner cooperation and learner control over the activity. Also, teachers may want to encourage strategies to stay in English such as circumlocution, which is when learners use simple English to explain gaps in knowledge (Oxford, 1990; 2016).

The principal difference between clarifying and reading from the prompt is that the former begins in Japanese while the latter starts in English. While reading the question may or may not make use of

Japanese, clarifying usually occurs in Japanese. In both instances, learners are able to establish a foundation on which to move the discussion forward. However, in clarifying moves, more effort is required by learners before the FSA continues. This effort appears as cooperation between learners when they assist each other in order to clarify.

6.2.1.3 *Video themeing*

In the third category of action, video themeing, interaction moves to direct responses to the prompts. In Extract 6.7, Student L in Turn 002 brings up a theme from the video to elicit interaction.

Extract 6.7 104_R3_121206_0078_Becky_ADHD

```
002  L:      so what do you think about chemical coloring
003  R:      I don't think anymore
004  L:      (laughs)
```

Likewise, in Extract 6.8, learners begin with responses based on prompts, which tie to the themes from the video materials of finding work in difficult economic times and minimum wage. In Turn 005, Student L brings up the challenge of finding a job when she and her partner will graduate in two years. These learners relate the theme to their own lives.

Extract 6.8 R8_121029_0013_Kengo_McJobs

```
005  L:      two years we will become to senior grades and it's
             big problem for us
006  R:      and what was minimum minimum wage I think it's
             convenient (unintl.) I think that wage is several
             several hundred fifty it's (unintl.)
007  L:      (laughs)
008  R:      yes my friend is there working that and and 7-11
             maybe eighty hundred
```

In Extract 6.9, learners make use of the textbook to divulge an opinion about a video theme. While Student L in Turn 012 does not read a question prompt, she reads from another section of the textbook, which has parts of the video transcript translated into Japanese.

Extract 6.9 103_R2_21206_0075_Becky_ADHD

```
006  L:      I think
007  R:      mm
008          [sound of pages flipping]
009  R:      mm
010  L:      here
011  R:      hum?
```

```
012  L:        I surprised [reads] one in ten children suffers from
               ADHD
```

In video themeing, the prompts spark discussion themes yet remain in the background as learners respond with video-based themes.

Overall, the initial moves show learners' use of the materials as support to begin the FSAs by reading aloud, clarifying, and themeing. Clearly, learners rely on the prompts to establish a direction for the flow of the interaction. The prompts tie back to the video, and 56% of *ABC* learners report that the videos inspired discussion topics. Although the prompts control the direction of the initial moves, there is still some control by the learners over the direction of the interaction. 54% of learners report that they controlled the direction of the FSAs. However, some learners desire more control. One learner wrote, 'I want to choose a theme that I want to learn about from several themes. I want more choice. I want to pick the theme myself.' In reading and clarifying the prompts, learners have less control over the themes in the initial moves, while in video themeing, there is room for more choice. After completing their initial moves, learners further develop interaction during the final speaking activities with topics and topic shifts.

6.2.2   Topics and topic shifts

The analysis of topics in learner interaction focuses on how learners manage peer-to-peer discussions by shifting topics throughout the speaking activity. Investigation of topics within student interaction is a primary component for understanding interrelationships between materials and practical use in the classroom ecology [detailed in sections 3.9 & 3.10], and benefits of video for speaking are believed to occur through topics elicited in interaction [section 3.5]. As detailed earlier in section 5.6.3, topic transitions are identified and coded with topic names to establish boundaries for analysis of topics, to understand how topics flow during speaking activities, and to look for relationships to the materials. According to Morris-Adams (2008), topic shifts during spontaneous speaking include topical transitions and disjunctive topics shifts [detailed in section 5.6.3]. Furthermore, side sequences regarding questions about language can emerge (Morris-Adams, 2008; Zhang, 2008) and may even be viewed as subtopics (Nakahama, Tyler, & van Lier, 2001). These

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categories are also relevant to data in the present study. Student interactions in FSAs often display the stepwise moves of topical transitions over the cleaner breaks found in disjunctive topic shifts, which is similar to results from previous research (e.g., Morris-Adams, 2008).

Because the speaking activities instruct learners to discuss answers based on the question prompts, a potential develops at the onset and continues throughout the speaking activities for the topics in the prompts to exert an influence over the direction of the student interaction. Given that students follow the instructions of the speaking activity and speak about topics rooted in the question prompts, the prompts themselves serve as a base to develop topics in student interaction as shown in the previous section. Topics in the interaction provide links from the speaking activities to the textbook materials. As students develop topics within the activities, the links to the materials become apparent in the topics as the following sections show.

6.2.3   Topics as use of materials

Extracts below show instances of how students produce topic transitions in their speaking activities. The names of the topic transitions are the topics and are strung together to produce a topic flow of the entire activity [explained in section 5.6.3]. Appendix J contains the topic flow for all the FSAs of both textbooks. Extract 6.10 is an example of a dyad in a sequence of talk on questions from Unit 3 entitled *Happiest person in America?* in Mike's classroom. As mentioned above, Mike allowed students to choose their partners and let them use the question prompts without interruption. He adapts the activity by giving learners a choice to either use the question prompts in the FSA as discussion material or to speak about what makes them happy or unhappy. The question prompts for this extract are:

1. Everything about Alvin Wong put him in the category of happiest American. What do you think the happiest Japanese would look like? Do you think there are many differences between what makes people happy in the U.S. and in Japan?

2. Which countries in the world to you think are the happiest? Why do you think that might be so?

Mike adds the adaptation prompt, 'So you can talk about you can use the questions on the board, or you can talk about when you're happy, or when you're not happy ok so the topic is quite open ok open just have a five-minute conversation.'

This dyad elects to speak about happiness in Japan as related to the first question prompt before

moving to personal happiness, which is the additional option Mike gives in his adaptation of the

activity. Teacher adaptation is addressed at length in a later section of this chapter [section 6.3]. For

now, I focus on the topic transitions and topic flow in the interaction. As mentioned earlier [section

5.6.3], topic flow analysis yields a summary of the topics included for the duration of the activity. For

example, the topic flow for this FSA is:

> *clarifying prompts>happy people in Japan>unhappiness in Japan>personal happiness>personal unhappiness>personal opinions on school experiences>personal happiness>alcohol*

Extract 6.10 shows two topic transitions: (1) at the juncture of where students move from *happy*

people in Japan to *unhappiness in Japan* in Turn 043, and (2) in Turn 062 from *unhappiness in Japan*

to *personal happiness*.

Extract 6.10 101_R6121015_0051_Mike_Happiest

```
L = Student L     R = Student R
019  R:      mm I think retired people
020  L:      mm
021  R:      is happiest
022  L:      mm
023  R:      because they don't work
024  L:      mm
025  R:      and um free
026  L:      mm
027  R:      so they can do mm they can (unintl.)
028  L:      hum? (huh?)
029  R:      nan demo nan demo dekiru jiyu (they have the freedom
             to do anything)
030  L:      ev-everything
031  R:      eh (laughs) they can
032  L:      they do everything
033  R:      do everything
034  L:      mm
035  R:      so
036  L:      so
037  R:      they are
038  L:      they are
039  R:      happiest
040  L:      mm
041  R:      mm
042  L:      mm mm mm
043  R:  ⇒  young people is not happiest
044  L:      yes OK me too
045  R:      (laughs)
```

```
046  L:       they they are eh they are des- they have, ah de-
              they feel depression
047  R:       mm
048  L:       about school office
049  R:       ahhh
050  L:       and relationship other with other people
051  R:       mmmmm they are pressed by work
052  L:       mm
053  R:       or school
054  L:       mmmmmm
055  R:       anymore
056  L:       mm
057  R:       so they don't happy they are happy
058  L:       un
059  R:       they they aren't happy
060  L:       un
061  R:       un so da na   (that's right)
062  L:  ⇒   are you happy?
```

As I explain in section 5.6.3, the naming of topics is interpretive in nature. In the first transition

of Extract 6.10, there are at least two options with regard to the interpretation of what the topic

becomes. On one hand, the topic transition could be thought to shift to a new focus of *young people in*

Japan in Turn 043 as contrasted to the previous topic of *happy people in Japan* in the Turns 019–039.

On the other hand, the new topic can alternatively be labeled *unhappiness in Japan* as contrasted,

again, to the previous topic of *happy people in Japan*. While it is possible to select either *young*

people in Japan or *unhappiness in Japan* as the shift in focus, a logical way to label the topic

transition is to look for support from the relationship between the topic of the question prompts and

what the students say to each other. In Turns 019–039, the students follow the question prompt to first

discuss Japanese people who are happiest and the reasons for their happiness. The focus is not about

age, but about reasons for being happy. This focus adheres to the topic of *happiness* in the question

prompt. When the learners shift the topic in Turn 043, the new topic can be labeled as *unhappiness in*

Japan, which is a logical coherence—a contrast to the former focus of happiness.

Moreover, in the initial move of this activity, students orient to the question prompts by

clarifying that speaking about happiness is what the activity should be about as shown in Extract 6.11

below. In this initial move, learners clarify the prompt [as explained in section 6.2.1.2] showing an

awareness of the limits of what they are supposed to be talking about.

Extract 6.11 101_R6_121015_0051_Mike_Happiest

L = Student L   R = Student R
```
002  L:      nan demo ii tomo shiawase ni tsuite (anything is fine
             related to happiness)
003  R:      honto dane (that's true)
```

Through links from topics in the FSAs to the video materials, we can see how learners use the video materials in interaction. There are lexical links in the topic transition of Turn 043 that tie back not only to prior interaction, but also to the materials. First, Student R uses *happiest* in Turns 021 and 039, and he is the member of the dyad who uses *not happiest* in the topic transition. Second, this lexical item appears in the question prompts four times and also in the adapted instructions. Third, the title of the unit is *Happiest person in America*?. Lastly, the word is repeated often in the video.

The topic flow for the FSA shows how learners use a topic found in the video with support from the question prompts to develop topics in the final speaking activity. Students watch and hear about happiness in the video, see the word in print throughout the video transcript in the unit, and see it again in the prompts. As such, the learners in Extract 6.10 go on to use happiness as a topic thematically to develop the speaking activity. Furthermore, in this instance, the video materials and prompts are used by learners to eventually reach a topic based on what makes them happy. Thus, learners make a topic from the video material relevant to their personal lives. From an ecological perspective, the FSA topics show a lexical and thematic relationship to the video materials.

As another example of topic transitions, Extract 6.12 is from one dyad in a sequence of interaction based on Question One from Unit 4 entitled *Working mom's guilt*. The students are put into random pairs by Becky and given instructions to have a discussion based on the question prompt provided to the students in Part E of the textbook. The question prompt for this extract is:

Question One

What percentage of women with children is working in your country? What has the trend been like over the past decade?

The overall topic flow details the topic transitions for this segment of the learner interaction. For Question One, the learners first clarify the meaning of the question prompt and then move to use the prompt as a topic. Within the topic of working mothers based on the prompt and the video, a series of topic transitions unfolds. The topic flow for the entire activity is:

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> *clarifying question prompt>working mothers>students' mothers' jobs>working mothers>reasons students' mothers work.*

Arrows at Turns 016 and 022 in Extract 6.12 show the topic transitions where *clarifying question prompt* becomes *working mothers* followed by *students' mothers' jobs*.

Extract 6.12 102_R3121018_0055_Becky_Mom's_guilt

G = Student G   B = Student B   T = Teacher

```
005  G:        eh doyu koto (eh what does it mean)
006  B:        nanka donnoguraino donnoguraino nanka sono
               kodomochino okaasan ga hatatairuka (well probably
               how many mothers who have children are working)
007  G:        ima (now a days?)
008  B:        mm (yes)
009  G:        de dou omouka (and how do you think about it)
010  B:        so sore nanka kako to kurabetemite mitaina kanjide
               mm (well well maybe compare with past)
011  G:        shiranai (I don't know)
012  B:        (laughs)
013  G:        (laughs) eh shiranai yo nandaro (eh I don't know how
               can I say)
014  B:        donnogurai dayo ne hum ma toriaezu (how many um well
               for the time being)
015  G:        mm
016  B:   ⇒   yarimashou (let's do it)
017  G:        (unintl.)
018  B:        umm doreguraidarouna ma I thin- (umm I wonder how
               many, well I thin-)
019  G:        kekkou iruyo ne (quite a lot right)
020  B:        iru ne (yes there are)
021  G:        I think eh um
022  B:   ⇒   I think most of mother works umm de (um and) my
               mother eto (ah) works at school
023  G:        eh (yeah)
024  B:        mm mm ma nandarona nandarona mm ma (mm mm well how
               can I say how can I say well) how about you?
025  G:        my mother mo hataraitemashita (also was working)
```

In Turns 005–015, learners clarify the question prompt in Japanese, so that they can move their discussion forward in accordance with the instructions of the activity. When Student B exclaims *yarimasho* (let's do it) in Turn 016, it marks the transition away from the prior topic to begin their speaking activity. While the utterance has the feature of a disjunctive topic transition due to the way it provides a clean break to move into the initial phase of the activity, there is also a component that relates to the activity itself. The move signals a boundary between what learners should be doing in their activity, and actually doing the activity. However, it is not totally unrelated to the prior talk. Two

things happen at this topic shift, it signals the time to move into the activity, and it acknowledges there

should be a shift in language use from Japanese to English. Furthermore, the shift supports the notion

that what came before it, i.e., the discussion on the meaning of the prompt, is a topic.

The next topic transition occurs in Turn 022 of Extract 6.12 when Student B begins with a

statement that most mothers work in Japan. This statement is made in response to the question prompt

of *What percentage of women with children is working in your country?*. In this example, the first part

of Turn 022 contains one topic initiated by Student B, and then he quickly transitions to another topic

at the end of the turn. The occurrence of two topic transitions in one turn shows that there are times

when a topic does not get developed. The second transition in the turn of, 'my mother *eto* (ah) works

at school' is a move to a personal topic that is picked up and developed further by Student G.

From a different lesson, Extract 6.13 displays two more examples of topic transitions in Turns

056 and 084. The question prompts and topic flow for this activity are:

Speaking Activity Two: How are your eating habits? What are some healthy foods that you eat
regularly? Do you have any unhealthy eating (or drinking) habits? Do you ever think about
changing them?

Topic Flow Activity Two: *personal eating habits>personal unhealthy eating habits>healthy
eating habits*

Extract 6.13 103_R2_121206_0075_Becky_ADHD

```
054  T:        [. . .]ok I'll give you about five minutes ready? go
055            [intentionally blank]
056  L:   ⇒    how are your eating habits? [reading]
057  R:        mm
058  L:        nandake (how can I say)
059  R:        mm I habits shukan (habit)shukan shukan (habit habit)
               hum mm mm I often eating salty foods (laughs)
060  L:        mm
061  R:        ahh eh takusan (ah a lot)
062  L:        rice
063  R:        rice
064  L:        miso soup
065  R:        ah rice
066  L:        salad
067  R:        ah nani nani (what what)
068  L:        wo nani (what [do you]) eat
069  R:        eat
070  L:        everyday
071  R:        everyday
072  L:        (laughs) eh soyu koto janaino kana (eh isn't it what
               that means I wonder)
```

128

```
073  R:        soyu koto soyu koto (yes that yes that)
074  L:        everyday janaina (no no) sometimes da (it is) (laughs)
075  R:        toki doki (sometimes) (laughs)
076  L:        often demo nai (not quite) usually
077  R:        mm
078  L:        my sister
080  R:        mm
081  L:        take care contains artificial coloring
082  R:        mm
083  L:        so I take care (laughs) it
084  R:   ⇒   do you have any unhealthy eating habits? [reading] mm
                do you ever think about changing them? [reading] mm I
085  L:        for example chakushokuryou (food coloring)
```

In Extract 6.13, the learners read the question prompts as topic transitions.

From another dyad, Extract 6.14 begins with Turn 049 when the learners are in the midst of

discussing the harmful nature of chemical coloring in food as a topic. The topic transitions to *Japanese*

food in Turn 068. The prompts and topic flow for this speaking activity are:

Speaking Activity One: [Instructions from teacher] 'Talk with your partner and try to discuss
about what you think the video is about. OK. What are they talking about in the video? What's
the topic? What are they trying to say? If you can't answer all the questions you have to work
with your partner and try to summarize the main points of the video.'

Topic Flow Activity One: *chemical coloring>Japanese food>joke on ADHD>student's present
emotional state*

Extract 6.14 104_R3_121206_0078_Becky_ADHD

```
049  R:        it it's ha-harm-harmful
050  L:        yeah
051  R:        for ah eto (ah um) humans he- human's health
052  L:        yeah
053  R:        so
054  L:        so ah
055  R:        I I want I I I hope it it is it is it's decreasing
056  L:        uh hum mm we have to return um my lifestyle
057  R:        ah
058  L:        um looks looks so food is n- is not important
059  R:        oh I see I see
060  L:        yeah
061  R:        I think so
062            [intentionally blank]
063            [intentionally blank]
064  L:        eh good
065  R:        (laughs) nandarouna (I wonder)
066  L:        mm (yes)
067  R:        eh (ah)
068  L:   ⇒   um what do you think about do you think about
069  R:        hai (ok) what do you think about
```

```
070  L:      what do you think about Japanese food? Japanese food
             use um green vegetable and white rice and um brown
             meats and orange carrot very colorful
071  R:      ah
072  L:      natural color
073  R:      yeah
```

By tracking topic transitions, ways in which learners manage and develop their topics become apparent. Learners often rely on the prompts in order to transition from topic to topic and even read the questions directly from the text. As such, the question prompts strongly impact the direction of the topics. By relying on the prompts not only at the beginning, but also throughout the activities, the learners exhibit the use of materials throughout the final speaking activity. In an ecological sense, the video is a part of the overall experience. However, most of the influence of the video on interaction seems controlled through the question prompts. The use of materials to elicit and develop topics also leads to the emergence of side sequences within the peer interactions.

6.2.4   Side sequences

Side sequences [detailed in sections 5.6.3 & 5.6.4] are instances that occur when learners seek clarification or address linguistic issues. Side sequences emerge when learners discuss topics in FSAs. Because these topics show links to the video-based materials as discussed above, side sequences are a part of the process of materials use as discussed below. Furthermore, the side sequences in the FSA interactions serve as evidence of learning opportunities. The types of side sequences in these data vary as they emerge during interaction in FSAs. For example, the side sequence in Extract 6.15 shows the process of one learner assisting another with a linguistic issue. In particular, the issue is a gap in knowledge that emerges while responding to a question prompt in the materials.

Extract 6.15 101_R6_121015_0051_Mike_Happiest - side sequence with vocabulary assistance

```
073  R:      and I can asobutte nandake? (how do I say play?)
074  L:      play
075  R:      I can play
076  L:      un
077  R:      everything
078  L:      un
080  R:      for example eating eat dinner with my friend
```

```
081  L:      un
082  R:      uh mm play game
083  L:      uh
```

Extract 6.15 shows at least the first two components of the Ellis (2010) sociocognitive model of learning: a gap and a social construction [detailed in section 5.6.4]. As such, the process in Extract 6.15 displays a learning opportunity.

In another example, the side sequence in Extract 6.16 in Turn 074 relates to frequency adverbs. Student L makes attempts at finding the most suitable adverb for what she wants to say, so the linguistic issue is choosing the appropriate adverb. The learners playfully suggest different frequency adverbs before Student L settles on one in Turn 076. In other words, they work with language to reach a decision.

Extract 6.16 103_R2_121206_0075_Becky_Mom's_guilt - side sequence with frequency adverbs

R = Student R   L = Student L

```
067  R:      ah nani nani (what what)
068  L:      wo nani (what [do you]) eat
069  R:      eat
070  L:      everyday
071  R:      everyday
072  L:      (laughs)eh soyu koto janaino kana (eh isn't it what that
             means I wonder)
073  R:      soyu koto soyu koto (yes that yes that)
074  L:  ⇒  everyday janaina (no no) sometimes da (it is) (laughs)
075  R:      toki doki (sometimes) (laughs)
076  L:      often demo nai (not quite) usually
```

The next side sequence shown in Extract 6.17 addresses a gap in Student G's knowledge with assistance on a lexical-grammatical basis. Student B helps his partner construct her idea in English by providing both words and grammar. The linguistic issue is solved through social activity when Student G uses 'is working' in Turn 037.

Extract 6.17 102_R3_121018_0055_Becky_Mom's_guilt - lexical-grammatical assistance

```
029  G:      my nannte iyuno (how can I say) my mother hatarai
             (work-)
030  B:      ima wa (how about now)
031  G:      ima mo hataraiteiru hazu (she is still working I
             suppose)
032  B:      ah ja (ah then) is
033  G:      is?
```

```
034  B:        working is is working
035  G:        working
036  B:        mm
037  G:   ⇒    is working jimugyou jimu (office job office work)
038  B:        ah jimu (office work)
```

Another learning opportunity emerges as a side sequence Turn 218 of Extract 6.18. The linguistic

issue is Student R's knowledge gap about whether *drink* is a countable or uncountable noun.

Extract 6.18 103_R2_121206_0075_Becky_ Mom's_guilt - side sequence countable nouns

R = Student R   L = Student L

```
214  R:        don't drink
215  L:        oh
216  R:        nanda (what) juice
217  L:        drink
218  R:   ⇒    some many wakanai (I don't know)(laughs)
219  L:        drink
220  R:        drink nomanai (I don't drink)
221  L:        alcohol
222  R:        nomanai (I don't drink)
223  L:        a lot of alcohol wa [particle marker]
```

In Extract 6.18, Student L assists Student R with an appropriate determiner for 'drink' in Turn 223.

There are two examples of side sequences in Extract 6.19. First, Student L attempts to ask a

question in Turn 178. Student R is unsure about the query and seeks to clarify in Turn 181. Next,

Student L clarifies in Japanese and follows up in Turn 184 with the question in grammatically correct

English. By both learners using the two languages, Student L finds an answer to the linguistic

problem.

Extract 6.19 101_R6_121015_0051_Mike_Happiest - two lexical-grammatical side sequences

```
178  L:        do hum di did did you nanda? (what?) drink
179  R:        mmmm
180  L:        kind kind of alcohol?
181  R:        nan shuryui? dore kurai nandaka? (how many kinds? how
               much?)
182  L:        nani wo nondaka? (what did you drink?)
183  R:        mmmm beer
184  L:   ⇒    what kind of alcohol?
185  R:        beer
186  L:        un
187  R:        and cocktail
188  L:        un
189  R:        and nihon shu? (Japanese saké)
190  L:        un Japanese alcohol (laughs)
```

```
191  R:        Japanese alcohol
192  L:        (laughs) yeah yeah yeah
```

The second side sequence occurs when a gap in knowledge arises in Turn 189 as Student R uses the Japanese *nihon shu* for saké (rice wine). In the next turn, Student L offers an adequate translation, and Student R then uses the phrase. Again, this exchange meets the first two components of the Ellis (2010) model.

A side sequence can surface when learners are unsure of the accuracy of their language. In Turn 030 of Extract 6.20, Student L asks her partner about the appropriateness of what she had said earlier in Turn 028 about food dye.

Extract 6.20 103_R2_121206_0075_Becky_ADHD - side sequence about correctness of response

R = Student R   L = Student L

```
026  L:        ingredients themselves is nandaro (how can I
               say)difficult janakute nandarou (not that how can I say)
027  R:        mm (unintl.)
028  L:        mm food dye hum food dyes are not necessary [pages flip]
               I think food dyes are not necessary
029  R:        mm (yeah)
030  L:    ⇒   eh atteiru (eh is it correct?)
031  R:        food dye dye [whispers]
032  L:        shokuyou shokuyou shikiso (dye for food food)
033  R:        wa arimasen  (there isn't)
034  L:        I think
035  R:        mm ah it depends dane (right)(laughs)
```

In sum, many side sequences in these data show learners assist each other to find answers to a variety of knowledge gaps while using the materials. During the side-sequence process, learners exhibit a spirit of cooperation in playful ways as evidenced by the willingness to both accept and give help, and the laughter around these sequences. At the same time, as one might expect, there is great concern by learners to assure that correct English is used in the activity, so the activity is taken seriously by the learners. With the liberal use of translation, such attention to detail may be related to education in the Japanese context that places focus on the *yakudoku* grammar-translation method [explained in section 2.2]. Learners use Japanese as a resource to help solve problems.

Taken overall, the analysis of the initial moves, FSA topics, and side sequences in the sections above show ways in which learners use the materials in *ABC* lessons. The initial moves demonstrate that learners begin the activity through the question prompts, and often these prompts themselves become the subject of the interaction before learners begin to produce responses. The analysis of the topic flow for the peer interaction reveals that learners make further use of the question prompts to speak about topics related to these prompts and themes from the videos. However, the question prompts seem to drive the topics. As such, use of the prompts may have more of an influence over speaking topics than the video material. While learners did watch the video, topics in the video may be remotely related to those in the prompts. For this reason, the writing of the question prompts requires careful thought. Topics within the FSAs do show ties to the video materials as directed through the question prompts, so learners can be said to be using a combination of the videos and prompts to elicit interaction.

From an ecological perspective, the side sequences are a part of the classroom process and are ways in which learners use materials. These data support van Lier's (2004) view that learning opportunities arise from participation and use. Side sequences also appear in FSAs with the use of the other textbook in this study [details in section 7.3]. So far in this chapter, I have presented findings from peer interaction in relation to the video-based materials in *ABC*. The following section turns to ways in which the video and materials are treated and viewed by teachers in this study with regard to the ways in which materials are adapted.

6.3 Teacher adaptation of *ABC* materials

Teacher adaptation is included in analysis for several reasons. Following the data-driven nature of this study, teacher adaptation emerged as a point of interest during my classroom observations when I saw that teachers constantly adapt *ABC* materials in different ways. Furthermore, recent research places adaptation as use of materials (e.g., Shawer, 2010; Igielski, 2014; Nuangpolmak, 2014; Miguel, 2015). Moreover, adaptation is clearly a part of the literature on materials development (e.g., McDonough et al., 2013; McGrath, 2013) and including analysis on teacher adaptation demonstrates the synergy between materials development and materials use [sections 3.7, 3.11, & 3.12].

Teachers adapt the segments of the *ABC* units in multiple ways. Discussed elsewhere in this thesis, adaptation is when materials are modified in some way [sections 3.11 & 3.12]. As a reminder to the reader, each *ABC* lesson begins with pre-video activities that are almost always consistent from unit to unit [details in section 4.7.1 & Appendix C]. The pre-video activities in *ABC* have three major sections: *Preview questions*, *Vocabulary check* (a matching exercise), and *Fill in the blank* (a cloze exercise related to the vocabulary-check exercise). These pre-video segments are related to the video either through lexis or themes. Although *ABC* teachers all teach the pre-video activities, the ways in which these activities are adapted varies by teacher. Applying the list of adaptation techniques from McDonough et al. (2013)—adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying, and reordering—four out of these five techniques [detailed in sections 3.11, 3.13, & 5.6.6.] are present in these data. Table 6.1 displays the adaptation techniques used by teachers in *ABC* activities prior to the final speaking activities.

Table 6.1 Adaptation techniques in activities prior to FSAs observed in *ABC* lessons

	Unit Section	Mike 1 (McJobs)	Mike 2 (ADHD)	Mike 3 (Punishment)	Becky 1 (McJobs)	Becky 2 (ADHD)	Kengo 1 (Elephants)	Kengo 2 (McJobs)	Kengo 3 (Battle)
1.	Preview questions	Modifying	Adding	Adding	Adding, modifying	Deleting	Deleting	Reordering, Deleting	Modifying, Reordering
2a.	Warm-Up Vocabulary Check	Deleting	Deleting	Deleting	Adding	Adding	Adding	Adding	No adapting
2b.	Warm-up Cloze	Deleting	Deleting	Deleting	Adding	Deleting	Adding	No adapting	No adapting
3.	News Story (Video)	4x	3x	4x	3x	4x	3x	3x	3x
4.	Transcript Cloze Completed	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

For reasons explained below, it is important to bear in mind that each teacher had agreed to include the final speaking activity (i.e., *Speaking Activity E*) in their *ABC* lessons as a condition to participate in this study [detailed in Chapter 4]. While teachers did conduct this activity in their lessons, they also adapt it at times. In the sections below, I first present adaptations of the materials that take place prior to the final speaking activity followed by teacher adaptation in the FSAs. So, the next section starts at the beginning of the video-based activities and moves forward in chronological order.

6.3.1 Preview questions

The preview questions are always accompanied by a Japanese translation and a single monochrome screen shot from the video for the unit [shown in Appendix C]. In class, Mike modifies the preview questions to make the introduction to the video more learner-centered. For instance, instead of using *Preview Question One* in Appendix C, Mike asks questions such as, 'Do you have a part-time job?' Then, he moves into a story about minimum wage in his home country of Australia, which provides a livable minimum wage. After that, Mike continues with further questions that have relevance to the students' lives regarding hourly wages they would like to get, and the kinds of jobs they find undesirable. Mike comments on the current employment situation in Japan instead of asking *Preview Question Two* found in Appendix C, which is about the American economy. Finally, Mike asks the students to try to predict what the contents of the video are based on the title of the unit, *McJobs: 50,000 New Jobs*. Students are responsive and engaged throughout this teacher-led interaction. With his own questions and comments, Mike turns the interaction to topics of a more relevant and personalized nature for both the learners and himself.

Similarly, when Becky teaches the same *McJobs* lesson, she modifies the preview questions by rewriting. As for the first question in the lesson regarding the unit, Becky asks, 'What is your dream job?' After answering the question herself, Becky then elicits responses from around the room, and learners give answers. As such, Becky also personalizes the questions.

On the other hand, Kengo adapts these activities in the *McJobs* lesson by reordering. First, he checks the translation questions from the previous unit, which had been assigned as homework. Next, Kengo has the learners do *Vocabulary check* prior to the preview questions, thereby reversing the order of the pre-video activities. When Kengo moves to the preview questions, he asks Question One from Appendix C and is met with silence because no one answers. Thus, when the preview questions are adapted to elicit more personalized and relevant responses, the learners are engaged and offer answers, whereas with a lack of such relevance the learners do not respond.

6.3.2 Pre-video activities

Both *Vocabulary check* and *Fill in the blanks* appear under the heading of *Warm-up exercises*. In *Vocabulary check*, words that appear on the left are meant to be matched with their corresponding definitions on the right represented by alphabetic letters. *Fill in the blanks*, a cloze activity, uses the *Vocabulary check* words as the fill-in answers [Appendix C]. The checking of answers to the *Vocabulary check* section is adapted in different ways. Approximately half of the time, teachers both elicit and accept student answers that are the alphabetic letters corresponding to the dictionary meaning on the right side of the page as shown in Appendix C. In other words, an answer such as 'C' is given by a learner. Both Becky and Kengo allow such letter-only answers in several lessons. However, this answering pattern is inconsistent in that Becky and Kengo also have learners in other lessons give one-word answers or read the full sentences in the other cloze activity (the *News story* activity), both of which get the learners to say more than just a letter.

Mike deletes the cloze activity in each lesson under observation, and Becky deletes this activity once. In Mike's case, because he deletes the *Vocabulary check*, it stands to reason that he never does the cloze activity. After all, the cloze activity depends on vocabulary from the *Vocabulary check*. Mike is the most experienced teacher of the three and seems to feel comfortable adapting. In doing so, Mike exhibits typical characteristics of an experienced teacher by taking control of the lesson. Prior research has found that experienced teachers demonstrate more autonomy with critical engagement with materials than less experienced teachers (Sampson, 2009). Mike later admits in an interview that he does not always follow the book and that he has a reason for adapting, which he never explains. The reason seems to be that he wants to personalize the materials as indicated by the way he adapts the preview questions as explained in section 6.3.1. Becky deletes the cloze activity without a clear reason. She just seems to want to move on with the lesson and get to the video. Perhaps she feels that *Vocabulary check* is enough. It is even possible that she just forgets about the cloze activity in the flow of a busy lesson.

Teachers in both the vocabulary check and cloze activity provide instances of personalizing when adapting the material. McDonough et al. (2013) propose personalizing as an objective of adaptation

[details in section 3.11]. Becky reads each vocabulary word aloud to begin the activity in the *McJobs* lesson before giving students time to do the activity. When she elicits answers to check to the activity, students provide one-word answers that she then writes on the board. Becky uses adding to extend the one-word answers by inserting the vocabulary word in a context of her own. For example, she uses 'iconic' in a sentence about her dream job based on her earlier modification of the preview question from the previous activity that she had already personalized. As such, personalization also happens in the vocabulary check activity. Similarly, Kengo selects the word 'curiosity' from a sentence in one of the cloze activities and uses the word in a personal way to tell the class about how his passion for the game of baseball fuels his curiosity about the sport. These adaptations through the technique of adding demonstrate further examples of personalization by the teachers in the warm-up activities.

There is an ongoing effort by the teachers to make the material personally relevant not just for the learners, but also for the teachers themselves as they rely on their personal experiences to adapt material. In both the preview questions and pre-video activities, we see Mike, Becky, and Kengo personalize the materials. Such personalized instances by teachers act as examples for learners to potentially emulate. Teachers appear to believe that personal experiences in regard to themes in the materials are a rich resource for promoting discussion. All of the themes and vocabulary of the pre-video activities tie into the video material and serve as a preparation for watching the playback of the video.

6.3.3   *ABC* video playback

In order for video playback to happen at all, teachers need to use the equipment, so video use is tied to equipment. The three main types of equipment in classrooms for this study are: (1) old DVD players attached to projectors that broadcast to a pull-down screen and external speakers, (2) old computers in computer labs, and (3) one brand-new video console. One interesting point worth mentioning about video playback is that teachers experience numerous problems when trying to play the videos. While problems do not occur every lesson, teachers encounter the following problems with the equipment:

1. Distorted visual images
2. Images playing without sound
3. Sound playing without images
4. Missing remote control required to play video

As such, simply getting to the point of playing video can be a challenge. While teachers resolve all of these issues after five to ten minutes, these problems waste valuable class time. Teachers should expect occasional technical trouble with equipment in video-based lessons.

As explained earlier [section 4.7.1], video playback for *ABC* is a part of the *News Story* section, and I suggested to the teachers to play the video as often as they felt necessary. Teachers play *ABC* videos at least three times in each of the lessons. Just as adaptations unfolded in the pre-video activities, the playing of the video is also done in different ways. The main difference is that teachers either let the video play straight through or occasionally pause the playback. Furthermore, teachers do both a straight playback and a paused playback in the course of a single lesson. For example, Kengo always plays the video straight through as a first playback, and for the second playback, he pauses the video at certain places for reasons which are explained below. For the third playback, he plays the video straight through. Kengo follows this pattern in each of the lessons I observed. While Becky and Mike do not follow a consistent pattern from lesson to lesson, both of these teachers also make use of both straight playback and pausing.

All teachers play the video straight through for playback one. As such, the first playback is mainly used as an introduction to the video, with one exception where Becky once asks learners to fill in the missing parts of the *News story* transcript. Teachers use pausing primarily to assist with the cloze activity in order to give students time to write answers in the blank spaces.

It is difficult to gauge whether pausing is needed for learners to complete the cloze activity. On one hand, Becky's group in the ADHD lesson is able to complete the cloze answers after playback one, in which there was no pausing. When she asks learners to read their answers during the ADHD lesson, all of the answers are correct. In another lesson, she asks learners to complete the cloze activity following playback two, and in this lesson both playbacks are straight. Becky never uses pausing in relation to the cloze activity. Instead, she uses pausing to explain parts of the video in her

final playback. On the other hand, Mike and Kengo both pause the video periodically to provide writing time. The extra time may generate less learner anxiety because the pausing of playback in listening activities has been shown to produce less anxiety in learners (Murray, 2015).

Each teacher uses the video to do the cloze activity in the lessons I observed. When the focus is placed on filling in the blanks, learners tend to not watch the video. Numerous students never even look up from their books as they follow the transcript and write their answers in their books. Even at times when the focus is not placed on the cloze activities, learners often have their heads down to read along with the transcript or write answers. The learners look engaged when watching or writing in the text. As such, the activity draws attention away from the visual parts of the video while learners focus on listening, follow the transcript, or write answers. In such instances, the video is essentially an audio CD for a listening activity.

While such use of video materials is not a problem in itself and very well might be a strength of news-based video lessons, the visual portion of the video is not taken full advantage of when learners are looking at their books. I turned to the teacher interviews to understand this use of the video materials. In one interview, Kengo acknowledges video is beneficial because learners can see facial expressions on the screen, yet no teachers directed learners explicitly to use this strategy. Furthermore, such use shows a way in which the material exerts an influence over classroom behavior as learners turn attention to filling in the blanks. Mike clearly recognizes the listening nature of the activity and adapts segments of video playback to this strength. When he asks the learners to do the cloze activity, Mike switches off the visual component of the video so that the screen is black. With the visuals turned off, it is clear that the video is used for listening as he confirms in his interview shown in Turn 183 of Extract 6.21 below.

Extract 6.21 R12_130124_0027_Mike-interview

M = Researcher   Mi = Mike

```
182  M:    I mean you know there is a whole other end when you
           watch the video and work with a bunch of stuff on the
           back end of [the video] the the stuff with language
```

```
183  Mi:  Oh [unintl.] is to use it you know set you know I mean
          all different ways because I look I said I did each
          video four four times at least [mm] and then just with
          sound I do it as well because I use it as a tape, I turn
          off the image and just listen to the sound

184  M:   Yeah, you were unique in the study about that [yeah] all
          of all of the lessons I observed you were the only
          person that showed it without [yeah] ah you know, just
          with the listening.  You turned off the imagery,

185  Mi:  And then I do reading with the dialogue [umhum] yeah out
          out loud reading with the dialogue and then sometimes
          I'd do a different thing with the dialogue when they'd
          look at the dialogue, and then look away and then they'd
          have to make complete sentences, look cover try try
          check and then follow the dialogue through that, and
          then go back again to the video, and then build the vid-
          use the to build the video, to build onto that again
          [umhum] so each time using the video but doing different
          things in between that to build the the the experience
          or the understanding of that video [and mm] so they get
          deeper as they in.
```

So, Mike turns off the video to let the learners practice listening as one way that he adapts the video. Furthermore, he looks for multiple ways to adapt the video material as he explains in Extract 6.21 during Turn 185.

One possible reason for adaptation may be a teacher dissatisfaction with the topics in regard to the degree to which the topics can be made relevant to their students' lives. The *ABC* newscasts include topics such as environmental issues, American politics, animal poaching in Kenya, food additives and mental health, the world oil industry, and religious convictions of Mormons. While certainly interesting topics for many people, these topics may be a challenge for learners at this level of maturity and speaking proficiency. Furthermore, these topics require some background knowledge that these learners may not have. As principles to adapt materials in order to make them more suitable, McDonough et al. (2013) suggest personalizing, individualizing, and localizing materials [detailed in section 3.11]. Background knowledge relates to personalizing through not only personal experiences, but also topics relevant to students' and teachers' lives. Thus, when topics in materials are personalized by participants, these topics may become more suitable as a means on which to base

interaction and engagement with the materials. Providing background knowledge and guiding learners to personalized responses also appear in the ways teachers adapt the final speaking activities in *ABC*.

6.3.4   Teacher adaptation of *ABC* discussion materials

Teachers' perceptions of topics in the video and discussion prompts emerge as factors that tie to the use of materials through adaptation. Understanding what I mean by teacher perception of the topics in these materials first requires that the notion of topic be approached from a different perspective than what was explored earlier in this chapter in peer interaction. Whereas in peer interaction, topic was defined as the topic of discussion, in the following section, topic refers to the subject matter of the video materials and discussion questions in the *ABC* textbook. In other words, I mean the topics found in the materials, and in particular, the topics of the videos and question prompts of the discussion activity.

With regard to both the video content and the question prompts for the final speaking activity, the subject matter of the topics arises as a major concern of the teachers as evidenced by classroom adaptations in the final discussion activities. Furthermore, I again turned to teacher interview data to understand more about adaptation as use of materials and present extracts from these interviews in regard to the relationship between adaptation and topics in the materials. Examining relationships in this manner follows the ecological approach adopted in this study where such relationships are a part of the research agenda [detailed in sections 3.9 & 5.2]. Teachers express uncertainties about whether or not the learners have enough knowledge, experience, or language skills to speak about some of these topics. Such teacher concern surfaces in two areas of these data. First, through the actions of teacher adaptation of materials in classroom practice, which is captured either on audio recordings or in my notes from classroom observations, and second, in critiques of the material recorded during the teacher interviews. Table 6.2 shows examples of classroom adaptations by teachers regarding *Speaking Activity E*, and the voicing of concerns about topics in the interviews. Findings from both of these areas are presented below.

Table 6.2 Examples of the adaptation of speaking activities and stated views on discussion topics by teacher

Teacher	Classroom Adaptation	Interview Critiques
Kengo	Substituted *Speaking Activity E* by creating handouts for an information gap activity (121018_Kengo_classroom_observation_notes)	'[. . .] generally speaking topics which are in this textbook are a little bit a little bit difficult' (R12_130121_0025_Kengo-interview)
Mike	Added his own question to the question prompts (101_R6_121015_0051_Mike_Happiest)	'I would make different questions if I was making this the *ABC World News* book. I would make different questions. I wouldn't use those questions.' (R12_130124_0027_Mike-interview)

Note: Data source in parenthesis.

Teachers' critiques address what are considered suitable topics found within the videos and discussion prompts in the textbook units. I first present analysis on the more critical aspects of the topics from the standpoint of the teachers, and then examples of classroom interventions taken to reconcile teaching activities with what the teachers consider a more appropriate strategy to address the topics.

6.3.4.1 Kengo's view of topics

In Table 6.2 above, Kengo offers a broad critique of the *ABC* textbook by stating that, in general, its topics are difficult for these learners. In Extract 6.22, Kengo speaks of a specific unit that poses a challenge. He seems to be skeptical of learners' ability to discuss certain topics even in their native tongue, due in part to a perceived lack of prior knowledge on certain topics.

Extract 6.22 R12_130121_0025_Kengo-interview

```
050  K:  Well in terms of topics, for example, Unit 5 'Mother
         Love Elephants' you know dealing with issues in Kenya?
         There is there is no way that Japanese learners of
         English, first of all I don't think they were
         interested in this lesson, and second of all you know
         issues in Kenya?  I'm sure it's beyond them even in
         Japanese[. . .]
```

Not only does Kengo mention the difficulty of Kenya as a discussion topic, but he also raises a further point that students might not be interested in the lesson. In Extract 6.23, Kengo brings up another specific lesson, Unit 14, in which the topic in the video is polio, and again, he mentions that students struggled with this discussion topic due to a lack of background knowledge about the topic.

```
056   K:   Ah stop Unit 14 'Stopping a Killer Polio' my students
           you know, no they didn't have any idea yeah
```

Trouble with topics stemming from a lack of background knowledge is reiterated later in Extract 6.24 when Kengo again states that learners would have trouble discussing some of these topics even in Japanese. This time, Kengo states that learners may have achieved more success in speaking about the topics had they been equipped with more background knowledge on such subjects. So, Kengo explicitly expresses his belief that difficulties with the final speaking activity are related to inadequate background knowledge of a topic, which suggests learners may have nothing to say.

```
140   M:   Do you think that they [learners] could kind of talk for
           a while about the topics or not?
141   K:   I guess it depends on the topics. Topics from this
           textbook most of them are, first of all they are not,
           students are not really familiar with those topics so
           even in Japanese that's the thing so if they have some
           sort of background knowledge of you know whatever the
           topic is I'm sure they have something to say yes.
```

In an answer to the open-ended section of the student questionnaire, one *ABC* learner backs Kengo's point, 'I'm not so smart so even in Japanese it was quite difficult to discuss, so easier content for discussion would be better.' Furthermore, in Extract 6.25, Kengo adds that difficulty with the topics then leads to the students being unable to use English in their discussions.

```
064   K:   [. . .] I'm sure they had fun but having fun doesn't
           necessarily mean they interacted communicatively so that
           that was a problem so um
065   M:   Could you talk more about that?
066   K:   Ah well again it's because of the topics I'm sure some of
           the students well in fact most of the students you know
           relied on ah their mother tongue which is Japanese and
           they did talk but they did not discuss issues in English.
```

In addition to expressing his view on topic in the interview, there are also times when Kengo took action in the classroom to adapt the speaking activities as explained below.

To Kengo's points, some students did show a difficulty with the topics, and a lack of familiarity even in Japanese. Extract 6.26 demonstrates such a struggle. The question prompt the students work with is:

<u>Question 2</u>

What kinds of support are available for working women in Japan? What options do working mothers have for childcare? Is the current situation satisfactory?

Extract 6.26 105 R4_121029_0097_Starflower_Mom's_Guilt

```
027  R:      option (unintl.) oh some ok mothers ask
028  L:      option
029  R:      for example
030  L:      eh nandaro sono eto sono nandaro wakanei eh eto ne
             nantsu darouna wakaran sono (ah what the ah the what I
             don't know ah ah what can I say I don't know the)
             option ah for child care ah option kono kea-suru tame
             ni hataraiteiru hito ga hatarakinagara (work for the
             care while the person is working(unintl.)ga shiteiru
             hito ga sono doiyu (the person doing for what kind
             of)child care no tameni
031  R:  ⇒  nihongo sae wakannei nokayo (you don't even know in
             Japanese)
032  L:      nihongo sa hoikuen toka youchien toka (for example
             nursery school or kindergarten in Japanese)
033  R:      hai (yes)
034  L:      so iyu wakannei so iyu sentaku mitai na (like that I
             don't know like that like choices)
035  R:      sentaku? (choice?)
036  L:      option so iyu wakannei nantsu dayo (like that I don't
             know what can I say)
037  R:      (laughs)
038  L:      wakannei (I don't know)
039  R:      kiite kitan janakute ima? (didn't you just ask?)
040  L:  ⇒  kiite kita kedo chittomo yoku wakannai yousuruni (I
             asked but I couldn't understand at all in short)
             option wo sentakushi toshite yakuse mitaina yakusu
             gurai shika omoi tsukanai (like translate as one of
             the choices the only thing I can think of is just to
             translate)
041  R:      what available working women japan what kind of
             support available for working women in japan um Japan
             [reading prompt]
042  L:      in Japan
043  R:      in Japan
044  L:      nanka aru? (are there any?)
```

Student L has trouble thinking of any options that working mothers may have and in Turn 031 his partner questions his knowledge about the topic even in Japanese. While Student L does have an answer, he later admits in Turn 040 that he can really do nothing with the prompt except to translate it.

6.3.4.2 Kengo's handouts

When Kengo teaches the lesson on Kenya (Unit 5 - *A mother's love: Elephants*), he adapts the material by modifying *Discussion Activity E* through a rewriting of the activity on a number of handouts. Kengo is the only teacher who brought pre-made materials into the classroom to adapt lessons. Because most of the classrooms where the *ABC* lessons are taught do not have access to the Internet, I asked the teachers to disregard the segments of the discussion questions that call for Internet access and adapted some of the questions. In doing so, I remained as close to the content of the original questions as possible. Not all of the question prompts called for Internet searches. The original instructions and researcher adaptations for the Kenya lesson are listed in Figure 6.1 below.

E. Discussion: Share your ideas and opinions with your classmates.

Original: 1. What do you know about Kenya? Do an Internet search about some aspect of the country that interests you. Share your findings with the class.

Researcher Adaptation: 1. What do you know about Kenya? Share your ideas with your partner.

Original: 2. Daphne Sheldrick is doing something important to help young creatures in the animal world. Look for stories about other people who are doing amazing things to help nature in some way.

Researcher Adaptation: 2. Daphne Sheldrick is doing something important to help young creatures in the animal world. What other people are doing amazing things to help nature/animals in some way?

Original: 3. This story suggests that elephants are very interesting animals. How much do you know about them? Do a Google search and see what you can find out.

Researcher Adaptation: 3. This story suggests that elephants are very interesting animals. Discuss what you know about them.

Figure 6.1 Discussion section adapted from Unit 5 in *ABC World News 14* p. 28 and researcher adaptations to the original questions. Used by permission.

Instead of using the discussion-question prompts shown in Figure 6.1, Kengo brings in handouts that include a map of Africa, a series of four sheets each with five different questions and answers about Kenya, and one master sheet that has all of the contents of the four sheets. As usual, Kengo

forms groups by letting learners draw playing cards to randomly assign members to groups. Students

who draw cards with the same numbers moved around the room to find their group mates. Each group

is first given the map, then one of the four question-and-answer sheets. In this way, the groups have

different questions and answers from each other. Figure 6.2 has extracts of one question of the five

questions from each sheet.

Sheet 1   Q: In which year did Kenya win independence?
          A: 1963, Kenya won independence in 1963 and has been a republic since 1964.

Sheet 2   Q: What is Kenya's main religion?
          A: Protestant. Protestant 45%, Roman Catholic 33%, Muslim 10%, indigenous beliefs, 10% other
          2%.

Sheet 3   Q: Which people colonized Kenya from 1895?
          A: British. During this period, the British greatly influenced both the economic and cultural life of
          Kenya

Sheet 4   Q: Most of Kenya's people live in urban or rural areas?
          A: Rural. About three-quarters of Kenya's people live in rural areas. About 99% of Kenya's
          population is made up of black Africans.

Figure 6.2 Questions from Kengo's handouts.

For the first part of the activity, Kengo instructs the group members to work together and discuss

the meaning of the questions and answers amongst themselves. Then, in the second part of the activity,

learners are to select a question from their sheet to ask other groups. In the first part of the activity,

groups of learners spend most of the time reading the questions and answers, and translating them in a

fashion similar to *yakudoku* [details in section 2.4]. While almost no English is spoken at that time

except for the reading aloud of the materials, the learners practice reading, take time to find unknown

words in dictionaries, or ask the teacher for assistance.

The second part of the activity is an information-gap activity for the whole class. Because

learners are hesitant to self-select a turn to speak in front of the class, Kengo nominates group

members to read their questions aloud to the class. Learners in other groups, who have no real way of

knowing the information-gap answers, are encouraged by the teacher to provide guesses, which they

do by mostly supplying one word answers. The final sheet with all 20 questions and answers is handed

out at the end of the activity.

By making these handouts and modifying the lesson in the way he does, Kengo addresses

Question One from Figure 6.1 in its original form. His actions suggest that the pre-video, video and

post-video activities may not be enough to have a discussion on this topic. Effectively, Kengo did the

Internet search for the learners and printed the sheets. In doing so, Kengo also deletes the final two

questions in the book.

Directly after the lesson, I was able to ask Kengo about his adapting of the lesson during a mini-

interview session, part of which is shown in Extract 6.27.

Extract 6.27 R8_121018_0009_Kengo-mini-interview

M = Researcher   K = Kengo

003	**M:**	[. . .] you just decided to bring in your own material for that [Speaking Task E]. I wondered why you thought to do that?
004	**K:**	Ah well like I say it's because of their background knowledge about ah Kenya, I mean I don't know I mean they might have known something about Kenya but me personally I have no idea about Kenya, that's why I decided to do something you know different.
005	**M:**	[. . .] could you maybe comment on those discussion questions because ok there was Kenya but there were other discussion questions too and you, I mean you thought that, I don't know what you thought, like
006	**K:**	Ah well because the topic of the DVD [mm] was about Kenya [mm] so in a way I simply wanted to I mean delve into that country and like I said I mean Kenya itself is not really a popular country you know, so ah instead of me giving them you know like all the information that I know I mean I don't really know much about Kenya anyway so instead I made some handouts and then I came up with something you know something interesting [. . .]
007	**M:**	So if I heard you right you, I thought I heard two reasons why you wanted to make the handouts [ahhuh]. The first one was that maybe the students didn't know that much about Kenya
008	**K:**	Yeah a lack of information
009	**M:**	Lack of information about Kenya [yeah] so um and perhaps it was that um if I'm hearing you right too then ah it was that maybe I don't know you, did you feel comfortable with these discussion questions or not?
010	**K:**	Ah today well that discussion question itself was umm I don't think it's suitable for Japanese learners first of all that's what I felt. I mean if it's about ah say ah South Korea then I'm sure they're going to say something like 'kimchi' or you know the Korean culture or even like 'baseball' kind of thing but Kenya? (laughs). I I don't think they know much about Kenya [. . .]

Kengo points to the topic of the video, Kenya, as being one that the students might lack background knowledge on, and he again raises the point that he does not know much about the country as support that other Japanese may also have little knowledge about the country. However, the topic of the video is not exclusively focused on Kenya. While Kenya was the setting of the video, the main topic was about the poaching of elephants in the country. The question prompt does ask about background knowledge of Kenya, and we see how the question prompts control the direction of classroom activity even through adaptation. Therefore, the importance of the question prompts for the use of material cannot be overstated.

That Kengo has gone so far as to replace the very activity that he had agreed to do as a condition for participating in this study likely indicates that there may be something more to the issue than what he offers in his response. Kengo makes a statement through his action, which is to avoid using the question prompts and final speaking activity. In addition, Kengo, a busy teacher, needed time to create and prepare his information-gap activity. Finally, Kengo reveals deeper thoughts on the prompts by stating he does not think that the questions are suitable for Japanese learners, and he points to the topic of the materials as the main reason. With the handouts, the learners do get content information on Kenya. Furthermore, learners work on understanding the questions, and then read the questions to the whole group where some learners offer guesses to the information-gap activity. However, the activity never really becomes a discussion in English.

6.3.4.3 *Mike's view of topics*

Like Kengo, Mike also states that topics with personal relevance to learners' life experience may be better suited to foster interaction between students. In his interview in Turn 020 in Extract 6.28, Mike offers a view on topics through ways he uses the preview-question material in the pre-video segment of *ABC* lessons.

Extract 6.28 R8_121018_0009_Mike-interview

```
019  M:   How about the sort of normal pattern that you did,
          could you walk us through how you might normally do
          one of these ABC lessons?
020  Mi:  Well, look at the theme, get the students thinking
          about what the theme is by talking about their own
          experiences or bringing something into what they can
          relate to in their own life or in their own society
          [. . .]
```

In class, Mike does adapt by modifying the preview questions to include learners' personal experiences as previously explained in section 6.3.1.

Furthermore, when speaking on the peer-interaction activity in Turn 093 of Extract 6.29, Mike reiterates the importance of personal life experience of learners as a factor for the materials to be better used by learners for communication.

Extract 6.29 R8_121018_0009_Mike-interview

```
092  M:   Anything else that you noticed about those that
          interaction?
093  Mi:  Oh again it was if the topics were more you know were
          more suitable to, were closer to what they had, their
          life experience, they could communicate more [mm] yeah
```

Mike let learners choose the units that they liked best to be a part of the final exam. In Extract 6.30, Mike suggests the reason these units are selected by the learners is because the topics in the units relate to learners' own lives.

Extract 6.30 R8_121018_0009_Mike-interview

```
062  Mi:  The topics that they most enjoyed, because they chose
          in the end we did the test and I said choose five
          topics from the 15 or 13 that we did and they chose
          [. . .] stuff that was more related to their own life
          basically in their the made in China one for example
          the disaster one for example.
063  M:   Which took place in Japan
064  Mi:  You and your siblings for example, the ones that they
          could relate to or yeah
```

So, Mike seems to view that topics relevant to the personal lives of students are crucial for good use of materials. He makes a point to adapt materials so that they are more relevant to learner's lives.

6.3.4.4   Mike's adaptation of speaking materials

Another way in which Mike adapts the materials is by adding to the question prompts based on

the topic. As an example, when Mike writes the question prompts on the board, he also provides

verbal instructions that are not a part of the materials as shown in Extract 6.31.

Extract 6.31 101_R6_121015_0051_Mike_Happiest

T = Mike   L = Student L   R = Student R

```
001  T:      So you can talk about you can use the questions on
             the board, or you can talk about when you're happy,
             or when you're not happy ok [...]
002  L:      nan demo ii tomo shiawase ni tsuite (anything is fine
             related to happiness)
003  R:      honto dane (that's true)
```

In Extract 6.32 Mike offers suggestions for how to improve the question prompts for the final

speaking activity.

Extract 6.32 R8_121018_0009_Mike-interview

```
051  M:   [. . .] what did you think about those discussion
          questions at the end of the unit?
052  Mi:  I would ah make different questions if I was making this
          the ABC World News book, I would make different
          questions.  I wouldn't use those questions.
053  M:   Umhum and how would you have changed them? Or how would
          you change them?
054  Mi:  I would have had one question relating to their
          experience, one question relating to their opinion and
          one question where they would have to ask a question
          about the video mm yeah
```

So, through his suggestion for better question prompts for video materials, Mike again makes his view

known that prompts related to personal experience are important to him. Furthermore, Mike points

out that the questions could make better use of the explicit text of the video material [defined in

section 3.2]. To continue following data on the relationship between topics and adaptations, I next turn

to questionnaire data from the learners to add to the understanding.

6.3.4.5   Learner views of topics

Learner questionnaire data also address discussion topics. Learners are split in their views on

speaking topics from the question prompts for the FSAs. While some learners are satisfied with the

topics, others shared similar views to the teachers. Based on the Likert-items, 66% of learners report

that the topics are a challenge to speak about, and the same percentage report to have used personal

experiences in their FSAs. Also, 64% prefer more videos about the local context of Japan. Extract

6.33 shows translations of comments in the open-ended questions from learners who expressed

concerns about topics.

Extract 6.33 Comments from different learners about topics in *ABC*

```
Learner 4b:   When speaking about topics from our daily lives we
              could make longer conversations, but it was fun to
              watch videos about foreign countries.  There needs
              to be balance between these two things
Learner 13b:  To learn about Japan, to handle traditional
              contents like Kabuki, how to make swords, etc.
              is better.
Learner 7b:   I wanted to watch BBC news and also wanted to watch
              news in which the theme is Japanese news in
              English.
Learner 6b:   Put a little more themes that young people can be
              interested in.
Learner 19b:  Make the theme closer [to students].
```

While the majority of learners voice a preference for topics that are personal and local, there is

also acceptance for topics about world news stories. Learners seem to think a better balance between

the two might make for a better learning experience. The learner consensus is that opinions vary on

these topics and that not everyone will be satisfied with all the topics. However, there is more of a

leaning toward a preference for personalized and localized materials.

In sum, these sections on adaptation show use of materials. Teachers demonstrate a number of

adaptation techniques throughout the sequence of activities and appear to follow the principles of

personalizing and localizing in an effort to make the materials more accessible to the learners.

Furthermore, the teacher interview and student questionnaire data allow for a further understanding of

the adaptations.

At the same time, by looking at the adaptation techniques in these activities, details in the pre-

video, during-video, and post-video sequence become evident. By beginning this chapter with the

findings from the interaction in the final speaking activity, then going back to the pre-video activities

and working through the sequence of the activities leading to the FSA, we are now able to see materials use for the entire sequence of the lessons. I was interested in the relationship between use of language in the pre-video activities and learners' later use in the post-video activities. As such, I now shift this analysis to the use of lexical items throughout these activities by participants.

6.4 Tracking of lexical items

Because *ABC* lessons are designed with the classic approach to video with pre-, during-, and post-video activities [detailed in section 4.7.1], I tracked common language through all three activities. Despite the multiple recycling of pre-video vocabulary items in the *ABC* activities, I only found two instances where these pre-video vocabulary items are reused again by the learners in the final speaking activity. While it makes sense that Mike's students showed no use of these vocabulary items because he adapted the activity by deleting, learners in other classrooms did not show much use of the vocabulary items following the video in a given lesson. Due to the lack of use of the pre-video vocabulary items by learners in the FSAs and the adaptation of the vocabulary activity in classroom practice, the question arises as to the suitability of the vocabulary items for the level of the learners in this study. Again, I let the data drive the direction of analysis for materials use, or in the following section, the lack of use. As such, I analyzed the levels of the language of both the pre-video vocabulary items and the video transcripts from the newscasts in a similar way to other researchers of video material (e.g., Webb & Rodgers, 2009; Yamane & Yamane, 2014). I present these in turn and then synthesize the findings.

6.4.1   Pre-video vocabulary

Table 6.3 displays examples of vocabulary items from three randomly selected units in *ABC*. These items are included in the first two pre-video, warm-up activities [as shown in Appendix C]. As a reminder, the warm-up activities prompt learners to: (1) match vocabulary items to definitions in the *Vocabulary check* activity, and (2) write these vocabulary items as answers to a follow-up, cloze activity. As such, the vocabulary items are encountered at least twice in pre-video activities by students, then two more times when the teacher checks the answers.

Table 6.3 Examples of lexical items introduced in the pre-video segment of *ABC*

Unit 3 Happiest person in America	Unit 4 Working mom's guilt	Unit 9 Food/ADHD
From scratch	device	Hyper [slang]
Well-being	to ensure	impulsive
to bear	24/7 [slang]	toll
burden	to juggle	to ban
dubious	to resent	to affirm

I ran the pre-video vocabulary items from every *ABC* unit through level-checking software (Someya, 2006) that ranks the difficulty of words according to the JACET8000 wordlist [detailed in Chapter 5.6.4]. Results show that 54% of these words are either at a level of over 6,000 or not a part of the wordlist. University learners are expected to know the words up to the level of 5,000. Thus, these pre-video vocabulary items are most likely not a part of these learners' productive or receptive knowledge. Table 6.4 shows the JACET8000 level rankings for all of the pre-video vocabulary items of the *ABC* units found throughout the entire textbook.

Table 6.4 Rankings of the pre-taught lexical items

Word Level	Freq.	%
Off list	26	36.11
1,000	11	15.28
2,000	5	6.94
3,000	8	11.11
4,000	6	8.33
5,000	3	4.17
6,000	7	9.72
7,000	3	4.17
8,000	3	4.17
TOTAL	72	100.00

Next, I used the software to analyze the language from all of the transcripts of the soundtrack for each video through the same software. The JACET8000 rankings of the language in the transcripts produced different results from the rankings of the language in the pre-video activity *Vocabulary check*.

6.4.2   Language levels in the news broadcast videos

Not only are the pre-video vocabulary items included in the soundtrack, but also are part of the *News Story* activity [example in Appendix C]. *News Story* is a cloze activity based on the transcripts of the video soundtrack. So, learners listen to and read the pre-video vocabulary items during video playback. However, the answers to the fill-in blanks in *News Story* are almost always different from

the pre-video vocabulary items introduced in the warm-up activity. Overall, the flow of activities

provides multiple chances for learners to come in contact with the pre-video vocabulary items during

video playback.

When checked against the JACET8000 wordlist, 72% of the words in the news broadcast

transcripts were found to be at the most rudimentary level, which is level 1,000. Therefore, most

likely, the learners in this study would have been taught many of these items in their compulsory

schooling [detailed Chapter 2]. Furthermore, 82% of the words in the video transcripts are within the

five lowest levels of the JACET8000 wordlist, which comprises the 5,000 words that Japanese are

expected to know to pass university entrance exams. An additional 2% of the words are in levels

6,000–8,000 of the JACET8000. The remaining 16% are either not part of the JACET8000 or are

comprised of proper names. Table 6.5 shows the percentages in each level and the frequency of these

items. Thus, the level of English in the soundtrack contains dialogues comprised of a corpus that

should be largely familiar to university students in Japan.

Table 6.5 JACET8000 levels of words in the video soundtrack and transcript

Word Level	Freq.	%
Off list	877	16.23
1,000	3872	71.66
2,000	285	5.27
3,000	141	2.61
4,000	83	1.54
5,000	37	0.68
6,000	47	0.87
7,000	35	0.65
8,000	26	0.48
TOTAL	5403	100.00

These data have a number of implications relevant to the use of video materials. First, because all

of the pre-video vocabulary items are also found in the video soundtrack for a particular unit, these

vocabulary items represent a clear link from the pre-video activities to the video. As such, learners

engage with language from the video prior to watching. In this sense, the use of the video materials

begins prior to watching. Second, the link to the video suggests that the textbook authors selected

these vocabulary items directly from the video transcripts. Interestingly, these pre-video vocabulary

items do not seem to have been selected completely randomly from the video transcripts. Figure 6.3

shows a side-by-side comparison of the levels of lexical items in the pre-video activities (i.e., data from Table 6.4) to levels of the entire newscast-transcript corpus (i.e., data from Table 6.5).
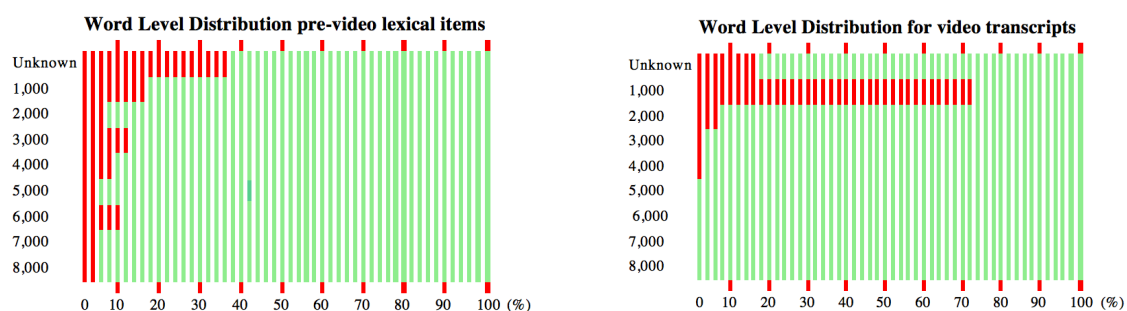
Figure 6.3 Comparative distribution of pre-taught lexical items and video transcripts.

These data indicate that the pre-video vocabulary items are likely selected intentionally by the textbook authors. Lexical items ranked at level 5,000 or above on the JACET8000 wordlist are so infrequent in the video transcripts that the items do not even register on the chart in Figure 6.3, which means these higher-level words represent less than 1% of the words in the newscast transcripts. However, the authors selected these difficult words for the pre-video vocabulary items. Therefore, these vocabulary items have a high chance of being unknown to students. As such, the vocabulary words for the pre-video activities are selected with the apparent intention to support gaps in learner knowledge. Introducing and defining vocabulary items that are most likely unknown before watching the video may make the video easier to comprehend. The authors promote the use of these higher-level words by putting them into the pre-video activity. While not the focus of this study, such intention by the authors is worth mentioning because it demonstrates a way materials writers use the video materials for materials development.

In practical use, the link from the pre-video activities to the video soundtrack is implicit because the materials make no specific reference to the pre-video vocabulary items as being a part of the soundtrack. A lack of awareness by teachers that these items are in the soundtrack may impact use of the materials, and could be a reason why Mike deleted the activity. If teachers know that these vocabulary items are in the video transcript, they might ask learners to use the materials differently. For example, teachers could have learners listen for the words when the video plays as an instructional strategy.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter has focused on ways in which learners and teachers use the *ABC* materials. Results show that half of the learners need to put forth an effort to begin their speaking activities and are eventually able to develop topics. The other half move into the activity quicker and also go on to develop and manage interaction through topics related to the materials. Learner topics are found to have links to the video material primarily through the question prompts. As might be expected, the question prompt controls the direction of the topics. As such, the role of the question prompt to steer interaction is of paramount importance in these materials not only as a link back to the video, but also to assist the forward development of topics in peer interaction. While some topics of the prompts are immediately relevant to the lives of the learners, other prompts are not as relevant. In the latter cases, learners manage their interaction in such a way to bring personal relevance to the topics as a strategy to further discussions. While interaction in FSAs have thematic links to the video materials, due to the impact of the question prompts, there is little reference to the explicit text of the video scenes.

Also present in the peer interaction are instances of side sequences that emerge out of the speaking topics. Side sequences are shown to be opportunities for learning with ties to the theme of the video material, again, primarily thorough the question prompts. During side sequences, learners assist each other with learning opportunities. In addition, learners show little use of pre-video vocabulary items in their final speaking activities.

Teachers use the material in different ways and adapt the materials in the pre-video, during-video, and post-video activities. One main reason for many of these adaptations appears to arise from the topics of the video and question prompts, which raise teacher concerns about the suitability of the topics for the learners' speaking activities. Teacher perception of topic suitability plays an influential role in the ways lesson materials are used and adapted in these lessons. The other course book in this study, *DVDay*, also has learners work in pairs for a final speaking activity. I turn now to these speaking activities.

CHAPTER 7:   *Digital Video Day* Classrooms

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present findings from the use of the video materials in *DVDay* lessons. The inclusion of this second genre of video adds to the understanding of ways in which video materials are used by learners and teachers. As in the previous chapter, analysis begins with the final speaking activities (FSAs) first. Also similar to the last chapter, these findings from the FSAs are presented for the initial moves, topic flow, and side sequences as learning opportunities [as explained in sections 5.6.3 & 5.6.5]. The analysis then shifts from the FSAs to the two additional activities in *DVDay* named post-video brainstorming (PVBS) and whole-group brainstorming (WGBS), both of which have interaction related to the videos [detailed in section 4.7.2]. PVBS is a pair work activity, and WGBS is a teacher-led activity. Both of these activities produce an abundance of classroom interaction.

While the overarching aim of analysis of PVBS and WGBS is to track emergent language related to the video material throughout the three activities in *DVDay* lessons [detailed in section 4.7.2], this section of analysis differs from the previous chapter. The difference is primarily due to the 'fluency-driven' nature of the pair work and whole-group work interaction [detailed in sections 1.3 & 4.7.2] in these activities, which are propelled more by learner responses rather than the question prompts as found in *ABC*. The only peer interaction in the *ABC* textbook is in the FSAs. As such, there is more analysis of interaction in this chapter. As argued elsewhere in this thesis [sections 1.5, 3.6, & 5.3], a qualitative approach is taken in analysis due partly to the multiple variables in the textbooks.

Although I cannot escape researcher bias, based on researcher reflexivity, I argue that there are other rational reasons for more analysis of *DVDay* materials in the context of this study. The fact remains that there are more video-related activities in *DVDay* for peer activity, and WGBS generates additional classroom interaction. Furthermore, unexpected peer interaction emerged during WGBS [details to follow in section 7.5] as related to materials use. Moreover, analysis focuses on PVBS and WGBS as individual activities because interaction in each one has distinct characteristics. In addition, the use of the explicit text of the videos in the *DVDay* interaction leads to the emergence of video-

related affordances. For these reasons, there is more analysis of classroom interaction in this chapter than in the previous one.

Once I analyze the processes in these individual activities, the findings are then combined with an analysis of the activities as a whole that lead to a greater understanding of the processes involved with the use of video materials in the classroom ecology. I use thread analysis to track language through the different activities [as described in section 5.6.4]. As such, I show how these activities all fit together through instances of full-thread examples, i.e., examples where common language is found in all three activities. Findings in this chapter are grouped into major sections of *topics in DVDay peer interaction, side sequences and peer assistance*, *interaction in PVBS, interaction in WGBS, reliance on shared experience,* and *full-thread instances.*

7.2   Topics in *DVDay* peer interaction

To elicit interaction in FSAs, the open-ended discussion prompt instructs learners to discuss any aspect the video, and learners are meant to choose topics themselves. Throughout the FSAs, learners manage topics through topic shifts. I chart topic shifts with a topic flow for each peer group in order to identify topical relationships to the video material [detailed in section 5.6.3]. What becomes visible through such analysis is that many topics maintain a relationship to the video scenes even as topics shift throughout the student interaction.

Crucial to this analysis is the examination of topic flow in the interaction of each group in its entirety because topics viewed in isolation might seem to be unrelated to the video material. When viewed across the context of the whole activity, seemingly unrelated topics in the interaction can be understood to have lexical and/or propositional links to the video materials through links to previous topics. The degree to which video materials relate to the topics in the student interaction can be thought to be on a continuum. On one end are topics more closely related to the explicit text of the video, and on the other end are topics less closely related. As previously described [section 3.2], explicit texts are parts or scenes of the video itself (Keddie, 2014). Analysis of the topics in the FSAs are arranged into the main sections of *initial moves in DVDay* and *topics and topic shifts*.

7.2.1   Initial moves in *DVDay*

The rationale for the relevance of an analysis of initial moves has been argued elsewhere in this

thesis [section 6.2.1]. In initial moves, learners transition into the speaking activity either by *video*

themeing or *clarifying prompts* [detailed in section 5.6.3]. Table 7.1 shows examples of the types of

moves and the categories of action from five dyads in different lessons.

Table 7.1 Five examples of initial moves by different dyads in *DVDay*

	Examples from FSAs	Type of move	Category of action
001	ah have you been to New York?	Question	Video themeing
002	after watching this video do you want to go Detroit?	Question	Video themeing
003	do you like Cup Noodle?	Question	Video themeing
004	what did you think about the video?	Question	Video themeing
005	Miyakojima video *sore ni tsuite hanasu* (talk about this)	Statement	Clarifying prompt

Video themeing begins all but two of the FSAs. While the predominance of video themeing is

unsurprising given that the activity requests learners to speak about some aspect of the video, these

initial moves demonstrate that the learners move into the open-ended activity as expected.

Furthermore, the moves attempt to establish a discussion topic. Video themeing exhibits certain

characteristics. First, the learners relate the material to personal or potential experience in the video

settings. In particular, learners open with variations of the questions, 'Have you ever been

to_____?' or 'Do you want to go to _____?' with the settings of the videos inserted into the

blanks. Examples 001 and 002 in Table 7.1 show such instances. Second, learners address the video in

a direct way and use the explicit text of the video (Keddie, 2014). For instance, in Example 003, the

learner raises the topic 'Cup Noodles', which is a theme featured prominently in the New York City

video. In doing so, he seems to be using video scenes as a base for the question. Third, learners inquire

about personal opinions regarding the video material as Example 004 displays. Learners often use

video themeing to elicit themes that make the explicit text of the videos personal and relevant to their

lives.

In the other category of action found in the initial moves, clarifying prompts, the learners clarify

and confirm the ground rules for the activity only when participating in FSAs for the first time at the

beginning of the semester. These moves show that the students are unsure how to proceed. Learners use their L1 to clarify the instructions of the discussion prompt. Once the ground rules are established, learners then move into the activity with statements related to video scenes. The clarifying of the prompts serves as a pre-sequence and is necessary to be able to proceed so that learners can use the video materials to elicit speaking topics.

The initial moves in the FSAs show relationships to and use of the video materials through topics. The students begin the FSA with an understanding that the videos are to be used as a base for speaking themes. This understanding comes from a combination of the open-ended discussion prompt, and the way in which the final speaking activity becomes a weekly classroom routine. The initial moves largely foreground either experience in the geographic locations depicted in the videos or the explicit texts of the video. The literature on video suggests the understanding of geography as a potential benefit of video lessons [detailed in section 3.5]. Students use familiar sentence patterns to open their interactions and find their own ways into the activity by selecting aspects of the video to speak about, both of which demonstrate a reliance on prior language knowledge. Interaction in FSAs then develops through topic shifts [detailed in section 5.6.3].

7.2.2 Topics and topic shifts

The following three extracts introduce examples of particular topic transitions within the overall topic flow from different segments of learner interaction in *DVDay* lessons. As a point of clarity, I again remind the reader that the letters used to represent the students in the transcripts may be the same (e.g., R & L, M & F, etc.), however, these students are usually different in each extract [explained in section 5.6.2]. Extract 7.1 shows how learners shift from a pre-sequence to a topic related to the video entitled *Miyakojima City*, which is about the sub-tropical island of Miyakojima in the Okinawan archipelago. The topic flow for the entire activity is:

> *clarifying prompt>visiting Okinawa>experience in Hawaii>hometown oceans>eating*
> *fish>eating Okinawan food*

M = Student M   F = Student F   T = Teacher

```
001  T:          ready go
002  M:          tema (theme)
003  F:          (laughs)
004  M:          eh kore ni kaiwa shiyou mitaina desho ne (eh
                 something like talk about some subject together)
005  F:          nanka kouyu bideo toka miyakojima toka so iyu kankei
                 no aru koto ni tsuite ma kaiwa (what talk about this
                 video or Miyakojima or speak about something related
                 to the video)
006  M:          kaiwashiyouto (let's talk)
007  T:          talk about anything you think is related to the
                 video ok anything anything
008  F:          nan demo (anything)
009  M:  ⇒       ano (well) there is beautiful ocean beach
010  F:          (laughs)
011  M:          so I I want to go I want to go go to Okinawa
```

In Extract 7.1, students move into the speaking activity with a pre-sequence to clarify the ground rules in Turns 002–008. Learners then shift to a topic related to the video in Turn 009. The topic flow of this segment of the interaction is: *clarifying prompts>visiting Okinawa*. Student M uses the explicit text of the video to begin talking about visiting Okinawa.

Extract 7.2 shows a topic shift that occurs in the middle of an FSA where the topic had moved broadly to travel aspirations in the USA. The topic flow for the entire FSA is:

Chicago>travel experience>travel to New York>no desire to visit Chicago>
     Chicago>instructions>music>student hometowns

Extract 7.2 picks up in the midst of the topic *travel to New York* before Student M uses a topic transition in Turn 047 to move the topic to *no desire to visit Chicago*. In this lesson, the video is entitled *Chicago City* and displays street scenes from Chicago.

Extract 7.2 011_R2_121210_0077_Becky_Chicago

```
041  M:          ah (laughs) New York my image New York is the big
                 city
042  F:          big city
043  M:          mm
044  F:          ehhh
045  M:          so I want to go the famous city
046  F:          mmmm oh
047  M:  ⇒       mm eh eh do you (laughs) want to go to Chicago
048  F:          (laughs)
049  M:          after watch the video
```

```
050  F:          ah no (laughs)
051  M:          (laughs)
052  F:          no
053  M:          ah why
```

Taken from the classroom of another teacher, Extract 7.3 is also from a group discussing the

video *Chicago City*. The topic flow for the whole FSA is:

> *impressions of Chicago>opinions on Ferris wheels>impressions of Chicago>opinions of
> Ferris wheels>comparing Chicago to New York>Chicago the Hollywood movie>speech
> contest*

The extract begins with students in the middle of the topic *opinions of Ferris wheels.* The video has a

number of scenes featuring Ferris wheels, and a learner explains a personal experience with one in

Australia. In Turn 078, Student R uses the explicit text of the video to make a topic transition to

comparing Chicago to New York in order to sustain the interaction. Then in Turn 088, Student R

makes a topic transition to *Chicago the Hollywood movie.* This topic has lexical links to the previous

topic though 'Chicago' and 'movie', and shifts from more closely related to the video to less closely

related.

Extract 7.3 019_R1_121214_0083_ Miho_Chicago

```
058  L:          I I went to Australia and I watched Ferris wheel
059  R:          mm
060  R2:         uh huh
061  L:          it's
062  R:          (laughs)
063  L:          fast
064  R:          mm
065  L:          maybe the ride person and in Japan nante iyuno kana
                 (what can I say) one one play just one
066  R:          mm
067  L:          but
068  R:          (laughs)
069  L:          foreigner maybe three
070  R:          ah
071  R2:         three time
072  L:          four three or four time (unintl.)
073  R2:         eh
074  R:          mm haya-hayai (fast-faster)
075  L:          hayai (fast)
076  R:          mm uhh (mm ah)
077  L:          I
078  R:    ⇒     I I watch many fl-  national flag
079  L:          mm
080  R:          in Chicago than New York
081  L:          ah
```

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```
082  R:          nyu yoku nanda (what)(unintl.) mm mm I I don't know
                 Chicago city
083  L:          hum hum hum yeah I don't know
084  R:          shikago itta koto nai yo kaete iindakke (I've never
                 been to Chicago are we allowed to change [the
                 subject])
085  L:          mm (mm)mm maybe I can't correct ah Chicago movie and
                 New York city movie
086  R:          ah
087  L:          I think it's same town
088  R:    ⇒     ah Chicago I know movie is Chicago hai (yeah) movie
                 do you know ah Chicago?
```

The previous three extracts show how learners make topic transitions at various points throughout the activity. In this way, learners collaboratively build and manage their interaction with topic shifts to discuss topics that contain varying degrees of distance from the video material. The degrees to which the interactions are related to the video on the continuum are detailed below.

7.2.2.1   *Topics more closely related to the video*

In topics more closely related to the video, learners describe video scenes, and offer opinions and impressions about the contents of the video. In such instances, learners refer to the explicit texts depicted in the video scenes in order to make topic shifts and sustain interaction. The learners use the video to elicit topics. For example, the video *Detroit City* displays images of urban decay juxtaposed with modern skyscrapers and exquisite architecture. In Extract 7.4, learners appear to recognize this juxtaposition and use it as a topic to describe an impression of the city.

Extract 7.4 004_R3_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit

```
022  F:    ⇒     (unintl.) eh ah Detroit city is nan-nante iyuka
                 (how can I say) beautiful and dirty
023  M:          mm beautiful and dirty
024  F:          mm ah
025  M:          So ne (yes) some area is dirty
```

In Extract 7.5, students discuss the video entitled *New York City*. Several of the scenes in this video show advertising billboards in and around Times Square in New York. These scenes also contain images of a billboard depicting a giant Styrofoam cup of Cup Noodles with smoke coming out the top as if hot water had just been added. Student M raises the topic of *favorite Cup Noodle flavor*

with his question in Turn 001. The topic transition in Turn 001 of Extract 7.5 serves a dual role of not

only a topic transition closely related to the video, but also a question that is the initial move of the

activity.

Extract 7.5 007_R2_121206_0073_Becky_New_York

```
001   M:    ⇒   Do you like Cup Noodle?
002   F:        (laughs) yes (laughs)
003   M:        what taste is favorite of Cup Noodle?
004   F:        mmm so I like Ja-Japanese company tte [it is
                said] (laughs)
```

In Extract 7.6, Student R offers an opinion on Washington D.C. in a topic closely related to the video.

Extract 7.6 016_R1_121220_0084_Becky_Washington_D.C.

```
002   R:    ⇒   eh Washington D.C. looks very good place (laughs)
003   L:        ahh for example?
004   R:        ahh the people ahh smiling (laughs)
```

Extract 7.7 is from another dyad discussing the video *Detroit City*. The learners speak about

general topics closely related to scenes in the video. In Turn 009, Student F makes a comment about

the city based on the video scenes. Then, in Turn 010, Student M brings up his fondness for hip hop

music and that he would like to visit Detroit to listen to hip hop. Both of these turns are in the topic of

video scenes of Detroit in the topic flow for this dyad.

Extract 7.7 003_R1_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit

```
009   F:        Detroit city is dirty city
010   M:    ⇒   ah I I I I like hip hop music eh and and and ah so I
                want to listen hip hop in Detroit
```

Student M's opinion of hip hop within the topic of *video scenes of Detroit* seems to be closely

related to two aspects of the video. First, several video scenes show graffiti work of images associated

with hip hop such as turntables. Second, the musical track for the video is set to hip-hop music.

Furthermore, it could be that the learner is aware that Detroit is an important location for hip hop,

having produced major hip hop stars. From an ecological sense, topics emerge from a variety of

factors: Student M selects hip hop from the Detroit video, he has a personal interest in hip hop music,

he may have some background knowledge on Detroit as a center for hip hop, and he connects the

video scene to his interests as use of materials. There are also learning opportunities that emerge out of

the interaction around hip hop that are explained later in this chapter.

While the previous four extracts occur either as the initial moves of the learners or shortly

thereafter, learners also make topic transitions to topics closely related to the video later in the

activities as a means to sustain interaction. Therefore, learners use the video material to prolong the

interaction. Extracts 7.8 and 7.9 are such examples. The entire topic flow for the FSA in Extract 7.8

is:

> *clarifying prompt>visiting Okinawa>experience in Hawaii>hometown oceans>eating*
> *fish>eating Okinawan food*

Extract 7.8 001_R1_121029_0062_Becky_Miyakojima

```
087   F:   ⇒   what do you want to talk do you like raw fish?
088   M:       fish yes yes I do
089   F:       ah
090   M:       raw fish sashimi dayo ne (it's sashimi right?)
091   F:       sashimi (sashimi)
092   M:       mm (mm) Japanese
093   F:       I ha- I eat maguro (tuna) only (laughs)
094   M:       ah why
095   F:       nanka muri (what impossible [to eat sashimi]) (laughs)
096   M:       ah so nanda ebi toka (I see how about shrimp) shr-
                shrimp
097   F:       ano yudeta ebi wa tabereru kedo (well I can eat boiled
                shrimp)
098   M:       eh (eh)
099   F:       raw muri ([is] impossible) (laughs)
100   M:       so nanda ah sashimi jitai ga taberarenai (oh I see you
                can't eat sashimi itself)
101   F:       hum maguro wa tabereru (hum I can eat tuna)
102   M:       eh (eh)
103   F:       samon ichi ban (salmon [is] the best)
104   M:       yabai (my gosh)
105   F:       yabai  samon (my gosh salmon)
106   M:       ah so nanda (oh I see)
107   F:       samon suki  (I like salmon)
108   M:       maguro no ho ga (I like tuna better)
109   F:       ah yappari ne un maguro umai (ah as I thought Tuna is
                tasty)
110   M:   ⇒   nanka (well) eh have you ever eaten saatandagii or
                nandaro (saatandagii or how can I say)
111   F:       ah (ah)
112   M:       mm eto (mm eh) traditional dishes of Okinawa?
```

In Extract 7.8, Student F makes a topic transition in Turn 087, which shifts the topic from *hometown*

oceans to *eating fish*. Because the video has scenes of raw fish, the shift to eating fish brings the topic

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to one more closely related to the video. Both of these topics apply video scenes to personal aspects of students' lives. The next topic shift occurs in Turn 110, when Student M uses a topic transition to raise the topic of *saatandagii*, an Okinawan traditional pastry, which appeared in video scenes. The learners had moved their discussion away from a topic more closely related to the video with *hometown oceans*, but with topic transitions in Turns 087 and 110 the learners return to topics based on the explicit video text. *Saatandagii* is a challenge to translate as there is no direct English word for the dish. One possible interpretation here is that Student M recognizes this challenge, and uses a move that resembles the communication strategy of circumlocution to produce an acceptable phrase in Turn 112 to talk about *saatandagii*. Another possibility is that Student M is referring to not only *saatandagii*, but also other traditional dishes in Okinawa in Turn 112. Either way, images of both are shown in the video.

In Extract 7.9, Student L makes a topic transition to a topic from the video late in the speaking activity. Shots of sunset on the Greek island of Santorini figure prominently in the video *The Brackish Water*. The topic flow for the entire FSA is:

> *sea swimming>opinion of ancient things>opinion on modern things>value of history>opinion on ancient things>instruction>school counseling on TOEFL>lighting in the video>New Year's sunrise>hunger>lunch plans>teacher attributes*

Extract 7.9 013_R1_121213_0080_Becky_Brackish

```
092  R:      ah yeah I ha- I I take the test twice
093  L:      oh
094  R:      so it's it take the test in in dete konai ([it]
             doesn't come out ) (laughs)
095  L:      (laughs)
096  R:      ni gatsu ga dete konai (I can't say February)
097  L:      (laughs) ah February
098  R:      February January February January February
099  L:      (laughs)
100  R:      ma iiya gomen ne (well it's ok sorry)
101  L:      hai (yes) ok ok
102  R:      ok
103  L:      um
104  R:      mm so
105  L:  ⟹  ah the video is the sunlight is beautiful
106  R:      beautiful yeah
```

In Turn 105, Student L relies on the explicit text of the video to make a disjunctive topic shift, which leads to further interaction in the FSA.

As a last example, Turn 094 of Extract 7.10 is from a different group in Becky's classroom during the *Miyakojima City* lesson. The dyad makes a topic transition closely related to the video with the topic *eating in Okinawa.* This topic transition brings the interaction back to the explicit text. The video *Miyakojima City* has a number of scenes depicting spreads of traditional Okinawan food in different locations such as restaurants and culture centers.

Extract 7.10 002_R3_121029_0062_Becky_Miyakojima

```
094   L:   ⇒   toraretenno kana (it is recording I think)ah mm
                nanda (ah what) ah what did you eat in Okinawa
095   R:       un (yeah) Okinawa soba and
096   L:       ah (ah)
097   R:       rafti (Okinawan pork)
```

Although instances of interaction closely related to the video are brief at times, these topics serve an important role in that they help learners move further into the speaking activity. Learners rely on the explicit video text to find topics. In addition, these topics provide support later in the activity when learners make topic transitions closely related to the video in order to continue speaking. In this sense, the learners return to the explicit video text for a topic to talk about.

One possible reason for the brevity of such topics could be due to the manifestation of Lonergan's (1984) actual transfer, where learners use topics from the video to speak about themselves or their interests [details in section 3.4]. Another possible reason could be due to the videos themselves. The videos are of a montage format that depict a sense of place—cityscapes and landscapes of the locations. The scenes do not provide a linear story line or a great deal of semiotic information related to human activities. During the teacher interviews, I asked Miho what she thought about the lack of lengthy development of closely related topics to the video materials. She thought that because students had already worked with topics from the explicit video text in the activities immediately following the video, that the learners could have felt that enough work had already been done with these topics. For reasons argued earlier in this thesis, I present findings from the FSAs first, before I return to the classroom segments leading to the FSAs later in this chapter. For now, I continue with analysis of topics closely related to the video and how they lead to topics less related to the video.

7.2.2.2 Closely related topics as a base

Learners use topics closely related to the video as a foundation from which to propel interaction forward to topic transitions that move into topics less related to the video on the continuum. Although topics shift in a direction away from the explicit video texts, these topic shifts regularly contain lexical or propositional links to the video material and show that a relationship to the video extends further into the interaction. Topics less related to the video seem to display a way that learners take further charge of topic selection to take more autonomous control of the decision-making process that goes into raising a topic. In this way, learners put more of their own imprint on the interaction.

In some instances, the moves from more closely related topics to less closely related topics happen after just a few turns or even in the same turn. Learners reference topics from the explicit video text as a supportive bridge to transition to topics that are less related to the video. Furthermore, these topics are selected by the learners. In conversation analysis terms, learners at times perform stepwise topic shifts through a pivot then raise a new focus (Wong & Waring, 2010). The pivot is a commentary on the video, and the new focus shows some relationship to the pivot. The new focus retains a relationship to the video material in a lessor way and is also controlled by the learner who initiates the topic transition. Moreover, in moving to topics less related to the video, students often open a personal side to the interaction. Extract 7.11 is an example of a learner using the explicit text of a video scene with a pivot move to transition to a topic less closely related to the video material.

Extract 7.11 013_R1_121213_0080_Becky_Brackish

```
001  R:        ah in this video
002  L:        mm
003  R:        there was sea beautiful sea
004  L:        mm
005  R:        eh recently recently did you go to swimming?
```

In Extract 7.11, Student R frames his question about swimming with the images of the sea found in the video. By invoking a scene from the video in the pivot move in Turn 003, Student R uses a scene to then shift focus to a topic that may have a more personal and immediate relevance with his interlocutor. While clear examples with these pivot moves occur only four times in these data, recognition of them establishes a strong foothold to explain how learners use the video material as

topic transitions to topics less related to the video. These pivot moves are the clearest way to see how the explicit text of the video is used as a base to launch topics less closely related to the video.

The same dyad from the previous extract uses a pivot move in a similar way much later in the activity. Again, the pivot has a close relationship to the video. However, this time the move is initiated by Student L. In Extract 7.12, the topic transition is an assessment of a video-scene theme in Turn 105, with an acknowledgement of the assessment by Student R in Turn 106. Student L then makes the topic transition to *New Year's sunrise in Japan* in the second part of Turn 107, a topic shift less closely related to the video. The propositional link made by Student L appears to be the natural light of the sun from sunset scenes in the video. A lexical link is demonstrated by the items *sunlight* and *sunrise* in Turns 105 and 111, respectively. Therefore, the scenes from the video are used as a base to pivot to a topic relevant to the learners' lives.

Extract 7.12 013_R1_121213_0080_Becky_Brackish

```
105  L:      ah the video is the sunlight is beautiful
106  R:      beautiful yeah
107  L:      yeah (laughs) if you live in Shizuoka
108  R:      mm
109  L:      you must see the New Year's Day yeah
110  R:      New Year's uh hum
111  L:      nanda (what) sunrise
```

These pivot moves have several implications. By making the propositional and lexical associations of the lighting in the video with sunrise of New Year's Day, the topic is deeply involved within the context and traditions of Japan. This day is one of the most important holidays of the year in the country. Watching sunrise on the first day of the new year is a special event for many Japanese that may well evoke memories of friends, family, and a sense of returning to one's roots because a focal point of the holiday is for many Japanese to return to their hometowns to be with family or childhood friends. Therefore, the learners have arrived at a topic where they most likely have plenty of experience on which to draw for further interaction. In addition, these pivot moves indicate an orientation to the classroom activity. Reference back to the video suggests that learners are conscious of the discussion prompt and signals that they are on task. Furthermore, these pivot moves are a clear use of video materials to elicit interaction.

In Extract 7.13, Student L encourages the direction of the topics to be about the video in Turn 002, and Student R responds with a question about feelings related to the video in Turn 003. Student L seems confused by the question at first, then in Turn 004 moves to describe a church depicted in the video. In Turn 007, Student R comments about the beauty of the sea in the video, which serves as a base or pivot for her to transition to a lessor video-related topic where she wants to go to the sea. Also, there is a lexical link to interaction in previous Turns 004 and 005 with 'beautiful'. In Turn 012, Student L uses a similar pattern, 'sea is beautiful', providing a lexical link to what her interlocutor said in Turn 007. However, in Turn 012, Student L likely is no longer speaking about scenes of the sea in the video. Rather, Student L seems to be talking about her impression of the sea in general, which aligns with the topic transition made by Student R in Turn 009. Furthermore, Student L's remark in Turn 012 also shows a propositional link to the video because there are a number of scenes of people swimming in the sea.

Extract 7.13 015_R3_121213_0081_Becky_Brackish

```
002  L:      go yeah talk about video the video ah um
003  R:      how do you feel watch the video
004  L:      huh? um ah the church is so beautiful yeah
005  R:      beautiful
006  L:      yeah
007  R:      and ah I ah the sea is very beautiful
008  L:      yeah
009  R:      and I want to go sea
010  L:      mm
011  R:      to sea mm
012  L:      sea is beautiful but I don't like um don't like um
              hairu (getting in)
013  R:      (unintl.)
014  L:      sea sea swim swimming
015  R:      why
```

In Extract 7.13, descriptions of both the church and the sea are short, and Student R moves the talk from the explicit text of the sea in the video to one less closely related that include both her partner's views of the sea and swimming. Such a shift to topics related to the learners' personal lives happens frequently throughout FSAs in both topics more closely related to the video and topics less closely related.

Learners also make topic transitions from more closely related topics to less closely related topics without the use of pivots. In the absence of pivot moves, most instances of less closely related interaction begin with topic transitions that maintain lexical or propositional links to earlier interaction. For example, Extract 7.14 begins in the middle of a topic more closely related to the video of *favorite Cup Noodle flavor*. The video had several scenes of a giant cup noodle advertising sign. Amongst the montage of street scenes in New York, the video also contains several scenes of ice skaters skating normally and also performing skillful spin moves at an outdoor ice rink. The topic flow for the entire speaking activity is:

> *favorite Cup Noodle flavor>experience ice skating>playing sports>club memberships>playing music>high school experience>commuting to university>friends>playing mandolin.*

Extract 7.14 007_R2_ 121206_0073_Becky_New_York

```
025    M:        curry curry cheese curry
026    F:        ah ah ah it's delicious (laughs)
027    M:        shio oh (salt oh)
028    F:        (laughs) eh (eh)
029    M:        eh only Japanese shio (salt)
030    F:        dou daro (well) I don't know (laughs) hmm
031    M:    ⇒   hmm next
032    F:        I want to
033    M:        hai (yes)
034    F:        play eto (eh) ice skate
035    M:        mm
036    F:        I I don't ah I have to I have played one time
037    M:        one time where? your hometown?
038    F:        eto eto dokodakke asoko Fuji Q (eh eh do you
                 know that place Fuji Q)
039    M:        ah (ah)
040    F:        (laughs)
041    M:        me too me too
042    F:        so I I don't I don't play well (laughs)
043    M:        eh Fuji Q
044    F:        I can't stand on the skate skate rink (laughs)
045    M:        can't can't eh eh
046    F:        so I I un tsukamu (hold) hang
047    M:        hang hang
048    F:        hang something so (laughs)
049    M:        eh
050    F:        I can't hang (laughs)
051    M:        maji ka (seriously?)
052    F:        (laughs) you
053    M:        I can skate
054    F:        oh ah you look like so (laughs)
055    M:        very easy very easy
```

```
056   F:         eh
057   M:         very easy
058   F:         no (laughs) It's so difficult (laughs)
059   M:         (laughs)
060   F:         eh datte (eh because)(laughs) nande daro mm (how
                 can I say ah)
061   M:         mattaku aredatta desukeredomo kokemoshinai sube
                 futsuu ni zaa- teitte (totally I can but I don't
                 fall down and can skate normally 'zaa' [sound of
                 skating smoothly])
062   F:         (laughs) mm (mm)
063   M:    ⇒    eh do you eto (eh) have you played the sports?
```

In Turn 031 of Extract 7.14, Student M uses a disjunctive topic shift marker to indicate a desire to shift the topic, and Student F makes a shift to the topic of *experience with ice skating*. In one sense, the topic shift is a disjunctive shift because it moves from the previous topic of *favorite Cup Noodle flavor*. On the other hand, if viewed with the propositional link of ice skating in the video in mind, then this topic is also considered closely related to the video. After developing the topic in Turns 035–062, Student M makes a topic transition to *playing sports* in Turn 063. Although the sport of ice skating is in the video, the topic of *playing sports* represents a shift from more closely related to the video to less closely related on the continuum. While there is a clear propositional link to the previous topic that has a close relationship to the video in that ice skating is a sport, the overall topic of sports is not the theme of the video.

In Extract 7.14, the topic shifts to personal experience with ice skating, and then learners make a topic transition to discuss personal experiences with sports. This topic transition to a topic less closely related to the video happens without a pivot, yet this topic shows a relationship to the video. Learners shift to topics less closely related to the video in such ways in subsequent interactions as the dyads work in the time allotted for the speaking activity. Both topics closely related to the video and those less related to the video demonstrate a use of video materials.

7.2.2.3   *Topics less closely related to the video*

This section focuses on interaction with topics less related to the video. Taking an ecological approach [detailed in sections 3.9 & 5.2] to analysis using the key principles of emergence and social activity (van Lier, 2000; Thoms, 2014), relationships to the video through topics extend throughout the FSAs. Just how do learners get from a video about ruins on a Greek Island to an obscure species of

shrimp in Japan? A relationship emerges between these two topics when considering topic flow as an ecological process of perception and social activity by learners. Topics less closely related to the video in these data show traceable relationships through lexical links to prior topics and propositional links back to the explicit video text through the flow of topics. As such, the video materials are used throughout the FSAs to support interaction.

In addition, as one might expect, topics less closely related to the video material can have an impact of their own on subsequent topics. Therefore, any relationship to topics less closely related to the video material must have at least some degree of connection to the video, too. In less closely related topics, learners shift the interaction to topics with which they are familiar and have personal relevance, yet these topics often retain a degree of influence from the video. The personally relevant aspects of these data are consistent with what Morris-Adams (2014) calls an *interpersonal topic strategy*, where interlocutors make comparisons at a personal level. Moreover, materials developers suggest that video is a good starting point to elicit personal topics and that such topics are beneficial to improve speaking skills [details in section 3.5]. Furthermore, personalization is considered by McDonough et al. (2013) to be a principle of adaptation of materials [detailed in section 3.11], which is a form of materials use. Below, I present examples of the emergence of topics less related to the video.

Beginning with Extract 7.15, the next three extracts trace the emergent relationships to the video in topics less related to the video through the topic flow of a FSA in one dyad. Learners had watched *The Brackish Water,* a video shot on the Greek island of Santorini. The video featured scenes of temple ruins similar to those at the Parthenon and also scenes of the archaeological excavation site named Akrotiri, both of which resemble world heritage sites. The topic flow for the entire FSA is:

Santorini video scenes>visiting Greek heritage sites>Spanish heritage site>location of Greece> instruction>experience at world heritage sites in Japan >Ise>opinions on food

Extract 7.15 picks up in the less closely related topic of *visiting Greek heritage sites* after learners had made comments about the excavation site seen in the video. In Turn 040, Student R comments that visiting the Parthenon might be a reason to go to Greece. In Turn 041, Student L seems surprised

indicated by 'oh', and seeks confirmation that the Parthenon is a world heritage site in Turns 041 and 043. Student R confirms this fact in Turn 044.

Extract 7.15 014_R2_121213_0078_Becky_Brackish

```
040  R:          parutenon shinden atene (The Parthenon Temple of
                 Athens)
041  L:          oh world heritage
042  R:          hai (yes)
043  L:          isn't it
044  R:          yes
```

'World heritage' then becomes associated with the video through the less closely related topic of *visiting Greek heritage sties* in at least two ways. The first is a propositional link to the setting of the video in Greece. The second is another propositional link based on the images of the Santorini ruins that were discussed in the previous topic with their resemblance to world heritage sites. All subsequent talk of world heritages can be considered to carry some degree of relationship to the video, particularly when learners draw on 'world heritage' as a lexical link.

In addition, a further link can be traced to the video when Student R comments that his perception of Greece as an exotic country is based on what is in the video. Extract 7.16 shows that the learners do indeed use the lexical link of 'world heritage' much later in the FSA to talk about arguably the most important place in Japan for the indigenous religion of Shintoism, Ise Shrine.

Extract 7.16 014_R2_121213_0078_Becky_Brackish

```
133  L:          eh is Ise shr-shr-shrine
134  R:          mm
135  L:          world heritage?
136  R:          probably so
```

In Extract 7.17, the dyad makes a topic transition from *Ise* to eating an obscure species of shellfish called *Ise ebi* in Japanese or 'Ise shrimp' in English (also translated as 'Japanese spiny lobster'). The name comes from the region of Ise, the location of the Ise Shrine, a topic shown above to be less closely related to the video. Because Ise Shrimp and the world heritage site of Ise Shrine share a lexical link, the final topic in the topic flow for this FSA of *opinions on food* is a less closely related topic.

Extract 7.17 014_R2_121213_0078_Becky_Brackish

```
173  R:          so eto (eh) Ise shrimp is
174  L:          mm
175  R:          Ise shrimp seems be god by me (laughs) ah for me
```

Therefore, what appear to be vastly different topics show relationships that both link back to the video. The degree to which the links relate to the video lie on the continuum of being more or less closely related to the video. In the above example, learners begin with the topic of *Santorini video scenes* (more closely related) and end on *opinions of food* (less closely related). The process in which topics emerge leaves a trail back to the video. In addition, some topics may link to each other through lexis or thematic propositions.

Overall, as the topics emerge on various points on the continuum in relation to the video material, we see ways in which the learners use the video materials to promote interaction. The initial prompts in the FSAs lead to numerous topic shifts, which is what should happen in a discussion. Therefore, learners use the video materials to support and sustain interaction. Furthermore, as learners move through the speaking activity to discuss topics more and less closely related to the video materials, they temporarily suspend topics to work through linguistic issues that arise in the form of side sequences.

7.3 Side sequences and peer assistance

Side sequences emerge at points surrounding topics during FSAs of *DVDay* lessons. As defined earlier, side sequences are instances when learners temporarily postpone the flow of the topic at hand to confront linguistic issues, seek clarification, or question language [sections 5.6.3, 6.2.2, & 6.2.4]. Overall, 28 side sequences are identified in these FSAs. In the classroom ecology, side sequences appear to have relationships to the video materials. The video-based materials lead to interaction that might be in some way beyond the learners' current language skills. Therefore, side sequences are necessary to trouble-shoot these difficulties. As they lead to negotiation of meaning, which is identified as a way of pushing learners' language development, by giving learners a need to negotiate for meaning, the videos are a part of the process of creating opportunities for learning. When linguistic issues surface in the interaction, learners either try to work through the problem by themselves, get

help from their interlocutor, or at times, receive assistance from the teacher. As such, interaction in side sequences also demonstrates a collaborative nature between participants.

Extract 7.18 shows a dyad in a side sequence. In Turn 037, a gap in knowledge emerges when Student L is unsure how to express her idea in English, and she asks her partner for assistance.

Extract 7.18 014_R2_121213_0078_Becky_Brackish

```
037  L:          (laughs) but girish- (Greece) I don't know girisha
                 (Greece) Greece is (laughs) nani aru ka (what is there)
                 I don't know there nandaro nani ga aru ka (how can I
                 say what's there)
038  R:          I don't know what is there in Greece
039  L:          um what is there in Greece
```

In Turn 038, Student R then provides scaffolding with an answer to Student L's request for help. In Turn 039, Student L repeats the portion of the answer that she was unable to do prior to the assistance, which demonstrates a change. These two steps – a gap in knowledge and a co-adaptation of scaffolded language – represent the first two criteria in the Ellis (2010) model of the language learning process.

As another example, Extract 7.19 is from later in the same FSA. The learners work in a collaborative way to solve an issue.

Extract 7.19 014_R2_121213_0078_Becky_Brackish

```
126  R:          Chuusonji temple ise jingu tte nante iyundaro (how can
                 I say the sacred shrine of Ise)
127  L:          eh?
128  R:          Ise sunshine Ise shri-shrine
129  L:          shri- un (yes)
130  R:          Kiyozumizuji temple Todaiji temple
131  L:          mm mm mm
132  R:          like that
133  L:          eh is Ise shr-shr-shrine
134  R:          mm
135  L:          world heritage?
136  R:          probably so
```

Extract 7.19 relates to a gap in Student R's knowledge regarding the Japanese lexical item *jingu* (shrine). Student L in Turn 127 also appears to have a gap in knowledge of how to say 'shrine'. While it is Student R who asks the original question, the interaction implies that she does not have the ability to say 'shrine' on demand. However, in Turn 128, she makes an attempt with 'Ise sunshine' before

finally being able to recall the correct English. While Student R answers her own question, this answer becomes scaffolding for Student L, who upon hearing Student R's solution in Turn 128, makes her own attempt to say 'shrine' but is not quite able to say the complete word in Turn 129. In Turn 133, Student L is able to use 'shrine' in the context of a question. Student R encourages and acknowledges Student L's use of 'shrine' in Turn 134. Student L then completes her question in Turn 135.

Interaction in Extract 7.19 appears to satisfy at least the first two criteria of the Ellis (2010) model of the learning process [detailed in section 5.6.5]. Student L demonstrates a gap in knowledge, the gap is scaffolded, and Student L co-adapts the scaffolding in the new context of a question. Moreover, as shown in the previous section on topics, the use of 'world heritage' by Student L provides a lexical link to earlier topics in the speaking activity while also showing a link back to topics of the video material. Extract 7.19 emerges from a topic less closely related to the video materials, which demonstrates a relationship between the side sequence and the video.

Finally, in Extract 7.19, an opportunity for learning arises for Student R, the learner who was able to recall the lexical item. Student R's original appeal to Student L is a request for assistance. The interaction unfolds in such a way that the opportunity arises to bring out the lexical item 'shrine', albeit with a struggle in Turn 128. By struggling to answer her own question, she pushes herself to recall prior knowledge. Such development of language skills is proposed by Anderson (2015) to be a characteristic of learning opportunities. Use of the video materials leads to learning opportunities for both students.

The next example from Extract 7.20 shows a side sequence where peer assistance seems to aid in language development. A linguistic issue arises through a combination of a mistake with a lexical item and through first language interference when Student M uses a Japanese loanword as part of an English response. Loanwords have been thought to cause trouble for some Japanese learners because these loanwords often function as adjectives or verbs in the original language, but are usually used as nouns in Japanese. Therefore, bringing a loanword noun from Japanese back to English can lead to confusion because the word should be an adjective in English.

At the end of Turn 012 of Extract 7.20, a gap in knowledge arises in Student M when he uses *life* and the Japanese loanword *raibu* instead of the English adjective *live* as in a live performance by a musical band. This use confuses Student F in Turn 013.

Extract 7.20 003_R1_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit

```
012  M:      ah I watch I I want to watch eh life life raibu
             raibu raibu (live performance live performance live
             performance)
013  F:      raibu?
014  M:      live live
015  F:      live
016  M:      live live live
017  F:      uh huh
018  M:      live live
019  F:      style siekastu (life style) style tashika (probably)
020  M:      chigau yo raibu raibu ni ikitakute (no live
             performance live performance I want to go to a live
             performance)
021  F:      ah raibu ne (oh a live performance I see) (laughs)
022  M:      raibu wo mitai toiyu koto dayo (that means I want to
             see a live performance)
023  F:      live performance?
024  M:      so live performance
025  F:      live concert?
026  M:      live concerts concert I want to go concert in
             Detroit
```

After working together in both languages, Student F finally addresses the gap and scaffolds a more appropriate English phrase of 'live performance' in Turn 023. Furthermore, Student F offers a second choice of 'live concert', which is then repeated and used in context by Student M as a more appropriate English response than his original message back in Turn 012. Student F has assisted Student M with the learning opportunity, and in Turn 026 Student M demonstrates a change in his language use. Similar to the previous example in Extract 7.19, interaction in Extract 7.20 also satisfies at least the first two criteria of the Ellis (2010) model. Furthermore, the extract illustrates that side sequences emerge during interaction related to the video topic. Again, the use of the video materials leads to a learning opportunity.

Taken together, side sequences in the learner interaction satisfy the first two criteria of the learning process according to the Ellis (2010) model. In particular, gaps and the co-adaptations appear regularly along with the assumptions of Level One, which are that change occurs in a social activity

and is scaffolded [detailed in section 5.6.5]. Although all the criteria do not surface in the FSAs of one lesson, fulfilling these first two criteria of the model illustrates an important point—that a part of the process is underway. The way learners work to solve the linguistic issue provides evidence that part of a longer learning process is ongoing. The unfulfilled portions and higher-level assumptions are related to learners showing independent and unscaffolded use of learned item(s) in a different context, which may occur at a later time. As such, these side sequences set up a future possibility for the model to be completed. Furthermore, side sequences seem to bring about an opportunity to adapt responses to emergent communicative needs, which has been associated with the learning process [detailed in section 5.6.5].

From an ecological standpoint, side sequences imply a relationship to the video materials because they emerge from topics based on the video materials through social activity. Therefore, use of the video materials appears to lead to opportunities for learning. Furthermore, side sequences show collaboration. Learners are aware of receiving help from their peers with 80% reporting that they receive assistance from their partners in the FSAs. In addition, learners report that not only are they comfortable assisting their partners (86%) but also that they are comfortable getting help (95%). One of Miho's students wrote, '[. . .] by talking with my partner, I could learn English from the partner.' Therefore, these learners seem to see value in peer work and have a positive view toward it.

So far in this chapter, analysis has focused on use of the video materials in initial moves, topic transitions, and side sequences during the final speaking activities (FSAs) of *DVDay* to discern what is being talked about in that activity. Peer interactions show connections to the music videos through topics. Learners often move into discussions with topics more closely related to the video, and as their interaction progresses they often use the explicit text of the videos to shift to topics that are less closely related to the video materials. Furthermore, the explicit texts of the video scenes are used as a base to shift to topics that still show a propositional relationship to the video materials. In FSAs, the learners frequently relate topics to their personal experiences, particularly to travel experiences. Also surrounding the discussion of video-related topics in the FSAs, the side sequences that emerge are learning opportunities. Because these side sequences show ecological relationships to the video

material by emerging from video-related topical discussions, the use of the video material seems to impact the process of metalinguistic interaction in FSAs.

By placing the attention in the earlier sections of this chapter on the FSAs in *DVDay* lessons, I presented findings from the last of the three post-video activities first. As explained earlier in this thesis, I choose to present analysis out of chronological order because interaction in the FSAs can now be kept in mind while reading about the other activities in the coming sections. Following the video viewing, there are two additional activities in *DVDay* lessons [as detailed in sections 4.7.2 & 7.1]: Post-video Brainstorming (PVBS) and Whole-group Brainstorming (WGBS). To be clear, PVBS and WGBS occur before the FSAs. PVBS is a pair work activity that immediately follows video playback, and WGBS is a teacher-led activity that follows PVBS. Both of these video-related activities produce additional interaction, and for reasons argued earlier in this thesis [section 7.1], there is more analysis of interaction from *DVDay* activities than from *ABC*. Analysis of PVBS and WGBS illustrates how interaction in these earlier activities relates to both the video materials and the FSAs. I now turn to these activities, where classroom interaction shows further relationships to the explicit text of the video.

7.4 Interaction in post-video brainstorming (PVBS)

In PVBS, learners are asked to work in pairs to write lists of ideas related to the video material. The creation of list items and lists by learners in PVBS consists of two main categories. List items are either created easily, or learners require some assistance due to a gap in knowledge. When list items are created easily, the learners access prior knowledge to make a list item, write the item, and move to create additional list items to build their lists. However, in cases when learners experience the gap in knowledge, learners often work together to find a way to put English to their ideas similar to side sequences in the FSAs. Instances where gaps in knowledge arise are opportunities for learning [detailed in section 5.6.5]. Because not all of the list items develop into full- or partial-threads, I first focus on typical interaction found in the PVBS activity irrespective of threads to present the broader context of the activity. This broader context serves a dual purpose: it accounts for list items that do not become threads, and it acts as a baseline from which to make comparisons to the full-thread instances

of PVBS later in this chapter. Detailed below, findings from interaction in PVBS include: *accessing prior knowledge, opportunities for learning,* and *post-video brainstorming in full-threads*.

7.4.1   Accessing prior knowledge in PVBS

As mentioned above, learners access prior knowledge of English to make list items during the pair work in PVBS. The following three extracts illustrate typical instances where learners bring forth prior knowledge to produce list items. As the first activity following the playback of the video, instructions for PVBS are for learners to work in pairs to create lists of up to 20 list items related to any aspect of the video. In Extract 7.21, the learners work in PVBS after watching the video *New York City* that has a number of scenes with American flags flying from buildings.

Extract 7.21 007_PVBS_R2_121206_0073_Becky_New_York

```
006  F:    ah national flag
007  M:    ahh oh oh
008  F:    ato wa (next)
```

In Extract 7.21, Student F accesses her prior knowledge of English to make the list item 'national flag' to describe an object in the video. Furthermore, Student M acknowledges and accepts the list item verbally in Turn 007. Then, Student F's use of her L1 in Turn 008 functions to: (1) indicate that the previous list item has been completed, (2) put a clear boundary around that particular list item, and (3) encourage a continuation of the activity by opening the floor for a possible response from her partner. The learners continue to make list items, with both members of the dyad making contributions to the list.

Learners respond to the prompt to make list items based on scenes in the video material. The prompt, then, remains in the background as a tacit reminder that moves the activity along while students finish making one list item and move to the next one to produce their lists. The act of writing also serves as a point of acceptance for the list item. The use of discourse markers such as *ato* (next) become proxies for the prompt so that learners can move to create another list item. In this way, the video materials are used to elicit responses that become list items.

In Extract 7.22, the learners had watched the video *Detroit City* in which several scenes depicted a large suspension bridge that spans a river to connect the American city of Detroit with the Canadian city of Windsor.

Extract 7.22 004_PVBS_R3_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit

```
020  F:    ato (next) bridge
021  M:    bridge
022  F:    big bridge mm
```

At times in PVBS, learners build upon their initial response themselves as Student F does in Turns 020 and 022 of Extract 7.22 when she extends her initial offering of the single lexical item 'bridge' to form the phrase 'big bridge'. On one level, such self-building not only extends the initial offering into a phrase, but also provides the learner with a sense of satisfaction of having created a slightly longer response as indicated by her 'mm' in Turn 022. More importantly, the self-building shows a desire to create a more complex response that signifies engagement with the activity. Student M's contribution to the interaction is through a repetition of his partner's word in Turn 021. Repetition functions within these PVBS sequences in a parallel manner to how it functions in speaking. According to Thornbury (2005), repetition: (1) 'binds utterances together, thereby enhancing the sense that speakers are being relevant', and (2) 'creates a sense that all participants are in harmony [. . . and] thereby supports conversation's interpersonal function' (p. 70). Furthermore, such repetition also serves to show an understanding by Student M of what has been said by Student F. That learners can understand each other most likely contributes to the building of confidence in using the foreign language.

List items in PVBS demonstrate clear relationships to the video material. Although these list items are relatively short, these responses are a part of what Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) call *materials and classroom discourse*. Because learners work with perceptions of the video images as a means to elicit language production within PVBS, once a list item is produced in relation to the instructions of the activity, the item takes on a close relationship to the explicit text of the video imagery. As such, any subsequent use of list items that originate in PVBS during later activities is also considered to have a close relationship to the video imagery. In addition, list creation in the PVBS

process is *use* of the video material, i.e., the learners use visual imagery as an impetus to produce PVBS list items.

To further exemplify the way in which learners access prior knowledge in PVBS in relation to and use of the video material, interaction from a different dyad in yet another lesson appears in Extract 7.23. In this extract, learners make list items after watching the video entitled *Chicago City*, which depicted street scenes of the American city.

Extract 7.23 012_PVBS_R3_121210_0080_Becky_Chicago

```
012  R:       ah American flag
013  L:       mm (yes) building
014  R:       eto (ah)
015  L:       train um children um
```

In Extract 7.23, learners name items in succession from scenes in the video. The learners work as a team to make four list items: 'American flag', 'building', 'train', and 'children'. These list items are produced easily as the learners develop the lists. With both learners making contributions, the work is distributed, and there is a sharing of responsibility for the creation of the lists. Therefore, the activity has a sense of cooperation and collaboration, which adds a sense of group ownership over the language produced.

The PVBS process and list items shown in the previous three extracts exhibit a number of features and functions. The list items are relatively short, happen quickly, and are comprised mainly of nouns and noun phrases. These quick and short sequences in PVBS serve several benefits to the overall process of the activity. One benefit is to build confidence in the use of English because learners access prior knowledge in an easy way. The building of confidence has been argued as a way for Japanese learners to overcome inhibitions of speaking in English [detailed in section 2.7.1]. Moreover, videos are believed to spark lively classroom experiences and build confidence [detailed in section 3.5]. Many Japanese learners have little experience working in pairs to speak together in class due to the nature of the educational system [detailed in Chapter 2]. For example, Grandon (2014) found that learners at universities in Japan are unfamiliar with brainstorming in video-based lessons. Furthermore, PVBS provides a space for learners to speak to each other without the presence of the teacher. Previous research has shown that learners experience less anxiety in pair work, which is

associated with higher confidence in speaking [detailed in section 2.7.2]. In the student questionnaires, only 11% of learners reported to have stress from the *DVDay* lessons. Learners use linguistic resources at hand to produce acceptable list items and put their productive language skills to use without experiencing any trouble. Moreover, the interaction often remains in English and the learners can understand each other, both of which may further add to confidence in foreign language use.

Another benefit is that these list items keep the activity moving while learners work toward the goal of creating lists, so the ease with which these items are produced may add to a sense of accomplishment. The activity is possible for the learners. The extracts above show that the learners are equipped with enough prior knowledge to describe elements of certain scenes using nouns and noun phrases, so there is an opportunity for a retrieval of knowledge. Learners can say and write thoughts that are related to the video on paper quickly and move to the production of the next list item.

By and large, when learners move into the PVBS activity, they voice their thoughts about the video and work together to create written lists. PVBS contains language that is largely descriptive in nature as the learners voice elements of perceptions based on the video material and write list items in their handouts. As might be expected in the process of generating list items with a partner, often times during the list-making process, learners produce list items with relative ease. However, one criticism of these list items is that these nouns and noun phrases may be too simple. The list items did develop in complexity to include clauses and sentences as the semester progressed. As for a descriptive baseline for PVBS, a random sampling from one teacher's classroom over the course of the semester shows that 57% of the list items are produced without any trouble as the preceding examples display. However, at other times in PBVS, gaps in knowledge surface when learners attempt to express thoughts about the video scenes that are beyond their English ability. These gaps become opportunities for learning, and learners often assist each other to fill the gaps.

7.4.2   Opportunities for learning in PVBS

When learners experience gaps in their ability to express or understand English based on the video imagery, opportunities for learning arise. The gaps emerge in a similar way to gaps in side sequences. For this analysis, the elements that make up the gap can be separated from the holistic

process by following analytic sociocognition [detailed in section 5.6.5]. Furthermore, the Ellis (2010) model applies just as in the analysis of side sequences [sections 5.6.5, 6.2.4, & 7.3]. When these opportunities surface, learners often collaborate to find appropriate English, co-construct list items, or consult a dictionary. Extract 7.24 shows an example of a learning opportunity in PVBS following the viewing of the video *The Brackish Water* that depicts scenes of people sunbathing on a beach in Santorini, Greece.

Extract 7.24 013_PVBS_R1_121213_0080_Becky_Brackish

```
058  L:      ah there are many rock rocks
059  R:      rock?
060  L:      rocks ah stone with stone
061  R:      ah
062  L:      near near ocean
063  R:      many stone stone?
064  L:      ah many rock
065  R:      ro- ah yeah yeah
066  L:      many rocks near the ocean
067  R:      ocean many rocks rock how do you spell rock?
068  L:      ah
069  R:      rock rock ro-gu rock rock there rock
070  L:      mm
071  R:      do you know how rock was
072  L:      ah
073  R:      how
074  L:      I don't remember (laughs)
075  R:      mm yeah many rocks
076  L:      mm
```

The learning opportunity in Extract 7.24 begins in Turn 059 with Student R's lack of understanding of the word 'rock', and a question to his partner. Student L attempts to explain the meaning by using 'stone' as a synonym, and in Turn 061 Student R seems to understand the explanation. As part of a further explaining of 'rock', Student L builds on his original utterance, and adds further context by describing a video scene in Turn 062. As such, Student L relies on the context of the video to help explain 'rock' to his interlocutor, i.e., the video material is used to assist and clarify the meaning of 'rock.' However, Student R still seems unsure of the meaning of 'rock' in Turn 063, and even unsure of the meaning of the synonym 'stone', and in Turn 064 Student L moves to repeat his original utterance of 'many rock.' In Turn 065, Student R attempts to say the word 'rock', but falls short, and in the same turn, Student R's 'yeah yeah' suggests that he now understands 'rock'.

Student L in Turn 066 then combines two of his own previous utterances to make a longer construction that he has built himself through the process of explaining the meaning of 'rock' to his partner. Student R then goes on to use 'rock' in several contexts in Turns 067, 071, and 075.

If Student R had been able to understand the original utterance in Turn 058, the creation of this list item may have simply become one that accesses prior knowledge as explained earlier. Instead, the lack of understanding by Student R leads to an unpredictable opportunity for a collaborative instance to unfold where Student L not only assists his interlocutor to seemingly understand a new word, but also builds upon his own original offering during the process. The lack of understanding by one student seems to foster a collaborative relationship where the other student then builds on the utterance that was originally not understood in an effort to explain it.

Extract 7.24 shows an instance where Student L builds on his own utterance after his interlocutor experiences a gap in knowledge, so the production of a more accurate utterance through self-repair emerges during the episode. Instances of self-repair are distinct from instances when both members of a dyad make contributions to jointly solve a linguistic problem with a list item. For example, in Extract 7.25, learners assist each other to determine a way to speak about a unique architectural complex called 'Marina City' in Chicago. 'Marina City' features two towers known for their resemblance to corncobs. The lower floors of each tower are parking garages, and the video *Chicago City* shows several scenes of cars parked in the garages of these iconic towers.

Extract 7.25 012_PVBS_R3_121210_0080_Becky_Chicago

```
053  R:      parking parking
054  L:      parking
055  R:      ah nantoiyudaro (ah how can I say) high parking
056  L:      building
057  R:      high building in high building
058  L:      building for parking janai (not that)
059  R:      building for parking mm
060  L:      high as Japanese (laughs) mm
```

The beginning of Extract 7.25 seems to have some first language interference because the Japanese word *parukingu* (parking garage) is a loanword from English used to mean a parking garage or parking lot. In Turn 055, Student R builds on his own utterance by adding 'high' to create a phrase. Student L seems to know that 'parking' by itself is insufficient to speak about a parking garage. In

Turn 056, he adds to the construction of his interlocutor so that there is now the co-construction of the particular list item 'high parking building' collaboratively built by contributions from the two learners. Student R begins to experiment with 'high building' in Turn 057. Then, in Turn 058, Student L uses components of his and his interlocutor's contributions as a new construction. This co-construction of a list item seems to be a test of a hypothesis, and Student L indicates his uncertainty as to its validity in Japanese. In Turn 060, Student L moves to build further on the list item by using 'high', a word used by his partner earlier. Turn 060 appears to be an attempt at comparing the parking structure in the video with tall parking garages found throughout Japan as an effort to build the list item further. So, the entire team effort is 'building for parking high as Japanese'. 'Building for parking' appears to be a co-construction of the communication strategy of circumlocution where learners use linguistic resources that are available to communicate meaning. This example shows how learners collaborate to solve a linguistic problem in PVBS.

To summarize the broader context of PVBS, learners generate list items based on the video scenes in three main ways: (1) by using prior knowledge to easily create items, (2) with episodes of opportunities for learning, and (3) with opportunities for learning where a knowledge gap is solved jointly. List items in PVBS tend to be at the lexical and phrasal level in the beginning and show an increase to higher-level constructions of clauses and sentences, indicating that learners produce lists with richer features in PVBS as the semester progresses. However, the focus in this thesis is on the process of the activity. The sections above establish a baseline for the broad context of PVBS regardless of whether or not the list items are a part of any full- or partial-threads in the subsequent activity of WGBS or the FSAs. Moreover, it is clear that during PVBS, the list-item responses have a close relationship to the explicit text of the video and that creating these lists is use of the video material. While only one example of each type of list item including learning opportunities is shown above, more of these types of list items are presented in the following section where I now turn to ways in which learners work with list items in full-thread instances.

7.4.3   Post-video brainstorming in full-threads

As explained previously in this thesis [section 5.6.3], full-threads occur when learners use similar language in PVBS, WGBS and FSAs. When learners create PVBS list items in what eventually become full-threads, an unexpected difference surfaces as compared to the baseline instances. While the overarching categories of: (1) accessing prior knowledge, and (2) opportunities for learning as explained above are consistent, nearly all of the full-threads begin as in the latter. On a descriptive basis, 43% of the list items in the baseline instances include knowledge gaps. However, 81% of PVBS instances that later emerge as full-threads begin with knowledge gaps. In other words, full-threads usually start with gaps in knowledge that lead to opportunities for learning. Therefore, these learners tend to revisit language items surrounding knowledge gaps found in PVBS.

During the interaction surrounding these learning opportunities in PVBS, the struggle to build complex language structures to discuss the video results in collaboration to produce list items. Learners often shift into a metalinguistic mode to discuss and build their responses so that a list item can be co-constructed, and the activity can continue. As such, the shift to and interaction within the metalinguistic mode is a part of the overall process of the activity itself as learners collaborate on the production of list items. In addition, these episodes are similar to the way in which side sequences unfold within topics in the Final Speaking Activities (FSAs). Thus, peer interaction during the PVBS activity functions as a practice or rehearsal for the types of interaction and challenges found in FSAs or even potentially in speaking outside of the classroom. PVBS is an activity where learners share and process information about the video material. Dat (2003) considers the sharing of information in language lessons to mean 'discovering missing information from one's knowledge gap by learning about it from one or more partners' (p. 385).

During opportunities for learning in the process of PVBS, learners collaborate to find solutions to gaps in knowledge by what Oxford (1990) calls compensation strategies such as reliance on L1 or appeals for help from their interlocutor. Oxford (1990) suggests that compensation strategies in speaking 'contribute to learning by allowing learners to stay in conversations or keep writing long enough to get sustained practice' (p. 94). Applying this notion to these data, use of the compensation

strategies in conjunction with the video materials and the PVBS process offers the learners chances to

collaborate on finding resolutions for knowledge gaps so as to continue the activity. Such gaps, then,

appear as opportunities for learning. Extract 7.26 displays the beginning of a full-thread where

learners experience a knowledge gap in PVBS and the steps taken to resolve the issue. Learners had

watched the video depicting scenes from Santorini, Greece.

Extract 7.26 015-2_PVBS_R3_121213_0081_Becky_Brackish

```
001   L:          next ah mm
002   R:          church
003   L:          church church with blue yane (roof)
004   R:          yard yard yard yard
005   L:          church there is a big church eto (ah)
006   R:          there is there is a big church
007   L:          yane you bunsho ne ikenai (roof we should make
                  sentences)
008   R:          a roof da (eh)
009   L:          roof roof church church church with a blue
010   R:          with a blue roof tte atteiru? (is that right)
011   L:          ah wakaranai (I don't know)
012   R:          church church there is a church
013   L:          nani nani no jyan (what what kind of)
014   R:          is a ok ok
015   L:          (unintl.) kore iyuwanaiike de ii dayo mm (this is
                  OK to say mm) roof ro ro roof roof next ah
                  [. . . ]
```

Following the initial lexical item of 'church' in Turn 002, the interlocutor builds on this list item

to co-construct a more complex phrase in Turn 003. However, a gap in knowledge surfaces where

Student L then applies a compensation strategy (Oxford, 1990) to overcome the limitation with the use

of the L1 Japanese *yane* (roof). Turn 004 has at least three possible interpretations: (1) Student R may

be trying to build on a description of the church by saying that there is a yard in the scene, which there

was not in the video, (2) she is moving on to another list item, or (3) she is trying to translate the

Japanese word *yane* (roof) into English. The most plausible interpretation is the latter. Regardless,

Student L continues to build the list item in Turn 005.

In Turn 008, Student R gives the English translation for *yane* (roof) that seems to have been

found in a dictionary. Even the act of searching the dictionary is a part of the collaborative process

because when Student L experiences the linguistic issue, it is Student R who checks the dictionary and

provides a solution. Such learner cooperation demonstrates a sense of teamwork. Student L repeats the

lexical item 'roof' twice seemingly as attempts to internalize the word before inserting it into a phrase. In Turn 010, Student R builds and completes the phrase for the first time with the inclusion of the new lexical item of 'roof'. Finally, in Turn 015, Student L judges their list item as acceptable, and then practices saying 'roof' several times before moving the activity forward to the next list item.

During PVBS, learner confidence builds because the dyads create list items and make language decisions independently from the teacher. For example, in Turn 010 of Extract 7.26, Student R seeks feedback from her interlocutor on the quality of the co-constructed phrase, and in Turn 011, her interlocutor is unsure of its correctness. Although the learners co-construct a correct form without the teacher present, they remain unsure about the validity of their construction. This lack of confidence may be a challenge for learners in the Japanese context, who are used to teacher fronted classroom lessons as explained Chapter 2. In Turn 015, Student L decides that the use of 'roof' is acceptable, and in doing so takes control over the production. PVBS seems to provide a space for learners to make decisions about and commitments to language construction. As we shall see in the upcoming section on WGBS, there is a chance to present these constructions to the teacher for further verification or hear how others in the room may have also found language for similar video scenes. In PVBS, learners demonstrate a building of confidence as they take charge of the process and decide that their construction is acceptable in an autonomous way. Extract 7.26 illustrates the process surrounding a learning opportunity that serves as the birth of a full-thread with a close relationship to the video material.

Another example of a full-thread beginning with a knowledge gap in PVBS is Extract 7.27 from the lesson *Detroit City*. The video for this lesson contrasts urban blight with modern architecture as a metaphor for wealth disparity in the USA and displays street scenes of several statues throughout the city. Learners encounter a gap in knowledge in this extract as they aim to create a list item to describe video scenes of statues.

Extract 7.27 004-2_PVBS_R3_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit

```
001  F:      oh ano (oh that) ah object
002  M:      object atteiru zou ga (is good for statue)
003  F:      mm (yes)
004  M:      mm (yes)
005  F:      ah hand toka (for example)
```

```
006   F:        eh a ja (yeah well)
007   M:        mm (yes) object nandarou (what) object
008   F:        many objects no [particle marker] mm object ah
                nandarou nantteiyu wakatta (what how can I say I got
                it) object mitai na ([it] looks like)
009   M:        katachi ga (the shape)
010   F:        katachi ga ah nandarou (the shape ah what)
011   M:        many object
012   F:        ah hito (ah a person)
013   M:        hito zou dayo ne ([it] is a statue of a person right)
014   F:        hito (a person)
015   M:        br-bronze
016   F:        br-bron-bronze
017   M:        hito zou (a statue of a person) object
018   F:        object of (laughs) people object de ii no kana ma ii
                (is good I think good) object tte kaiteoko (let's
                write) object of people human human to (and)(unintl.)
                ho ga ii kana (is better I think)
```

Student F provides 'object' as a list item in Turn 001, but Student M is unsure if 'object' is a good way to talk about a statue. Student F assures that it is acceptable with her *mm* (yes) in Turn 003. First language interference appears to cause some trouble stemming from the Japanese loanword *obje* (art object, sculpture, statue). To support her reasoning that 'object' is correct, Student F turns to the context of the video in Turn 005 with 'hand' by which she seems to be referring to the giant bronze hand and fist featured in several scenes of the video. In Turn 007, Student M seems convinced that 'object' is acceptable to use. He appears to want to further build on the list item, but he is unable. Student F builds on the list item with 'many objects', but she is unable to say more English about the object. The pair then move to try to speak about the shape of the statues, and Student F raises the notion that the statue is of a person with a single word in Japanese in Turn 012. Then, Student M builds on his interlocutor's utterance in Turn 013 to jointly construct the list item of *hito zou* (a statue of a person) in Japanese. Student M appears to have checked the dictionary to find 'bronze', and he again uses the joint construction of *hito zou*, and seems to make an attempt to translate the phrase into English.

In Turn 018, Student F also attempts to translate Student M's phrase and experiments amidst her own laughter as she tests her hypothesis of 'object of people.' Also, in Turn 018, Student F seems confident that 'object' is acceptable for what she is trying to say with a metalinguistic comment as to its appropriateness, and further adds 'object *tte kaiteoko* (let's write)' simultaneously indicting that

this list item is complete, and that she is involved in a team decision. However, she seems unsatisfied with this construction, and adds that 'human' is preferable to 'people.' So, there seems to be some playful experimentation with the construction of list items. Extract 7.27 demonstrates that contributions from both learners go into the creation of list items.

To summarize the PVBS activity, learners are able produce lists with list items related to the video images in the class time allotted to the activity. In doing so, learners use the explicit text of the video materials. The dyads function as teams to create their lists. While some list items are produced by accessing prior knowledge and without need for further discussion, the production of other list items brings attention to gaps in learner knowledge that become opportunities for learning. I draw this distinction between types of list items because each one performs a different function, as discussed above.

Learners acknowledge an awareness of limitations within their language skills as they ask for assistance, question their own constructions, and collaborate to produce list items. In other words, learners are brought to a place that tests the limits of their linguistic ability and in the process work to resolve knowledge gaps. List items where gaps emerge tend to become full-threads. Furthermore, by being asked to move into an activity with a focus on productive skills versus receptive skills, the activity type represents a departure from the type usually found in video-based textbooks such as matching or cloze activities as in the *ABC* textbook. Following the PVBS activity, the teacher calls the learners back to the whole class to provide a chance to check the list items in the whole-group brainstorming activity (WGBS).

7.5 Interaction in whole-group brainstorming (WGBS)

With the whole class called back together to review the list items produced in PVBS, WGBS can be categorized as a 'checking' activity. 'Checking' episodes as defined by Gourlay (2005) are 'discourse episodes structured around the outcomes of previously enacted activities, in which teacher and students go through the outcomes of activities in whole-class mode' (p. 407).

Interaction in WGBS takes place in two main ways: on the main floor and on the sub-floor. On the main floor, learners provide responses from their PVBS lists to the whole class in the teacher-

fronted activity. The teachers relinquish the main floor either by nominating specific dyads or individual learners, or by requesting volunteers to self-select a turn. Generally speaking, learners tell their list items to the teacher, and the teacher writes the items on the board to compile a whole-group list. At times in the main floor interaction, the teacher provides feedback to the learners regarding their responses as in Extract 7.28 below.

Extract 7.28 015_WGBS_R3_121213_0081_Becky_Brackish

```
029  T:         volunteer volunteer yes
030  MF:        rising moon is beauty
031  T:    ⇒   The rising moon is
032  MF:        beauty
033  T:         beautiful
034  MF:        beautiful
035  T:         OK
```

Extract 7.28 is a typical example of main floor activity. However, limiting analysis to the main floor fails to adequately address the classroom ecology in WGBS. Classroom interaction and use of materials are complex, and sub-floor interaction adds to the complexity. Because the audio recorders in front of the dyads continued to record during WGBS, I collected sub-floor interaction from dyads around the room on different recorders both during and in response to main floor interaction. The amount and content of the sub-floor interaction in relation to the video materials came as an unexpected surprise. The data-driven approach I take to research led me to follow these data, and to include the sub-floor interaction in the analysis. To understand the use of video materials in WGBS, I present three emergent categories from these data: (1) *main floor and sub-floor connection,* (2) *content-enhancing reformulations,* and (3) *atypical content enhancing.*

7.5.1   Main floor and sub-floor connection

The sub-floor activity also plays a key role in *DVDay* classroom processes by showing learner engagement with main floor activity, which demonstrates connections to the video materials. In addition to the teacher feedback being acknowledged by the learner on the main floor, this feedback provides learning opportunities for other class members who watch the main floor interaction. In sub-floor interaction, learners around the room often remark on aspects of the teacher feedback, which indicates that learner attention is drawn to learning opportunities. Extract 7.29 shows an example of

WGBS interaction that includes a learning opportunity with teacher feedback acknowledged by several learners on the sub-floor. The teacher had just asked the group to volunteer a list item in WGBS, and Turn 053 is the main floor response.

Extract 7.29 005_WGBS_R4_121108_0099_Becky_Detroit

OMMF = Off mic main-floor Student   T = Teacher   L = Student L   OOM = Off mic male
F3 = Off mic female   MF = Main floor (bold font)   SF = Sub-floor (unbolded)

```
053  OMMF:  MF   not safety not safety
054  T:     MF   I can't hear you
055  OMMF:  MF   not safety
056  T:     MF   Safety something
057  OMMF:  MF   anzen janai (not safe)
058  T:     MF   oh it's not safe ok it's not safe
059  OMM:   SF   anzen janai (not safe)
060  T:     MF   [writes on board] not safe ok safety is a noun
                 it's a meishii (noun) ok safe is your keiyoshii
                 (adjective)
061  L:     SF   mmmm [indicating understanding and surprise]
062  T:     MF   ok it's you say not safe not not safety you say
                 not safe
063  F3:    SF   not safe not safe [very low tone]
```

While Becky states she cannot hear the main floor response, an additional reason for her lack of understanding may also be due to incorrect grammar because of the unexpected use of 'not' and 'safety' together. Becky provides feedback in Turn 058 and further explains the grammatical reasons for the correction in Turn 060. Becky then offers a correct way to use the phrase 'not safe' and contrasts the correction with the original error in Turn 062.

Three learners on the sub-floor remark about the correction. In Turn 059, Student OMM uses the Japanese for 'not safe'; in Turn 061, Student L acknowledges the teacher's feedback; and in Turn 063, Student F3 repeats and practices the correction under her breath. Therefore, there is a correction on the main floor by the teacher, and other learners around the room not only pay attention to the main floor interaction, but also acknowledge the main floor activity privately on the sub-floor. As such, these other learners engage with the main floor activity that relates to the video material.

Extract 7.30 is another example in WGBS with a correction on the main floor, and comments about the correction on the sub-floor. One learner takes a main-floor turn, and the teacher relinquishes the floor to elicit a list item.

Extract 7.30 013_WGBS_R1_121213_0080_Becky_Brackish

OMMF = Off mic main floor student   T = Teacher   L = Student L   R = Student R
        MF = Main floor (bolded font)   SF = Sub-floor (unbolded)

```
004  OMMF:        sun sinks horizon
005  T:       MF  the sun
006  OMMF:    MF  the sun is sinking horizon
007  T:       MF  the sun
008  OMMF:    MF  is
009  T:       MF  is
010  OMMF:    MF  sink
011  T:       MF  sinking
012  OMMF:    MF  sinking
013  T:       MF  sinking you can also say setting
014  L:       SF  ahhhh
015  R:       SF  setting de ii no chigau (is good [it's] different)
016  L:       SF  naruhodo [I see]
017  T:       MF  on the horizon ok very good volunteer volunteer  yes
```

  In Turns 014–016 of Extract 7.30, both Students R and L focus attention on the learning opportunity

presented by the teacher with sub-floor comments.

    Sub-floor activity also occurs in multiple groups in relation to the same feedback episode. Extract

7.31 has the sub-floor activity from the same main floor episode as the previous extract, but from a

different dyad captured by one of the other audio recorders. The learners in this particular dyad

acknowledge the teacher correction in a different way from the learners in the previous extract.

Extract 7.31 015_WGBS_R3_121213_0081_Becky_Brackish

MFS = Student off mic main floor   T = Teacher   L = Student L   R = Student R
MF = main floor (bold font)   SF = Sub-floor (unbolded)

```
011  MFS:  MF    sun sinks horizon
012  L:    SF    eh? [she does not understand the MF list item]
013               [intentionally blank]
014  T:    MF    the sun
015  MFS:  MF    the sun is sinking horizon
016  R:    SF    shizumu (sink)
017  T:    MF    the sun
018  MFS:  MF    is
019  T:    MF    is
020  MFS:  MF    sink
021  T:    MF    sinking
022  MFS:  MF    sinking
023  T:    MF    sinking you can also say setting the sun is setting
024  R:    SF    sunset
025  T:    MF    on the horizon
026  L:    SF    samui ([I'm] cold)
```

```
027  T:    MF    ok very good
028  L:    SF    mm
029  T:    MF    volunteer volunteer yes
```

In Turn 012, Student L does not understand the main floor list item. On the sub-floor, Student R in Turn 016 translates the verb 'sinking' to Japanese, which suggests her attention is on the main floor activity. In Japanese, this verb *shizumu* (sink) is often used as a collocation with the noun *taiyo* (sun) to express the sunset. So, there is some first language interference with the direct translation of *shizumu* (sinks) into English. Furthermore, Student R understands the original main floor list item, while the teacher is still trying to work out the meaning. While 'sinking' is technically correct, the teacher provides an alternative with the verb of 'setting' in Turn 023. Student R, already tuned into the verb as evidenced by her earlier translation of it on the sub-floor, then, connects the teacher feedback of 'the sun is setting' with her knowledge of the word 'sunset' in Turn 024. So, Student R seems to put together her prior knowledge of 'sunset' with 'setting' as a verb that can be used with 'sun', which is related to the point the teacher is making.

Another way in which learners use the sub-floor is for pronunciation practice. After hearing the teacher pronounce list items, learners sometimes mimic the teacher's pronunciation as in Extract 7.32.

Extract 7.32 005_WGBS_R4_121108_0099_Becky_Detroit

MF = Main floor (bold font)   SF = Sub-floor (unbolded)

```
093  OMMF: MF    base baseball stadium
094  T:    MF    a baseball [chalk writing sound] baseball
                 stadium ok yeah it's 'state' stadium
095  R:    SF    R stadium [practice pronunciation]
096  T:    MF    it's not sta it's sta stadium
097  L:    SF    L stadium
098  R:    SF    R stadium
099  L:    SF    L stadium
```

In Extract 7.33, learners use the sub-floor for a number of purposes. In addition to pronunciation practice (Turn 114), the sub-floor activity in Extract 7.33 also includes a joint decision to select the main floor offering (Turns 105 and 106), and work to clarify the meaning of a learning opportunity from a teacher reformulation (Turns 121–124). Extract 7.33 begins just prior to Student L's main floor turn.

MF = Main floor (bold font)   SF = Sub-floor (unbolded)   OMMF = Off-mic main floor student

```
105  L:    SF    lizard
106  R:    SF    ii jan (good)
107  T:    MF    we're at fifteen yay
108  L:    SF    hooray
109  R:    SF    (laughs)
110  L:    MF    a lizard walk on the ground
111  T:    MF    a
112  L:    MF    lizard
113  T:    MF    lizard
114  L:    SF    lizard lizard [mimics teacher pronunciation]
115  T:    MF    ok a lizard
116  L:    MF    walk walk on the ground
117  T:    MF    was walking
118  L:    MF    walking
119  OMMF: MF    walking
120  T:    MF    ok instead of walking lizards actually crawl I
                 think so let's say crawling
121  R:    SF    hau hau no koto (like crawl)
122  L:    SF    humm [expressing surprise and noticing]hau (crawl)
                 crawl crawl
123  R:    SF    crawling to nani (what [is])
124  L:    SF    crawl crawling ka [question marker]
```

So far, in each of the extracts regarding sub-floor activity in this chapter, learners on the sub-floor make comments in relation to teacher reformulations on the main floor. The reformulations are in response to list items that originate with the learners. The point of origin is important. By bringing their list items to the main floor, learners topicalize (Slimani, 1989) the interaction. Slimani (1989) found that learners have a greater tendency to report having learned language in instances where topicalization begins with the learner as compared to instances that begin with the teacher. Main floor interaction shown in WGBS resembles topicalization by learners from a particular dyad.

Perhaps more importantly, Slimani (1989) showed that there is an even greater tendency for learners to report having learned language after instances of topicalization by fellow classmates, i.e., learners watching topicalization in the room by a classmate. Similarly, much of the sub-floor interaction in WGBS is in response to topicalization by fellow classmates, and moreover represents learner engagement with learner topicalization from the main floor. Slimani's (1989) study is based on self-reporting by learners. However, the sub-floor activity in WGBS demonstrates classroom engagement with learner topicalization in empirical data. As such, the learners who watch

topicalization in WGBS and have been shown to acknowledge it, may be more apt to report having learned about these list items. To be clear, I am not making the claim that learning occurs in WGBS, rather that these episodes are a part of the learning process and that the sub-floor plays a role in the process.

By paying attention to the sub-floor, interaction surfaces that provides greater insight to the use of video material in classroom processes because all of the list items link to the video. Interaction on the sub-floor is often related to the matter at hand on the main floor as learners follow what unfolds. Learners assist each other to clarify teaching points as van Lier (1988) states, and such clarification often relates to learning opportunities.

Characteristics of the sub-floor include interaction: (1) done in private, intimate, and hushed tones, (2) not meant for the teacher, (3) where students often ask their partner about list items from the main floor, (4) where students practice pronunciation, (5) that is often done in Japanese, and (6) where members of dyads decide on which list items to offer in their turn and rehearse it.

I return to the subject of sub-floor interaction as a part of the full-thread instances presented later in this chapter [sections 7.7.1 & 7.7.2]. In the next section, I turn to a different type of WGBS interaction in which teachers often build upon the learner responses spontaneously into what become joint constructions of whole-group list items between the learners and teacher as a part of using the video materials in the classroom ecology.

7.5.2   Content-enhancing reformulations

Teacher feedback during WGBS has instances of joint constructions of list items by the teacher and learner often accompanied by an addition to or enhancement of the list-item content by the teacher. Similarly, in his study of whole-class discussions based on video and reading materials in the classroom ecology of second language literature lessons, Thoms (2014) found comparable types of extensions that he named *content-enhancing reformulations* [detailed in section 3.10]. Thoms (2014) argued that content-enhancing reformulations are affordances for learning in an ecological sense [detailed in section 3.9].

Extract 7.34 below is an example of a content-enhancing reformulation in WGBS. The teacher calls on a student for a WGBS list item in Turn 078.

Extract 7.34 004_WGBS_R3_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit_(church)

```
078  T:    yes
079  F:    beautiful church
080  T:    beautiful churches beautiful churches there were
           beautiful churches in the video churches are places where
           people go to pray or worship god that's called churches
           OK
```

Following the list item of 'beautiful church' by Student F on the main floor, the teacher reformulates the phrase by adding the plural 'es', repeats the reformulation, then adds 'there were' to create the sentence 'there were beautiful churches in the video'. This sentence is a jointly made list item that is constructed with contributions from both the teacher and learner. Furthermore, the teacher then builds on the newly constructed list item by enhancing the content to include a definition of 'church'. In the definition, learners are exposed to 'pray' and 'worship god' as the content of the list item is enhanced. Extract 7.34 is an example of a content-enhancing reformulation according to Thoms' (2014) definition.

As another example of a content-enhancing reformulation, Extract 7.35 below shows a lengthier one. The list item relates to a scene from the New York video showing a group of Hasidic Jewish men walking on the street.

Extract 7.35 007_WGBS_R2_121206_0073_Becky_New_York

```
212  T:     MF    [. . .] OK 18 yes
213  OM19:  MF    mm there are man with black hat
214  T:     MF    ok very good [writes]
215  R:     SF    ah
216  L:     SF    [inaudible whisper]
217  T:     MF    there are men with black hats New York can be
                  very cold also during the winter like Tokyo so
                  people also wear coats or jackets and scarfs and
                  mittens and hats ok it's very common for people
                  to wear black hats or black coat especially
                  during the winter like in Tokyo many people
                  especially
218  R:     MF    (coughs)
219  T:     MF    salary men have coats and hats alright two more
                  19 and 20 anyone volunteer Sho
```

The reformulation in Turn 217 includes making plural forms of 'men' and 'hats'. In same turn, Becky enhances the content by providing the winter season as a reason wearing hats, and further builds the content to include a set of other clothing items worn in winter such as 'coats or jackets and scarfs and mittens'. In addition, Becky makes the content more relevant to the lives of the learners by comparing winter in New York to winter in Tokyo.

Extract 7.36 shows another content-enhancing reformulation. The list item relates to a scene of a man painting a house.

Extract 7.36 014_WGBS_R2_121213_0078_Becky_Brackish

```
072  T:      MF   [. . .] next how about the other yes
073  OMMF:   MF   the man painted house
074  T:      MF   the
075  OMMF:   MF   man painted house
076  T:      MF   the man
077  OMMF:   MF   painted
078  T:      MF   was painting a house very good you saw a man
                  painting the the walls of the house and painting it
                  white I think yes um the man (laughs) the man was
                  painting a house ok alright next group yes
```

Following the reformulation, the teacher makes a reference back to the video in Turn 078 to enhance the content by adding the color white for the paint. This specific reference to the video as use of material is discussed further in an upcoming section, but for now, we can view Extract 7.36 as an example of a content-enhancing reformulation.

The content-enhancing extracts discussed above originate with list items based on the video material and include a reformulation. As such, the extracts illustrate what Thoms (2014) defines as content-enhancing reformulations as affordances for learning, and the learning opportunities in these extracts 'arise as a consequence of participation and use' (van Lier, 2004, p. 92). However, content enhancing in WGBS is also done in a different way.

7.5.3   Atypical content enhancing

Qualitative research also looks at outlier examples as a means to deepen understanding of cases (Miles et al. 2014). While content-enhancing usually begins with teacher reformulations of list-item

contributions by learners in WGBS, teachers also enhance list-item content without the presence of an initial reformulation in outlier examples. The enhancement segment of such atypical interaction is done in such a way that resembles the content-enhancing reformulations in the extracts from the previous section. However, there is a noteworthy distinction—a lack of a reformulation. Extract 7.37 is one such outlier example. The extract begins with a list item from the learner.

Extract 7.37 014_WGBS_R2_121213_0078_Becky_Brackish

```
075   OMMF:   MF      the sea water is clear
076   T:      MF      the seawater
077   L:      SF      tashika ni (for sure)
078   T:      MF      very good seawater is clear it makes you want
                      to jump in and swim all day because the day
                      was very nice it was a clear day and the water
                      was very clear unlike Tokyo water Tokyo water
                      is grey it looks nice at night OK next one
                      although Okinawa water is very clear too I
                      heard yeah ok next
```

In Extract 7.37, the teacher accepts the list item from the learner without reforming, and continues to build content based on the learner contribution. With reformulations being the norm, the lack of one still provides feedback to the learner in that their list item needs no correction. Therefore, Becky's repetition of the list item without change is positive feedback, and a learning opportunity ensues despite the lack of a reformulation. In Turn 078, Becky still enhances content of the list item by including how the images make her feel and by drawing a comparison to a local area, thereby making the content more relevant to the learners.

In another atypical example, the teacher, Miho, uses the video material to flip the content-enhancing structure around by asking learners to do the enhancing as shown in Extract 7.38. The video had several scenes of a memorial built to honor John Lennon in Central Park. In Turn 001, the teacher begins by providing a category for a list item.

Extract 7.38 023_WGBS_R2_121130_0072_Miho_New_York

```
001   T:      MF      [. . .] soshite hokani wa (then another one) how
                      about monument ippai arimashita ne (there were
                      many right)
002   OM2:    MF      monument of John Lennon
003   T:      MF      ii desu ne (good) [writes on board]
004   OM3:    SF      ah John Lennon
005   T:      MF      so so so
```

```
006  OM3:  SF   imagine atta jhan nani ohaka nande obje ([it's]
                right what a grave what art object)
007  T:    MF   so so so why are there a monument of John Lennon
                because because John Lennon
008  OM2:  MF   was killed
009  T:    MF   was killed
010  OM3:  SF   ah soka (oh right)
011  T:    MF   by by by who
012  OM3:  MF   fan
013  T:    MF   ah so so so fan desuyo ne (it was right) by a fan
                nanka ano (what ah) a crazy fan chotto
                kigachigachatta hito otoko no hito ne (a person a
                man who was a little mentally unstable)
014        MF   [class laughter]
015  T:    MF   how
016  OM2:  MF   by pistol
017  T:    MF   so so with pistol ne (right) by shoot ano utarete
                korosarete shimatta dayo ne dakara soko ni (ah was
                shot dead so over there) imagine tte kaiteattan
                desuyo ne soushite eto ato wa (is written right
                then ah next)
```

In Turn 002, it is the learner who enhances the content that was first provided by the teacher in Turn 001. Then, in Turn 007, Miho uses the student contribution in a question to ask why the monument is there. The teacher then provides a partial answer, but pauses to let the learners have a chance to finish the sentence, which Student OM2 does. In Turn 011, Miho asks for further content enhancement with the question of 'by who'. Student OM3 gives an answer of a single word, then Miho extends this content in Turn 013 by building 'fan' into 'by a crazy fan', and also gives a translation of the phrase. Therefore, in Extract 7.38, Miho plays a triple role of a list-item provider (Turn 001), content solicitor through her questions to the whole group (Turns 007, 011, & 015) and content enhancer (Turns 012 & 017). Furthermore, the questions posed to the whole group elicit main floor responses from multiple learners around the room. Miho uses the affordance of content-enhancing in this way to elicit classroom interaction in WGBS.

Both of these outlier cases show possibilities for ways that content-enhancing may occur in WGBS without an initial reformulation. By asking questions to the learners that are linked to a video scene, Miho demonstrates a different way to use the materials in WGBS, and Becky also illustrates that the enhancement of content does not need a reformulation. The major difference is that the inclusion of reformulations provides learners with an instant alternative to the language of the list

items, so reformulations address a specific need that arises in interaction. However, these atypical examples represent learning opportunities that do not show an initial gap in knowledge.

As the second activity to follow the video in *DVDay* lessons, we have now seen use of the video materials in a teacher-fronted, whole-group activity. Overall, the WGBS activity gives learners a chance to check their list items with the teacher, at which time learning opportunities emerge through participation and use of language on the main floor between the teacher and a particular dyad. One major way these opportunities occur is through the affordance of content-enhancing reformulations. At the same time, we also see that the other learners who watch the main floor interaction are exposed to list items made by classmates, and on the sub-floor these learners attend to learning opportunities as the interaction unfolds. As such, through the sharing of list items with the whole class, there are learning opportunities not only for the learners who make a particular contribution, but also for those learners watching. Furthermore, the learning opportunities can be linked to the video through use of the materials.

Learning opportunities in WGBS are associated with the teacher-led interaction in WGBS. One point I wish to raise now is that of teacher adaptation in *DVDay* lessons. It was suggested to the teachers to use learner responses in WGBS as a basis for instruction [Appendices F & G]. Teachers were not told exactly how to do this instruction. The intent of the suggestion is purposefully ambiguous because of the unpredictable nature of both the learner responses and the ways teachers may wish to use learner responses for instruction. Moreover, the ambiguous nature of the instructions to the teacher makes the activity itself inherently open-ended as teachers respond to learner responses. Due to the ambiguity of the instructions to the teachers, assessing whether or not teacher adaptation occurs in WGBS becomes difficult.

While the audio recordings and classroom observations show teachers did not adapt the sequence of the video-related activities, the teacher responses in WGBS are another matter. The most plausible way to view the teacher responses in the McDonough et al. (2013) framework is through the sub-category of *expanding* as a form of *adding* [defined in section 3.11]. However, such labelling is tricky because the instructions are to spontaneously use what arises from learner responses. In other words,

the instructions are to adapt. Of note is that McGrath's (2002, 2013) notion of *extemporization* [section 3.11] as a sub-category of *adding* could also be applied. As mentioned in Chapter 3, writers on adaptation acknowledge such discrepancies as minor differences in terminology for similar actions of adaptation (McDonough et al., ibid.). Regardless of what I label the teacher responses, affordances do emerge from such interaction. Teacher use of materials can be shown through affordances such as the content-enhancing reformulations explained above. Furthermore, the analysis of use in the open-ended activity of WGBS led to the identification of a major finding in this study in relation to the way materials use is linked to the video material. I now turn to explain this finding.

7.6 Reliance on shared experience of video scenes

Stemming from the ecological approach taken in this thesis, I identify a new affordance I call *reliance on shared experience* as explained in this section. *Reliance on shared experience* is when participants move from the simple description of video scenes to use the scenes with the intention to support a point. When participants make their lists in PVBS and present list items in WGBS, they work with the explicit text of the video images. As explained earlier in this chapter, the emergent language often describes the video scenes. Because the language used in these descriptions references specific video scenes, such interaction can be classified as deictic [defined in section 3.4]. When participants interact with materials in a deictic way, at times, they rely on the video scenes to support learning opportunities in interaction, which demonstrates use of video materials as a part of the learning process. Such use is distinct from a simple description of the scenes.

For example, Extract 7.39 displays the *reliance on shared experience* affordance. The video features a number of scenes with people walking around large jagged rocks on a picturesque beach in Santorini, Greece. Learners work in PVBS to make a list item that describes a video scene.

Extract 7.39 013_PVBS_R1_121213_0080_Becky_Brackish

```
058  L:       ah there are many rock rocks
059  R:       rock?
060  L:       rocks ah stone with stone
061  R:       ah
062  L:   ⟹  near near ocean
063  R:       many stone stone?
064  L:       ah many rock
065  R:       ro- ah yeah yeah
```

```
066  L:     many rocks near the ocean
067  R:     ocean many rocks rock how do you spell rock?
068  L:     ah
069  R:     rock rock ro-gu rock rock there rock
070  L:     mm
071  R:     do you know how rock was
072  L:     ah
073  R:     how
074  L:     I don't remember (laughs)
075  R:     mm yeah many rocks
076  L:     mm
```

In Turn 062, Student L refers to video scenes in order to assist his interlocutor to understand the meaning of 'rock'. Turn 062 is a reference to video scenes for the following reasons: (1) Student L is describing a scene from the video as a list item for the PVBS activity and builds on the list item from his own utterance in Turn 058, (2) a large portion of the video had scenes of rocks near the ocean, and (3) as a normal definition of 'rock', it being near an ocean is out of the ordinary. As such, Student L is clearly using the context of the video in Turn 062. Then, in Turn 065, Student R seems to understand 'rock' and continues to use the lexical item several times henceforth.

Therefore, the shared experience of watching the video allows for the material to function as support for the linguistic resources on hand. In other words, an affordance of the video material is recognized and exploited by Student L. The affordance is related to the lack of understanding by one learner and the move to explain by the other. As van Lier (2004) explains, '[. . .] affordances arise out of participation and use, and learning opportunities arise as a consequence of participation and use' (p. 92). When the need arises, the video affords an opportunity for exploitation through a reliance on the shared experience of watching the video. As such, reliance on the video images becomes part of an opportunity for learning. Thus, in the *reliance on shared experience* affordance in Extract 7.39, there is an integration of linguistic resources with the context of the video as support for explaining the definition of a lexical item all done in the target language. Instead of relying on their shared L1 for a definition, Student L uses a video scene to help explain 'rock' to Student R. In this way, the affordance assists to keep the dialogue in English.

Likewise, in another instance of deixis, the scenes referred to by participants arise in relation to a gap in knowledge, and become part of the solution to fill the gap, i.e., video materials are used to

assist the process surrounding a learning opportunity. The previous extract looked at peer interaction

in PVBS. However, similar use of the video also happens in teacher-learner interaction in the WGBS

activity. For example, in Extract 7.40 below, a learner attempts to describe video scenes in *Detroit*

City during WGBS. The teacher, Becky, has trouble understanding the learner's main floor offering.

Becky then refers to the video to help in a learning opportunity with her reference to 'on the wall' and

'those drawings on the wall' underlined in Turn 020.

Extract 7.40 004_WGBS_R3_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit

MFS=Main floor student T=Teacher   R=Student R   L=Student L   OMS=Off mic student
MF=Main floor (bold face)   SF=Sub-floor (unbolded)

```
009  MFS:    MF   ah scribbling scribbling
010  F:      SF   ah scribbling
011  T:      MF   like that
012  F:      SF   mm scribbling
013  T:      MF   scribbling
014  MFS:    MF   scr-scribling
015  T:      MF   ok
016  F:      SF   mm
017  T:      MF   or
018  M:      SF   (unintl.)
019  F:      SF   scribbling
020  T: ⇒    MF   or you mean on the wall ok you can also say ah
                  those drawings on the wall are also called ah
                  instead of scribblings or drawings you say
                  graffiti
021  OMS:    SF   graffiti
022  F:      SF   graffiti
023  M:      SF   ehh [surprise]
024  T:      MF   so iyu ne (said like that right)Kentaro
025  M:      SF   (laughs)
026  F:      SF   (laughs)
027  T:      MF   ok graffiti
028  M:      SF   graffiti
```

In Turn 020 of Extract 7.40, Becky directs the class to video scenes that depict graffiti. After she uses

'drawings' in her own response as a synonym for 'scribbling', she then introduces the new lexical item

of 'graffiti' later in the same turn. In response, learners around the room repeat 'graffiti' on the sub-

floor. For Becky and her learners, an affordance arises from participation and use when she references

the video imagery with 'on the wall' and 'those drawings on the wall' to support the opportunity to

introduce the lexical item 'graffiti'.

Furthermore, other learners work on the sub-floor to clarify the meaning of graffiti as shown in

Extract 7.41. What is crucial to understand about Extract 7.41 is that it is a transcription from a

different audio recorder than the previous extract. As such, the activity on the main floor is the same.

However, by focusing on another recorder from a different place in the room, we can know what

another dyad said on the sub-floor in relation to the learning opportunity surrounding 'graffiti'.

Extract 7.41 005_R4_121108_0099_Becky_Detroit

       MF=Main Floor (bold face) SF=Sub-floor MFS= Main floor student T=Teacher
       R=Student R L=Student L OMS=Off mic student

```
021  MFS:   MF   ah scribbling scribbling
022  R:     SF   ahh (ahh)
023  L:     SF   ahh rakugaki (ah graffiti)
024  R:     SF   rakugaki (graffiti)scribbling
025  L:     SF   hum (yes)
026  T:     MF   like that scribbling
027  MFS:   MF   scr-scribbling
028  T:     MF   ok
029  R:     SF   scribbling
030  L:     SF   scribbling tte nani (what's [scribbling?]
031  R:     SF   scribbling rakugaki (graffiti)
032  L:     SF   rakugaki (graffiti)
033  T:     MF   or you mean on the wall
034  R:     SF   scribbling
035  L:     SF   ehhhh [in surprise]
036  T:     MF   you can also say ah those drawings on the wall
                 are also called ah instead of scribblings or
                 drawings you say graffiti
037  OMS:   SF   graffiti
038  R:     SF   ah graffiti
039  T:     MF   so iyu ne (said like that right) Kentaro ok
                 graffiti
040  R:     SF   graffiti
041  L: ⇒   SF   graffiti tte nani (what's [graffiti?])
042  R:     SF   rakugaki kabe no  (graffiti on a wall)
043  T:     MF   ok
044  R:     SF   kabe ni rakugaki suru koto (like to make
                 graffiti on the wall)
045  L:     SF   ohhh (ohhh)
```

In Turn 041, on the sub-floor, Student L asks Student R for the meaning of 'graffiti', and Student R

has an answer based on his understanding as explained by the teacher. Thus, we see another effect of

Becky's use of the video material as a reliance on shared experience.

    While the main point of this section is about the affordance of reliance on shared experience, it is

interesting to note that the dyad from Extract 7.40 had created a list item in the earlier activity of

PVBS that related to graffiti as displayed in Extract 7.42.

Extract 7.42 004_PVBS_All_R3_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit

```
023  F:  ⇒   big bridge mm ah painting on on the wall
024  M:      painting
025  F:      on dayo ne (right)
026  M:      ah atta ne (yeah [that's] right)
027  F:      mm (yeah)
028  M:      tashika atta ne (for sure [that's] right]
029  F:      on the wall de ii kana mmm eto ato wa (is good I
             think yeah ah next) river
030  M:      river
```
      Note: In terms of chronological order, Extract 7.42 takes place before Extract 7.40.

The list item 'painting on the wall' in Turn 023 of Extract 7.42 appears to be about the graffiti scenes, and the vocabulary word 'graffiti' seems to be unknown to the learners. Further discussion in Extract 7.42 is about the correct use of 'on' as a preposition for the phrase 'painting on the wall.' The pair decide together that 'on' is correct. Later, in WGBS as shown in Extract 7.40, it is that very phrase 'on the wall' that Becky uses to refer to the video scenes in Turn 020. Also in Extract 7.40, Becky gives 'graffiti' to explain painting on the wall, and both learners in this dyad acknowledge Becky's response on the sub-floor either through repetition (Turns 022 & 028) or an expression of surprise (Turn 023). In other words, learners notice what Becky said. So, the original PVBS list item of 'painting on the wall' in Extract 7.42 gets explained as 'graffiti' to the whole group as part of a learning opportunity that refers to the video images.

Overall, 'graffiti' never becomes part of a full-thread [detailed in section 5.6.4] because it is not used by any dyad again in the final speaking activity. However, some of the graffiti in the video are of hip-hop turntables and equipment, and hip-hop culture is associated with graffiti, which may be propositional links when hip hop is mentioned in FSAs. Full-thread examples are discussed at more length in the coming section 7.7.

All of the list items in PVBS and WGBS show relationships to the video materials because each response refers to the explicit text of the video. However, what I am illustrating in this section is how reliance on the shared experience of video watching is used in different activities as support regarding interaction at hand. As previously mentioned, there is a distinction between learners and teachers describing video scenes as was common in PVBS and WGBS, and the affordance of *reliance on shared experience*. In the latter, participants further refer to the video in another way: participants' use

of the video shifts to become additional support for an explanation or to further elucidate points. Other examples help to make this distinction clear.

Extract 7.43 represents an example where a learner relies on the shared experience of video viewing to support her opinion in the final speaking activity (FSA). The video for the lesson is *The Brackish Water*, which shows a number of landscape scenes from Santorini, Greece.

Extract 7.43 014_R2_121213_0078_Becky_FSA_Brackish

```
019  L:         how about you?
020  R:         I think eto (eh) this is huh where is this (laughs)
021  L:         where is this
022  R:         but I found it is Greece girisha (Greece)
023  L:         mm Greece ka girisha tte ([question marker] means
                Greece)
024  R:         it's very exotic
025  L:         mm
026  R:         so I think it's fun
027  L:         fun (laughs) mm why (laughs)
028  R:         why
029  L:         why (laughs) exotic dakara ka (that's why?)
030  R:    ⇒   un to (eh) these scene cannot be find in Japan
031  L:         mm mm mm mm
032  R:         so it's fun
033  L:         mm
```

In Turn 030, Student L refers to the shared experience of the video scenes as an additional reason for her view that the scenes are 'exotic' with the demonstrative adjective 'these'. The reliance on the video scenes help her to compare Greece to Japan.

In another example, learners even reference the shared experience of the video to make an English joke on the sub-floor. The joke stems from the description of video scenes in the PVBS activity as presented in Extract 7.44.

Extract 7.44 013_PVBS_All_R1_121213_0080_Becky_Brackish

```
102  L:     (laughs)um some people wear swim suit or
103  R:     swim?
104  L:     swim suit
105  R:     swim suits um hum wear some people
106  L:     some people
107  R:     ah mizu gi ne (ah a swim suit right)
108  L:     mm
109  R:     yeah some people wearing ah two girls two girls
110  L:     (laughs)
111  R:  ⇒ having oh sorry two girls two girls looks very sexy
112  L:     (laughs) OK
```

```
113  R:        (laughs) OK
114  L:        (laughs)
115  R:        janai ho janai ho (not that one not that one)
116  T:        OK ten seconds
```

Turn 103 represents a learning opportunity because Student R asks about the term 'swim suit', and in Turn 107, Student R then shows an understanding of the meaning by speaking in L1. Then in Turn 109, Student R begins to build on the list item and brings up the two girls, who in the video are wearing swim suit tops. As the learners work together to build a list item about these two girls wearing swim suits, in Turn 111, Student R offers his opinion of the girls calling them 'sexy', and the learners have a laugh about this opinion in the privacy of the pair work. In Turn 115, Student R then retracts 'sexy' and recommends against its use, so it becomes an opinion that is taboo to say in front of the whole class. Later in front of the whole class in the WGBS activity, Student L offers the list item related to the opinion in Turn 165 of Extract 7.45.

Extract 7.45 013_WGBS_R1 _21213_0080_Becky_Brackish

```
165  L:     MF   ah some people wear swimsuit
166  T:     MF   some people
167  R:     SF   ah
168  T:     MF   swim suits
169  R: ⇒   SF   (unintl.)it's time to say there is two there are
                 two
170  L:     SF   (laughs)
171  R:     SF   (laughs)
```

Without an understanding of events that occur earlier in PVBS between the two learners in relation to the video images, it is impossible to understand this joke that is spoken on the sub-floor in WGBS. Armed with the full context, the joke in Turn 169 of Extract 7.45 is rather funny and represents a playful 'ribbing' by Student R, who jests about pushing Student L into the uncomfortable position of having to say 'sexy' in front of the class. The learners, both males, seem to believe it inappropriate to bring up the notion of 'sexy' girls in the mixed-gender context of the classroom with a female instructor to boot. However, in the safe and private context of the sub-floor, Student R refers to the earlier opinion about the girls without even having to vocalize the lexical item 'sexy' to be understood. In this way, Student R relies on the shared experience of both the video and the PVBS interaction to make his English joke.

There are 15 instances of *reliance on shared experience*. Because this affordance is newly

identified, I used inter-rater reliability to support the validity of the finding. I trained one colleague on

the meaning of the affordance and asked him to identify the affordances through a series of examples.

Initial inter-rater reliability was 93%. The one discrepancy was resolved by providing further context

to the extract. Appendix L contains a table listing each instance of the *reliance on shared experience*

affordance and the examples.

To summarize, participants rely on the shared experience of watching the video materials in

different ways. In doing so, participants refer to video scenes with the assumption that their

interlocutors understand the reference based on a common experience. The extracts above show that

participants refer to the video scenes with the reliance on shared experience affordance to: (1) clarify

vocabulary items as assistance for the learning process (instructional), (2) support a speaking point

(explanatory), and (3) create a joke (humor). In these instances, participants move beyond a simple

description of the explicit text of video to draw on the scenes as support for other points being made,

whether it is to clarify a vocabulary item, further explain themselves, or create humor. The *reliance on*

shared experience affordance arises during all three of the activities in *DVDay* lessons. As shown

below, the *reliance on shared experience* affordance has a deeper relationship to classroom interaction

on an interactivity basis shown through full-threads. I now turn to present examples in which specific

list items are tracked through all three post-video activities as full-thread instances.

7.7 Full-thread instances

In this section, I focus on how the processes in the individual activities make up the process of the

whole by presenting examples of full-threads [detailed in section 5.6.4] in their entirety. Taken as a

whole, full-thread examples reveal how aspects of the video materials are used throughout the

activities and eventually show relationships to the video materials in the final speaking activities. As

in the topic flow in the earlier sections of this thesis, the full-threads are mapped as a means to

summarize each one so that an entire thread can be seen at a glance [as detailed in section 5.6.4].

7.7.1 Full-thread 005-1 Becky Detroit (statue)

Full-thread example 005-1 Becky Detroit is from the unit *Detroit City*, which has a video by the same name. As explained earlier [section 7.2.2.1], the video juxtaposes scenes of urban blight and modern architecture with an overarching message of wealth disparity in the USA. The video has several scenes of a large bronze statue draped by a cloth jersey from a professional basketball team in celebration of the local team's successful season. The uniform does not normally belong on the statue, so these scenes depict an unusual circumstance. In addition, other scenes show statues around the city. Table 7.2 summarizes the tracking and overall flow of the thread through the activities.

Table 7.2 Summary of a full-thread flow of a list item through all *DVDay* activities

Full-thread Name	Theme	PVBS Beginning	PVBS Episode	Link to WGBS	WGBS Main Floor	WGBS Sub-floor	FSA Link	FSA Use	Topic Theme
005-1 Becky Detroit	Statue	Gap	-repetition -spelling -joint phrasal construction -experiment with sentence construction	Natural	co-construction of sentence with teacher	-learner co-build of clause; reaches to co-build with teacher of sentence	lexical	use of new lexical item in context	Less closely related

Through analysis of the thread in its entirety, we can see how the relationships to the video images unfold in each activity along the thread. The learners use a lexical item created in PVBS to solve a linguistic problem while discussing a personal experience in the final speaking activity. Interplay between activities in the threads and the relationships to the video are revealed by viewing interaction in the context of the threads over time. The threads are presented in chronological order.

Thread 005-1 begins with a learning opportunity regarding the lexical item 'statue' in PVBS. Extract 7.46 shows that the two learners originally create this lexical item in PVBS.

Extract 7.46 005-1_PVBS_R4_121108_0099_Becky_Detroit_(statue)

```
001   R: statue (laughs)
002   L: sta-sta- statue
003   R: stat
004   L: ue
005   R: stat-statue 'ue' dou kaku no 'chu' (how can I spell ['ue'
         or 'chu' at the end of the word])
```

In Extract 7.46, Student L appears to struggle to pronounce 'statue' in Turn 002. Then, in Turns 003 and 004 the pair collaborate to pronounce the lexical item. When Student R repeats the word in an attempt to write it down, she is unsure of the spelling. So, there is an opportunity to practice pronunciation, and a request to spell the word that went unanswered.

Two minutes later, after creating further list items, the dyad works again with 'statue' in the PVBS activity as shown in Extract 7.47.

Extract 7.47 005-1_PVBS_R4_121108_0099_Becky_Detroit_(statue)

```
056    L:        hito no zou mitai nano ippai atta jyan hito no
                 tte nantoiyu (there were many statues that look
                 like humans how can I say human)of human kana (I
                 think)
057    R:        statue of human
058    L:        kana (I think) statue tte mazu douiyu zou tte iyu
                 imi kore (say [statue] first what does it
                 [mean]does this mean statue)
059    R:        mm (yes)
060    L:        of (laughs) wakannai ya (I don't know)
061    R:        statue
062    L:        obje un un (statue yes yes)
063    R:        big big big uniform
064    L:        un (yes)
065    R:        wear (laughs)
066    L:        kiteta ne (put it on)
067    R:        un (yes)
068    L:        uniforumu wo kita yatsu ga itan dayo ne (there
                 was the male [statue] who was wearing the
                 uniform) (laughs) ne (right)
069    R:        eh ato (yes next)
```

What is interesting about Extract 7.47 is that Student L, who struggled to pronounce 'statue' earlier, seems to lack the confidence to say 'statue'. Instead, Student L chooses to use the Japanese for 'statue', *zou*, in Turn 056 to produce the phrase *hito no zou* (statue of a human), and questions her own use of 'human' as a part of an English phrase. Student R offers an English phrase to describe the video scene in Turn 057. Student L's trouble could stem from first language interference of '*hito no zou',* literally 'person statue' in Japanese. In Student L's reasoning, she appears to want to say 'human statue' and questions Students R's phrase of 'statue of human' with 'statue' as the first word in the phase.

Student L then experiments in Turn 060 but cannot continue and gives up. Then, Student R offers the English 'statue' in Turn 061. Student L recognizes the meaning 'statue' when she hears it, and

codeswitches to use *obje*, which can be used synonymously with the Japanese *zou* (statue). Student R

then attempts to build further on the list item to add that the statue is wearing a big uniform. While the

learners fail to make a complex language structure in English, they work with the language and put

pieces together for what comes later. Extract 7.47 illustrates an additional learning opportunity

surrounding 'statue' in PVBS, and the joint construction of a list item that involves two languages.

Eight minutes later, when the time comes for the group to offer one of their list-item responses to

the whole class in WGBS, Student R selects the one about the statue wearing the uniform as Extract

7.48 displays.

Extract 7.48 005-1_WGBS_main_floor_and_sub-floor_R4_121108_0099_Becky_Detroit

MF=Main Floor (bold face) SF=Sub-floor T=Teacher R=Student R L=Student L S3=Unknown
student

```
001   T:   MF   yes
002   R:   MF   big uniform
003   T:   MF   big
004   R:   MF   uniform
005   T:   MF   big uniform
006   L:   SF   (unintl.)
007   T:   MF   there was a big uniform I didn't see that one there
                was a big uniform [writes on board]
008   L:   SF   zou ga kiteta (a statue wearing)
009   R:   SF   zou ga kiteta (a statue wearing)(laughs)
010   L:   SF   kiteta to nani (what [is] wearing) wear wears
011   R:   MF   wearing
012   T:   MF   wearing [to whole group]
013   L:   SF   zou ga zou (a statue statue)
014   R:   MF   statue (laughs)
015   T:   MF   there's a statue wearing a big uniform OK
016   S3:       [across the room in faint voice] statue
017   R:   SF   look
018   L:   SF   atteta (it's right)(laughs)
019   T:   MF   a statue wearing
020   L:   SF   (laughs)
021   T:   MF   big uniform this is your chance to practice your
                English so when you say your
022   R:   SF   ano superu ga machigaeta (that [was] a spelling
                mistake (laughs)
023   L:   SF   'e' tsukaeba ii [if [you] use an 'e' [it's] good]
024   R:   SF   'e' da ([that's] right)
025   T:   MF   answers try to say it in complete sentences a
                statue wearing a big uniform how about this group
```

In Extract 7.48, there is complex interaction between participants both on the main floor and sub-

floor to build the final list item. Not only is there an in-the-moment co-construction of a list item on

the main floor between the teacher and Student R (Turns 005 & 007), but also an in-the-moment building on the list item between Student R and Student L on the sub-floor. The latter occurs while the teacher writes on the board (Turns 008–010). Main floor activity resumes when further interaction done on the sub-floor is offered on the main floor (Turn 011) and gets further built upon by the teacher (Turn 015). As a result, three people are involved in multiple language contributions that emerge on both the main and sub-floors in two languages. While the teacher may be aware that she is involved in a joint construction on the main floor, she would likely be unaware of how the activity on the sub-floor contributes to the co-construction on the main floor because the sub-floor activity is done quietly.

Thus, there is an integration of the sub-floor with the main floor in the creation of the final list item. This integration happens when one member of the dyad tests a hypothesis in the moment (Turn 011) and brings a response from the sub-floor to the main floor. This complex interaction culminates in the repeated construction of 'There was a statue wearing a big uniform' in Turns 015, 019–021, and 025, which is what the learners had attempted—but failed—to produce in Extract 7.47 during the previous activity. The failed attempt in PVBS seems to provide learners with an incentive to produce a more complex list item with the help of the teacher as evidenced in Extract 7.48 by the ways the learners push to build the list item on both the main floor and sub-floor.

Finally, Extract 7.49 shows interaction from this dyad 27 minutes later in the FSA. Learners are in the final part of the FSA where one learner initiated the topic of a personal travel experience to Paris that included a visit to the Louvre Museum. In Turn 169, Student L describes the statue of *Nike of Samothrace*, and asks her interlocutor for the English to describe the statue in Turn 171.

Extract 7.49 005-1_FSA_R4_121108_0099_Becky_Detroit_(statue)

```
169  L:        nike nike
170  R:        ah nike un wakaru (mm I understand) nike
171  L:        nandakke samutorakeno nike (how can I say Nike of
                Samothrace)(laughs) nandakke (how can I say)
172  R:        statue statue (laughs)
173  L:        statue statue (laughs) statue
174  R:        statue
```

Student R's response 'statue statue' in Turn 172 answers the question, and has a clear relationship to the video traced through the prior activities. The context of 'statue' has shifted from the statue found in the video to the statue of *Nike of Samothrace* seen by Student R in the Louvre.

The repetition by Student L in Turn 173 is qualitatively different than when 'statue' was used previously in the thread. There is an element of pedagogy instilled in the repetition of 'statue' due to usage in prior activities. Whereas in PVBS and WGBS, Student L did not use the English 'statue', she repeats the word confidently and playfully in Turn 173. As such, she shows a degree of improvement in language ability. Use of 'statue' is even coupled with affect as demonstrated by the laughing by both learners. The context of the full-thread privies us to the reason for the laughter, which seems due to the learners having found a way to use a piece of the lesson as an answer to a question in the middle of the telling of a personal experience.

The shared experience between learners has been expanded at this point in FSA to include not only the video, but also the language from the PVBS and WGBS activities. A need arises to use 'statue' and is filled with English. Use of 'statue' in Extract 7.49 looks to be an episode where English is being used as a tool for communication because it fits into a personal story that emerges in the FSA. In addition, there is a sense of engagement in each of the activities.

Over the entirety of the thread, multiple instances of video influence flow through time and activities in collaborative ways to support language development. The thread links all of this classroom activity back to video scenes, and the interaction represents use of the video material. Because learners self-selected instances of 'statue' in the activities, the learners topicalize these list items. According to Slimani (1989), students who topicalize themselves stand a better chance to report that language learning occurs, than if the learners are provided with a topic.

7.7.2   Full-thread 003-1 Becky Detroit (hip hop)

Full-thread example 003-1 Becky Detroit tracks common language through the three post-video activities. Table 7.3 summarizes the tracking and overall flow of the thread through the activities. Although this full-thread comes from the same lesson as one in the previous section, the interaction is from a different dyad.

*Table 7.3 S*ummary of a full-thread flow of a list item through all *DVDay* activities

Full-thread Name	Theme	PVBS Beginning	PVBS Episode	Link to WGBS	WGBS Main Floor	WGBS Sub-floor	FSA Link	FSA Use	Topic Theme
003-1 Becky Detroit	Hip hop	Sentence construction	n/a	Natural	Phrasal co-construction with teacher	rehearsal	lexical	-Phrasal uptake -Leads to learning opportunity in side sequence	More closely related

In Turn 001 of Extract 7.50, Student M works with his partner in PVBS, comes up with the list item of 'hip hop', and extends the list item by using it in a simple sentence. The teacher, Becky, is nearby and encourages Student M to write his response on the handout.

Extract 7.50 003-1_PVBS_R1_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit_(hip hop)

```
001  M:      hip hop hip hop Detroit is hip hop
002  T:      write it down
003  M:      ok
004  T:      yeah remember brainstorming all your answers are
             correct so write all your ideas
005  M:      all ideas hip hop
```

This 'hip hop' full-thread begins likely based on two possibilities from the explicit video text: (1) images of hip-hop equipment painted in graffiti art, and (2) the musical soundtrack to the video was a hip hop song.

Later in the lesson during WGBS, the dyad members work on the sub-floor to discuss which of their list items should be selected to give the teacher. In effect, the learners prepare for their whole-group turn in Extract 7.51. Even this preparation on the sub-floor is use of the video material.

Extract 7.51 003-1_WGBS_sub-floor_R1_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit_(hip hop)

```
050  F:   SF   nani iyu (what should we say)
051  M:   SF   nan demo ii yo (any one is good)
052  F:   SF   hip hop ikeo (let's go with)
053  M:   SF   eh? (huh?)
054  F:   SF   hip hop ikeo (let's go with)
055  M:   SF   hip hop
```

Student F's selection of 'hip hop' indicates support for her partner's list item, and suggests a degree of collaboration in the activities because the list item was originally made by her partner.

When the time arrives nearly four minutes later for this dyad to take a turn on the main floor in

WGBS, Student M takes the lead as shown in Extract 7.52.

Extract 7.52 003-1_WGBS_main_floor_R1_121108_0063_Becky_Detroit_(hip hop)

```
150  T:  MF  how about another group?
151  M:  MF  hip hop
152  T:  MF  hip hop hip hop the music? hip hop music
153  M:  SF  hip hop music
154  T:  MF  hip hop music which is also popular in Detroit
155  F:  SF  ehhh [expressing surprise]
```

Following Student M's offering of 'hip hop' in Turn 151, the teacher repeats and clarifies the

response, and then in a collaborative way, Becky builds on the list item by adding 'music' to construct

'hip hop music'. This phrase is a joint construction between the dyad and the teacher and is

immediately repeated by Student M on the sub-floor seemingly as practice. The teacher then further

extends the phrase by providing a point of information about hip hop being popular in Detroit. This

explanation is acknowledged by Student F with surprise shown by 'ehhh' in Turn 155, which suggests

Student F follows the meaning of the teacher's statement from Turn 154.

In the full-thread, hip hop resurfaces again approximately ten minutes later in the FSA as shown

in Extract 7.53 when Student M provides a reason for wanting to visit Detroit.

Extract 7.53 003-1_FSA_R1_121108_0063 Becky_Detroit_(hip hop)

```
010  M:     ah I I I I like hip hop music eh and and and ah so I
             want to listen hip hop in Detroit
011  F:     but you can listen hip hop in Japan also (laughs) so
             you don't have to go to Detroit (laughs)  to listen
012  M:     ah I watch I I want to watch eh life life raibu
             raibu raibu (live performance live performance live
             performance)
013  F:     raibu?
014  M:     live live
015  F:     live
016  M:     live live live
017  F:     uh huh
018  M:     live live
019  F:     style siekastu (life style) style tashika (probably)
020  M:     chigau yo raibu raibu ni ikitakute (no live
             performance live performance I want to go to a live
             performance)
021  F:     ah raibu ne (laughs)(oh a live performance I see)
022  M:     raibu wo mitai toiyu koto dayo (that means I want to
             see a live performance)
023  F:     live performance?
024  M:     so live performance
025  F:     live concert?
```

```
026  M:      live concerts concert I want to go concert in
             Detroit
```

Student M uses the phrase 'hip hop music' in Turn 010, which is different from how he used 'hip hop' in previous interaction. This phrase follows the way in which the teacher built on the list item in WGBS that was also repeated by Student M on the sub-floor in Turn 153 of the earlier Extract 7.52. Next, Student M goes on to generate more language around hip hop that develops into another learning opportunity regarding 'live'. This learning opportunity was discussed earlier in this chapter regarding side sequences during the FSAs [Extract 7.20 in section 7.3].

Overall, the processes surrounding this hip-hop thread have clear links to the explicit text of video through the three activities over 20 minutes of class time. While the initial list item of 'hip hop' can seem inconsequential when first raised in PVBS, participants' work with the list item leads to further interaction and learning opportunities. The thread demonstrates use of the material from the time 'hip hop' emerges as a thread item, to multiple other instances that include: repetition of the list item, sub-floor rehearsals, participant cooperation, joint construction of a phrase, and phrasal uptake. These instances seem to impact language development. Furthermore, this thread is the only one that relates directly to the soundtrack as an influence showing that not just the visual images can have an impact in *DVDay* lessons.

Teachers have no way of knowing ahead of time which of the list items that learners will choose to work with later in activities. Leaving that decision up to the learners presents opportunities for learner empowerment over the activity. That list items surface all the way to the interaction in the open-ended speaking activity of the FSA demonstrates that the learners have a certain interest in the item. Moreover, language development emerges at junctures throughout the threads.

There is a convergence between the topics in the FSAs that are analyzed in the earlier part of this chapter and the threads. While the topics provide insight into what the learners talk about, the threads provide insight into types of classroom interaction and ways in which the topics are reached.

7.8 Conclusion

With the processes in the *DVDay* activities analyzed individually and then shown as full-threads, relationships surface in a synthesis of the components. An unexpected relationship emerges between the *reliance on shared experience* affordance and full-thread examples. While this affordance takes place in each of the activities, when it arises in one of the two earlier activities (i.e., PVBS or WGBS), 67% of these examples later emerge in FSAs as full-threads [details in the table of Appendix L]. As such, use of the affordance suggests an impact on future language use. Furthermore, the relationship is characterized by the intent of the interaction. The usual intent of the affordance is either instructional or explanatory. In all but one of the examples that go on to develop into full-threads, the intent is instructional rather than explanatory. This tendency suggests that when the *reliance on shared experience* affordance is used with the intent of instruction, there is a stronger potential for a full-thread to develop related to the language surrounding the affordance. In addition, the role of explanatory intent also supports interaction. This support is especially evident when the affordance surfaces in FSAs as learners use the video materials to help explain themselves and sustain interaction. The affordance represents a use of video materials with implications for video-based lessons that I discuss more in the final chapter.

A similar relationship emerges between activity in PVBS episodes and language in the full-thread portions of the FSAs. In the PVBS sections of full-threads, interaction begins with a gap in knowledge 81% of the time [section 7.4.3], and learners in such PVBS episodes work to fill the gap as learning opportunities. Such interaction is backed with an instructional or pedagogic intent between learners in a collaborative way. Later in FSAs, not only do learners tend to return to list items from PVBS where knowledge gaps had emerged, but also to list items from WGBS where the *reliance of shared experience* affordance had occurred. As such, learners tend to return to list items that present an initial challenge. The learners are not told to do this, rather they choose to do it. Learners seek to use these list items that are new, and imprinted with a pedagogic intent either from the learners themselves or the teacher. In doing so, learners demonstrate enthusiasm and motivation for the

learning process. All the while, video materials are at the foundation of the process, which indicates an impact of materials on language development through materials use.

In sum, interaction in each of the post-video activities in *DVDay* shows learners work with the explicit text of the video materials to some degree. In PVBS, learners create list items to access prior knowledge, and also create list items that present challenges to their current language abilities. These challenges represent opportunities for learning, and the learners collaborate to find solutions to the gaps. In turn, the list items that present these challenges are often the very items learners tend to develop into full-threads in later activities. WGBS gives the learners a chance to check their list items with the teacher and respond to interaction on both the main floor and sub-floor. Sub-floor activity is shown to be a critical part of the classrooms ecology. Furthermore, WGBS provides the teacher with opportunities to engage with learners and learner responses. Teachers use the student list items as materials to provide feedback and to jointly construct responses that build on these list items. Also, the learner list items in WGBS seem to lead to the affordance of content-enhancing reformulations. In addition, participants demonstrate use of video material through a reliance on the shared experience affordance not only in order to support interaction, but also to support learning opportunities. Topics in the FSAs show degrees of influence to the video materials, and learners tend to shift topics to more personal topics based on video materials, which sustains interaction. Finally, learning opportunities emerge in the FSAs as side sequences.

CHAPTER 8:   Discussion and implications

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I discuss findings in relation to my research questions and the implications of this thesis to show its contribution to the field of applied linguistics. The overarching aim of the research questions is to discover ways in which the learners and teachers use video-based materials in language classrooms [detailed in section 1.4]. Use of materials is explored through the classroom interaction of the participants and in the lesson procedures by gathering audio recordings of lessons, observing classroom activity, conducting teacher interviews, collecting learner questionnaire data, and examining classroom materials. This multiple case study investigates the use of *ABC World News 14* and *Digital Video Day*, course books that include different genres of video materials.

Qualitative analysis in the present study focuses on three main areas. First, topics and topic flow from interaction in English lessons at a Japanese university are examined to understand relationships between the interaction and the video materials. The topics and topic shifts show relationships to the materials and that learners make topics personal and relevant to their lives. Furthermore, learners assist each other with knowledge gaps that emerge in side sequences during speaking activities. Second, teacher use of materials shows that concerns with topics impact ways in which the materials are used through adaptation. Third, analysis tracks common language on an inter-activity basis. When participants work with the explicit text of the video materials, the affordances of content-enhancing reformulations and reliance on shared experience emerge. These affordances illustrate how the use of materials can support interaction and assist with opportunities for learning.

8.2 Learner use of topics

Video and video-based materials provide learners with a platform from which to launch peer-to-peer discussions. Willis (1983) proposed that video materials are a good way to elicit discussion topics through controlled speaking practice to focus on meaning and form [detailed in section 3.4]. It is clear that learners use the video-based materials as a base to elicit topics in FSAs. Learners often raise topics based on question prompts in *ABC* lessons and based on video images in *DVDay* lessons. As

such, topics are an affordance of video and video-based materials. Moreover, learners also attend to form in side sequences during pair work. In doing so, learners strike a balance of attention to meaning and form in the speaking activities.

Through self-reports on use of newscasts, Brinton and Gaskill (1978) indicated learners use real topics for discussion, discuss issues of substance, and assist each other with vocabulary, findings which agree with empirical evidence from the present study. Whereas Brinton and Gaskill (1978) reported learners re-used vocabulary in their study, the re-use of vocabulary was limited in the *ABC* lessons, at least for the specific vocabulary in the pre-video sections. Reasons may be due to low levels of English proficiency of the *ABC* learners, the difficulty of the vocabulary items [section 6.4], or a disconnect between activities that occur before and after video playback. However, learners do use *ABC* materials to launch speaking topics through the reading of question prompts to drive the direction of the interaction. The high degree to which the prompts dictate the speaking themes shows that materials wield considerable influence over the topical direction of the interaction.

The question prompt itself may present a challenge to the learners and can be a potential roadblock for learners at this level of English ability to move into topical discussions because learners may not understand the meaning of the question. While working through the meaning of the question prompt does present learning opportunities, learners require a greater amount of class time to move into the actual discussions. As such, extended discussion on the prompt may detract from the intent of the activity. Moreover, the learners are confronted with potentially more difficult news-based topics such as working mothers and elephant poaching, topics on which learners may have little background knowledge. At times, these topics appear challenging for learners at this level to speak about even in their first language, as pointed out by one *ABC* teacher, Kengo. The *ABC* speaking prompts assist to move learners into more challenging topics based on the thematic content of video rather than what specifically occurs in the video. As such, the prompts control the direction of the topics, and the video material is used thematically.

While the question prompt can serve as a bridge from the video to get learners speaking together about particular topics, the prompts can also exert a strict influence on the topic of discussion. Such influence may limit discussion because learners may not know very much about the topic. There is a

governing nature to the prompts that learners may interpret as the only way to continue the activity seen at times in FSAs in *ABC* lessons. The question prompts may even steer the topic of discussion away from the video material and seem to exert a stronger influence over discussion topics in the activity than the video material.

In the final speaking activity of *DVDay* lessons, speaking topics are selected and developed by the learners with open-ended prompts that request learners to speak about any facet of the video material that they chose. As such, specific topics are not assigned. The impetus of learner discussions arises from learner perceptions of the video material, which lead to numerous topic shifts and developments. While instances of the control of the prompt over interaction can also exert a strong influence on the interaction in instances where learners interpret that topics must be about the video, most learners use a theme from the video as a base to make a topic of their own.

With a number of the *DVDay* videos set in locations outside of Japan, many learners use the setting of the video to begin topics related to the location of the video that lead to the topic of travel. Similarly, Siegel (2014) found travel to be one of the most popular topics in conversations outside of classrooms between Japanese university learners and their non-Japanese friends in situations where topics were self-selected. Therefore, learners working with the topic of travel gain experience in a discussion topic applicable to conversations they may encounter outside of the classroom. Cheng (2015) found travel as one of the most common topics self-selected by Japanese learners in classroom discussion activities. Similar to the present study, both Siegel (2014) and Cheng (2015) also show a high frequency of self-selected topics to be personal and relevant to learners' lives.

Wolf (2013) investigated self-selected topics versus textbook-assigned topics by Japanese learners in classrooms and found learners not only have significantly more knowledge about self-selected topics but also more interest in discussing them. Wolf (2013) concluded that it is more sensible for learners to select their own topics. In FSAs of *DVDay* lessons, rather than self-selecting topics, the learners often use the video materials as support to elicit topics, and then self-select the direction of subsequent topics. Such support may be welcome by learners at lower proficiency levels and ultimately enables learners to control the topic.

A number of educators propose the use of personalized topics as a benefit of video-based language lessons to improve the skill of speaking (e.g., Hedge, 2001; Tschirner, 2001; Goldstein & Driver, 2015; Parisi & Andon, 2016). Learners often use the video material to launch into personalized topics in their *DVDay* speaking activity. In doing so, they exhibit Lonergan's (1984) actual transfer approach [detailed in section 3.4], where learners move away from the topic of the video to more personal topics. By shifting to personal topics, learners relate the material to their own lives. Furthermore, learners shift topics in such a way that opens the topic wider in a move from specific topics of the explicit video text to more general ones. For example, when a scene in the video displays ice skating, learners may shift to a more general topic of sports as shown in Extract 7.14. Appendix J shows the topic flow of each activity. Shifting to a more general topic provides the learners with greater opportunity to find topics in order to sustain interaction. In doing so, learners demonstrate not only use of the materials, but also autonomous control over their interaction. In this thesis, learners speak about personal travel experience, eating habits, sports, music, hobbies, and school life among others. Regardless of the main topic, these discussions almost always move into personalized topics with clear relevance to the lives of students.

Learners often speak about personalized topics in the FSAs of both *ABC* and *DVDay* lessons. There is value in getting learners to speak about personalized topics. Widdowson (1978) states, '[i]f he [or she] can be shown, however, that the foreign language can be used to deal with topics which he [or she] is concerned with [. . .] then he [or she] is likely to be aware of its practical relevance as a means of communication' (p. 17). Because learners in both *ABC* and *DVDay* lessons shift to personal topics with links to the materials, these shifts indicate that students prefer to speak about personalized topics in speaking activities. In personalized topics, the learners share meaningful experiences while drawing on a wealth of material for discussion, and the learners appear comfortable with these topics due, in part, to their familiarity. Once these topics are personalized, learners extend the interaction, which presents a chance for learning opportunities to emerge. Personalization of material shows that learners take a degree of autonomous control of the direction of the speaking activity and that the speaking topic has a sense of importance as learners integrate the lesson material with their personal lives. Learner personalization in these data emerges as a strategy that: (1) aids in sustaining interaction, (2)

fosters participation, (3) shows a relevance of English to students' lives, and (4) supports the students' willingness to use the foreign language.

Furthermore, learner personalization of topics suggests parallels to the principles of adaptation in the literature on materials development [detailed in section 3.11]. Answers to open-ended prompts are adaptable as argued in respect to teacher interaction in WGBS [section 7.5]. When learners shift to personal topics they are doing so with a degree of spontaneity, which indicates a similarity to the adaptation technique of *expanding*. The learners are telling us where they want to go, and where they are able to go with the materials. While Nuangpolmak (2014) and Igielski (2014) illustrate that teachers adapt based on principles of personalization and localization [section 3.12], learners in the present study act in a similar way by personalizing topics. As such, personalization clearly represents a use of materials, and the personalized interaction shares characteristics with adaptation principles.

While literature in materials development on adaptation principles by teachers includes personalization, McGrath (2013) also suggests Tomlinson's (2003) notion of humanizing as one principle [section 3.11]. Learner personalization also seems to exhibit characteristics of humanizing, which is empowering learners to draw connections between materials and their own thoughts. Islam and Mares (2003) discuss real choice as a principle of learner adaptation where learners choose how they want to learn. Findings from the present study suggest that choice resembles what learners want to do with the materials, i.e., the direction learners wish to take topics in their discussions. In addition, learner use of topics supports McGrath's (2013) point that adaptation principles are not mutually exclusive and an overlapping of principles may occur. In learner topics, we see principles of personalization, humanizing, and choice.

The open-ended activities and these shifts to personal topics represent a dramatic difference from the *yakudoku* grammar-translation method [detailed in section 2.4] so often used throughout the Japanese education system. Despite having received little training in English speaking in their formal education, many learners have amassed enough English to work for short periods of time in peer group speaking activities. That said, learners at this level of proficiency and maturity seem to do better with easier topics rather than more challenging topics about social issues. The ways learners collaborate together with the use of material through topic development and in side sequences in the activities

both show a willingness to work together. Not only are topics developed, but also the learners assist each other with their partners' knowledge gaps.

In addition to the use of materials through topics in FSAs, side sequences emerge as learning opportunities. These side sequences suggest a relationship to the topics and the video materials because these learning opportunities emerge through participation with interlocutors and use of video-based materials. From the ecological viewpoint taken in this thesis, we cannot say that the topics, nor the video materials for that matter, caused the side sequences. Rather, the side sequences arise in relation to some gap in linguistic ability as a type of consequence of being in the discussion and having a topic. The side sequences do demonstrate that learners work to find solutions to gaps in language knowledge. Moreover, side sequences show that learners at this level work to assist each other with language gaps, and exhibit a willingness to cooperate and collaborate. Such collaboration agrees with results from Cross' (2009) study on listening strategy training using newscasts that found interaction in video-based lessons addresses gaps in learner knowledge when learners ask each other for assistance [detailed in section 3.6].

Besides topics and side sequences in FSAs, during PVBS in *DVDay* lessons, the learners use the explicit text of the video materials to produce lists in a collaborative way. As such, collaboration in the creation of the list items represents not only engagement with the video materials, but also engagement with partner responses. When discernable opportunities for learning arise during the creation of the list items due to gaps in knowledge, learners assist each other to fill the gaps. Therefore, interaction in PVBS shows learning opportunities are related to video use. Interestingly, list items in PVBS that become learning opportunities are items that often go on to become full-threads. As such, learner attention to the knowledge gaps in PVBS relates to the potential for the further recycling of list items later in the lesson during the development of topics in the final speaking activities. Furthermore, through the use of material in PVBS, it is possible to confirm that the learners had been actively involved in viewing because learners are able to produce list items based on the video scenes, and then use these list items as starting points for speech production.

One proposed benefit of video material is improvement in learner confidence (King, 2002; Jaén & Basanta, 2009). Motivation is also believed to be another benefit of video materials (Donaghy,

2015; Parisi & Andon, 2016). Because many learners are able to move into the speaking activity in English and sustain topics through active participation with personal experiences, findings in this study suggest support for Weyers' (1999) findings that learners gain confidence from video-based speaking activities. Confidence suggests a degree of motivation in learners, which supports Brinton and Gaskill's (1978) report that learners in video-based lessons show heightened motivation. Confidence has been associated with motivation in language study (e.g., Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Dörnyei, 1998). Learners in the present study exhibit a degree of confidence by moving the speaking activity in the direction of their choosing. These learners also show confidence by developing personal topics in an autonomous manner by taking control of their topics. In the student questionnaires, 57% of all learners self-reported that they controlled the direction of the discussions in the speaking activities, and 72% reported that they are better at explaining themselves in English after taking these lessons. The boost in confidence ties back to the video materials because: (1) the interaction began with the materials, and (2) speaking topics are linked to the materials. Furthermore, learners display confidence in PVBS when making independent decisions about language.

8.3 Relationships in the classroom ecology

As discussed in Chapter 3, recent research in materials use places an emphasis on relationships between materials and their use to add to knowledge about the language learning process in the classroom ecology (e.g., Batstone & Philp, 2013; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Thoms, 2014; Jakonen, 2015). This study makes a significant contribution to the nascent line of research in the use of materials in language classrooms from this ecological perspective in a number of ways. First, I identify a new affordance in the language-teaching field of the *reliance on shared experience* [section 7.6]. The reliance on shared experience represents a way in which the video content relates to the learning process. While this affordance impacts the language learning process mainly through teacher use of video in instructional and explanatory ways, learners also demonstrate use of the affordance to support their interaction while using materials. The affordance helps to capture the attention of participants by fostering a sense of engagement with materials between participants. In addition, the affordance drives attention to and is dependent on discussion of the explicit text of the video. Thus,

speaking activities in video-based classrooms should include activities that are built around the explicit text of the video.

Second, the *content-enhancing reformulation* affordances that emerge in this study [section 7.5.2] also add to prior knowledge of affordances in the language learning process. Originally identified by Thoms (2014) in language classes during teacher-fronted interaction based on homework assignments such as watching videos and reading printed materials [section 3.10], *content-enhancing reformulations* in the present study build on Thoms' (ibid.) notion by confirming its use in another context. The new context is that of classrooms in Japan with learners of low levels of English speaking ability [sections 1.2, 2.6.1, 2.7.3, 4.5, & 5.5.5] after viewing videos in class. Furthermore, data show outlier instances of *atypical content enhancing* [section 7.5.3] based not on teacher reformulations, but rather on the enhancement of content without the presence of a reformulation. These atypical instances alert the reader that potential affordances may exist with regard to a lack of teacher correction, as also suggested by Waring (2008).

Third, building on Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013), whose study on classroom ecology focused on the whole-class setting in grammar lessons [section 3.10], the present study moves beyond whole-group activity to include peer interaction in the classroom process over time. Peer interactions reveal intended and unintended use of materials. For example, in the *ABC* lessons, the apparent intent of the discussion questions is to guide topics for learner discussions during speaking activities. However, when learners initiate the discussion activity with these question prompts, opportunities for learning often occur when learners clarify the meaning of the content of the actual questions—an untended learning opportunity. Therefore, while learning opportunities arise regarding the meaning of the question prompts, learners may use less time to discuss the themes to the questions. Furthermore, the question prompts exert such strong control over the activity that the theme of the video material can get lost. As such, *ABC* learners rarely discuss the explicit text of the video. Therefore, these question prompts appear better suited to get learners into discussions about themes from the video, rather than what actually occurs in the scenes. Learning opportunities that arise in such intentional and unintentional ways are similar to what Guerrettaz and Johnston (ibid.) call *materials and language learning* [detailed in section 3.10].

Fourth, from an ecological perspective, the present study demonstrates the value of studying materials use across the span of time in a lesson and in different spaces of the classroom. Findings in the present study support the claim by Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) that it is fruitful to study the relationship between materials and use as a process versus isolated instances of specific phenomena found in materials or interaction. Doing so provides insight into a language lesson as a process to reveal interrelationships between the materials and different activities as illustrated by the full-threads in *DVDay* lessons. Tracking language through the duration of a lesson shows how video materials are used in different activities as the lesson unfolds [sections 6.4 & 7.7]. In addition, areas where learning opportunities arise are also identified through the different activities to show relationships to both previous interaction and the video materials, thus demonstrating a use of video materials well after viewing occurs. Examining the interaction around the full-thread items leads to: (1) a more adequate understanding of materials use through time, and (2) ecological relationships between the materials and emergent learning opportunities.

As for different spaces of the classroom, multiple recorders placed around the room allowed for different areas to be heard. These recordings give insight into ways in which sub-floor activity contributes to the learning process in whole-group, teacher-fronted activities through ties to the video materials and opportunities for learning [sections 7.5.1, 7.7.1, & 7.7.2]. Sub-floor activity demonstrates that although learners speak together during a teacher-fronted activity, they often remain orientated to instruction on the main floor. Previous research has yielded similar results (i.e., Koole, 2007). This orientation demonstrates continued participation with the activity. Previous research has associated opportunities for participation to the potential for learning opportunities to occur (e.g., Waring, 2008). Furthermore, with the full-threads in mind, sub-floor activity supports Keddie's (2014) claim that video lessons have the benefit of sustaining engagement through activities. Because sub-floor activity shows connections to the materials and opportunities for learning, these data suggest both that sustained engagement supports the language learning process and that the sub-floor plays an important role in the process.

This view that includes the sub-floor interaction as a part of the classroom learning process agrees with Batstone and Philp (2013), who argued from an ecological perspective for the value of

accounting for interaction through time (over a lesson) and space (main floor and sub-floor). These researchers suggest learning opportunities may be examples of 'emergence in action' because re-engagements with language recur over time and with increased complexity (p. 120). Reuse of language occurs in similar ways in the full-thread instances [detailed in sections 7.4.3 & 7.7] because reuse of PVBS list items occurs in the more complex space of FSA interaction. As such, the emergence of side sequences and learning opportunities in the present study support the notion of 'emergence in action'. Furthermore, Batstone and Philp (ibid.) found numerous instances of ways in which learners assisted each other. Side sequences and learning opportunities in PVBS also show numerous forms of peer assistance. When collaborative assistance occurs in the affordance of *reliance on the shared experience* in the earlier activities of both PVBS and WGBS, reuse of language surrounding the affordance often emerges again in the final speaking activities of the full-threads through lexical or thematic links. Participant assistance in episodes of learning opportunities appears to impact reuse of language in the classroom ecology. Of note is that such interaction started with student responses, which has been shown to impact student perceptions of the language learning process (Slimani, 1987, 1989).

Also important with regard to the sub-floor is that learners produce audible evidence of noticing what is being discussed on the main floor. Anderson (2015) cites noticing as an example of a learning opportunity, and noticing has been associated with language learning (Schmidt, 1990, 2010). As such, the audible acknowledgement of noticing on the sub-floor serves as further verification that learners pay attention to the main floor interaction as a part of the learning process. In addition, the audible acknowledgement of noticing is, at times, in relation to lexical items that dyads had questions about during PVBS. Thus, components of sub-floor interaction relate to the process surrounding learning opportunities. Furthermore, an emergent connection to the video is a part of the sub-floor noticing because the interaction that surrounds list items is inspired by the use of the video material.

Through the noticing on the sub-floor, the present study draws a connection to and builds on the results from Slimani's (1989) study on student reports of language learning [detailed in section 7.5.1]. To reiterate this important point, Slimani (ibid.) found that learners were more apt to report having learned points that they themselves raised rather than points raised by a teacher. The teacher-fronted

WGBS activity in *DVDay* lessons encourages learners to bring up their own list items with the whole group. Because the impetus of the list items begins with the learners, in instances where these list items become learning opportunities or are built on through content-enhancing by the teacher, the learners may be more apt to remember the learning point as Slimani (ibid.) suggested.

Slimani's (1989) study went one step further and found an even stronger tendency for students to self-report learning in classroom instances when learning points were initiated by other classmates and clarified by the teacher, i.e., when teacher-fronted interaction was watched from across the room. Similarly, during WGBS, learners from across the room produce verbal responses of noticing while watching interaction between a classmate and the teacher. The noticing on the sub-floor then, with its ties to learning opportunities, builds on Slimani's (ibid.) study to demonstrate classroom examples of students from across the room noticing interaction between the teacher and another learner. To be clear, I am not claiming that learning occurred, rather that noticing did. Further building on Slimani (ibid.), then, I suggest that the learners who demonstrate noticing from across the room would be apt to report learning from that instance because they acknowledge it with an audible response.

8.4 Teacher use of video-based materials

Adaptation is a major part of teacher use of materials in this study. Adaptation is so pervasive in the teacher use that it is the norm rather than the exception. Even the most straightforward of activities, like the pre-video activities in *ABC*, are done differently by different teachers. In FSAs, Mike adds questions to prompts in the materials and gives learners a choice to discuss questions in the materials or the questions he added. In one lesson, Kengo eschews the FSA question prompts altogether and brings in a supplemental speaking activity. While sequences of the *DVDay* lessons are not adapted, teachers adapt within activities. As such, a distinction arises in these data in that adaptation occurs either through adapting the sequence of events in a lesson, or through adapting within one activity itself. Overall, the amount of adaptation signals that the teachers: (1) use the materials as a guide to achieve their ends, (2) teach in a way that they prefer, and (3) consider textbooks as flexible material.

In addition, because teacher responses in the WGBS activity can be viewed as the adaptation technique of *expanding* (a sub-category of *adding*) [detailed in sections 3.11 & 7.5.2], the present study increases knowledge on this technique as it occurs in classroom practice. The instructions for WGBS [Appendices F & G] ask teachers to use the responses of learners as teaching points. Because the intent is to adapt, these instructions to the teacher seem to force adaptation. In other words, adaptation is built into the materials. As such, analysis of data in this study shows evidence of an *adaptation paradox* related to materials use in the classroom interaction—adaptation is to change the instructions, but the instructions are to adapt. Furthermore, teachers are meant to use learner responses as materials, however, there is almost no way to know what these responses will be or how the responses can/should be adapted. Teachers are expected to adapt in the moment. Bannink (2002) identified a similar paradox in communicative speaking activities where '*the task of the teacher is to plan unplanned discourse*' (p. 281, italics as in original).

Associated with the adaptation paradox, a relationship seems to emerge between adaptation, affordance, and learning opportunity through what appears to be the common ground of materials use. The affordances from WGBS show this relationship most clearly because: (1) learner responses are clearly based on the video material, and (2) teachers use responses from the learners in some way. In WGBS, teachers use the adaptation technique of *expanding*. Through *expanding*, teachers use materials in a way that has the potential to give rise to affordances from which learning opportunities may arise. Both the *content-enhancing reformulation* affordance and the *reliance on shared experience* affordance demonstrate this relationship [sections 7.5.2 & 7.6]. In other words, recognizing an opportunity to adapt a learner response is part of the affordance that emerges through participation and use of materials. The actual adaptation becomes a learning opportunity. This relationship indicates that materials written with adaptation built in have the potential to lead to creative use of materials and potential affordances. Such a line of reasoning shows support for open-ended activities to be a part of classroom materials.

Saraceni (2003) also explained that adaptation exists as a kind of paradox in printed materials. On one hand, materials need to take account of a wide variety of learning styles and needs, and in doing so, run the risk of becoming somewhat superficial while devaluing or ignoring active

The present study finds its place in the research area of materials use that focuses on adaptation. Several studies have also used the McDonough et al. (2013) framework to examine adaptation. Miguel (2015) found deleting to be the most common form of materials adaptation, whereas in this study the *ABC* materials showed equal numbers of both deleting and adding. Adapting in the *DVDay* classrooms is dominated by adding largely due to the nature of the instructions. Shawer's (2010) study on materials use found that teachers fall clearly into one of three categories that were mutually exclusive [detailed in section 3.12]. These categories varied by frequency and type of adaptation. In applying these categories, Miguel (ibid.) found teachers to shift between categories. Likewise, the present study shows that teachers shift between Shawer's (2010) categories of curriculum-developers, who adapt regularly, and curriculum-makers, who rely on needs analysis to develop teaching strategies. None of the teachers in this study are curriculum-transmitters, who follow the materials with little or no adaptation. Furthermore, results from this study concur with Bosompem (2014), who also used the McDonough et al. (2013) framework, in that teachers in this study show widespread use of adaptation techniques to stimulate student participation and respond to learner needs.

Course book topics that are perceived to lack relevance to students' lives can trigger teachers to alter and adapt materials. Therefore, teacher views of the relevance of topics in materials can shape the direction of use. Furthermore, the teachers suggest that topics closer to learners' background knowledge are more desirable than topics with little relationship to the learners'

experiences and knowledge. Kengo modified the speaking activity in one *ABC* lesson by entirely replacing the questions and discussion with his own materials for these reasons.

One way teachers use the materials relates to the number of times the video is played in a particular lesson. Teachers in *ABC* lessons play the news videos at least three times in each lesson. Most likely, the main reason for multiple playbacks is because in *ABC*, the cloze activity requires careful attention to the audio in order to fill in the blanks. In this way, the video material is used as a listening comprehension activity. On the other hand, the *DVDay* videos are played once which suggests: (1) teachers are satisfied with the way learners are able complete the activities after one viewing, (2) learners pay attention to the *DVDay* video and, (3) the musical format of these videos makes a lasting impression. While the *DVDay* materials have no listening activities from the video, participants must listen to each other in order to complete the post-video activities.

A point of interest arises with regard to the sequence of activities in *DVDay* related to the definition of materials. While materials are often considered as printed or digital artifacts, list items created by the learners in PVBS and later offered verbally by the learners are in essence learner-generated materials. From the standpoint of the teacher, by listening to responses on the main floor, these responses become what Tomlinson (2001, 2003) calls linguistic materials presented in a live setting. Subsequent use and adaptation of these linguistic materials by teachers through affordances like content-enhancing reformulations give rise to learning opportunities not just for one learner, but for the entire class. Therefore, this study illustrates use of linguistic materials as a component of the video-based materials. I now turn to discuss the implications of this study for instruction and materials writers.

8.5 Implications for language teaching with video-based materials

A number of practical implications for teaching video-based lessons can be drawn from this study. Implications include: (1) spending more time explaining question prompts, (2) making use of shared contexts, (3) using the content enhancement reformulation affordance, (4) experimenting with activity sequences, (5) adapting material, (6) understanding the value of the sub-floor activity, (7)

classroom use of L1, and (8) giving learners space to formulate answers prior to teacher intervention. These implications are explained below.

In *ABC* lessons, the question prompts in the speaking activities control the direction of the discussion. Students often spend considerable time clarifying the meaning of the question prompt before moving into their discussions. While letting learners come to terms with the meaning of the question is a situation where learning opportunities arise, the time spent on clarification takes away from discussion time. Because teachers are in a better position to explain the meaning of the question prompts, I recommend that teachers spend more time explaining the question prompts to insure that learners understand the prompts prior to having learners begin the speaking activity. In this way, the teacher explanation would become a larger part of the learning process, and learners may be able to move into discussions faster.

In these video-based language lessons, references to the shared experience of the video material are shown to be a valuable part of materials use [detailed in section 7.6]. While use of the shared context may arise when teaching with video, I would advocate that teachers explicitly teach learners the value of shared contexts and ways to use them. For example, if learners experience a communication problem in their speaking activities, referencing back to the context of the video material can assist to resolve the trouble as exemplified by the reliance on shared experience affordance [detailed in section 7.6]. Furthermore, I suggest that teachers constantly refer to the shared context of the video viewing experience throughout activities in video-based lessons in particular. However, referencing the shared context of materials is not limited to video materials and should be used whenever possible in language lessons. Similarly, I suggest that teachers make a conscious effort to use the affordance of content-enhancement reformulation to build on student responses. Moreover, this affordance can be used in personalized ways to not only work with and build upon learner responses, but also to demonstrate and scaffold personalized responses that learners may mimic.

In general, I encourage teachers to adapt materials to meet the needs of learners. With particular regard to the *DVDay* material, experimenting with the activity sequence is one direction for adaptation. One possible way to add to the sequence is to review the list items produced by the whole group prior to putting the learners in groups for the final speaking activity. Reviewing in this way

would provide another cycle of exposure to the language from the previous activities prior to the FSA. At this time, learners could also be explicitly directed to use some of the language from the whole-group list in the final speaking activity or at least be given the option.

Furthermore, the time following the final speaking activity in *DVDay* lessons offers another good opportunity to elicit whole-group responses about the diverse topics that would have just been raised in the FSA. These responses would most likely be suitable to enhance with the application of the content-enhancing affordances [detailed in sections 7.5.2 & 7.5.3]. A teacher awareness of the potential for affordances to arise makes for a better use of materials. Also, a second playback of the *DVDay* video material after the final speaking activity could be used as another review, either with or without the teacher talking about scenes during playback or while pausing the video. Similarly, in *ABC* lessons, the video could be played again after the discussion activity. Adding another playback after the final speaking activities would make for further use of the materials and a good review.

In *ABC* lessons, the pre-video vocabulary did not show much uptake. Similarly, Smith (2005) also found a lack of uptake and concluded that we should not necessarily expect uptake to happen in a single lesson. One way to promote further use of the vocabulary items is to explicitly point them out in the transcript or include follow-up activities that highlight the vocabulary items in order to increase exposure to the items. Along the same reasoning, it could be suggested to the *DVDay* learners to make an effort to use some of the PVBS list items during their final speaking activities. While some use occurs in these data, the list items are abundant sources of information about the explicit video text that can be exploited.

With sub-floor interactions rarely captured in classroom recordings, the discoveries made from the sub-floor extracts are particularly significant in this study. The sub-floor is a rich source of data that is an integral part of the classroom ecology. As such, sub-floor interaction requires attention in classroom research. Sub-floor activity offers a private and intimate peek at learner interaction. Judging by the openness of the interaction, the recorders seem to have been forgotten about by the learners and many inhibitions seem to have been removed. The degree of candor in the interaction is striking as learners appear to pay more attention to the main floor activity than the recorders. These sub-floor recordings approximate the research goal of being a fly on the wall, or in this case, a bug on a desk.

While teachers may report an awareness of students leaning over and talking to each other during teacher-led, whole-group activities, there is no real way to know exactly what learners say to each other. The sub-floor recordings reveal truths about such interaction.

Characteristics of the sub-floor interaction are detailed at the end of section 7.5.1, and full-thread analysis [detailed in sections 7.71 & 7.7.2] displays ways in which the sub-floor activity fits into the whole *DVDay* process. Earlier in this chapter [section 8.3], I also discuss the significance of the sub-floor interaction to disclose that such interaction often: (1) is oriented to the activity, (2) aids to sustain participation, (3) shows reuse of language related to the materials, and (4) serves as evidence of noticing. Learner use of the sub-floor also has implications for teaching because the findings can apply to the broader context of teacher-led activities in general and to checking activities in particular.

There are three main implications of the sub-floor activity I wish to highlight. First, sub-floor activity in the present study assists to ease fears that what learners say to each other out of teacher earshot is unrelated to the lesson at hand. While sub-floor activity may be viewed in a negative way by some teachers due to concerns about students being off topic or using L1, data in this study reveal that during whole-group activities, sub-floor interaction often relates directly to what is unfolding on the main floor. Because this sub-floor activity suggests use of materials, teachers would do well to recognize sub-floor activity as a productive part of the learning process, e.g., accept L1 sub-floor activity as a part of a learning opportunity. Second, a teacher who notices sub-floor interaction may take it not only as an indication that learners are most likely discussing the point at hand on the main floor, but also as a sign that this main floor point is in need of further explanation. In other words, sub-floor action can be viewed as a hint to further explain the pedagogic matter at hand.

Third, activity on the sub-floor adds insight to the ongoing debate regarding L1 usage in foreign language classrooms with regard to bilingual/multilingual/translingual education (e.g., Nation, 2003; Canagarajah, 2007; 2013a, 2013b, 2014; García, 2007, 2009; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 2013; Cummings, 2014; Cenoz 2017; Moore, 2017). Sub-floor interaction in the present study features an abundance of productive work going on in that students, at times, talk in their L1 instead of English. In this context, where nearly all of the learners share the same first language or are proficient in the dominant language of the country, use of L1 in these data

shows apparent benefits to the learning process. On the sub-floor, learners use L1 to: (1) assist each other with knowledge gaps of vocabulary, (2) make decisions about L2 usage, and (3) acknowledge points made by the teacher. Furthermore, specific to the sub-floor during teacher-fronted activities, learners need to make quick points to each other and not interrupt the main floor activity, so use of L1 may be the best way to achieve this goal.

Also adding to the productive use of L1 by these learners are the interactions found in the pair work activities in both *ABC* and *DVDay*. While students can and should be encouraged to use as much of the target language as possible, use of L1 plays a positive role as evidenced by the interaction during side sequences in the FSAs and during the PVBS activity in *DVDay*. Similar to the sub-floor activity, L1 interaction in the FSAs and PVBS is used by learners to: (1) assist each other with gaps in knowledge related to vocabulary and grammar, (2) confirm and clarify was is said to each other, (3) buy time to formulate English responses, and (4) stay on topic. Such use of L1 also appears to be advantageous to the learning process. To adopt a position that bans L1 use in the classroom may ignore the benefits that occur on a practical level when students use materials. A ban of L1, then, seems like a less desirable way to conduct language lessons at least with the learners in the present study.

Findings from L1 use on the sub-floor, in pair work, and during teacher-fronted interaction in this thesis align with thinking in support of bilingual/multilingual/translingual education for the language learning process. For instance, Creese and Blackledge (2010) discuss the ecological notion of 'flexible bilingualism', where language teachers use bilingual teaching 'as an instructional strategy to make links for classroom participants between the social, cultural, community, and linguistic domains of their lives' (p. 112). This thesis contributes to the understanding of this notion by showing that learners in peer interaction also demonstrate a similar flexible bilingualism as a natural part of the learning process in the classrooms under observation. In addition, results in the present study are similar to those from Moore (2017), who found that 'learners naturally and variably draw on their L1 linguistic resources to manage, negotiate and construct content [. . .]' (p. 316). Moore's (ibid.) study looked at L1 use in preparation activities for oral presentations in L2, and his research was done

outside of the classroom setting. The present study supports Moore's (ibid.) findings through classroom data by showing productive use of L1 not only in preparatory activities (i.e., PVBS and WGBS), but also speaking activities in the classroom (i.e., the FSAs of both textbooks).

One way learners could be encouraged to stay in L2 is through compensation strategies. Affordances such as the content-enhancing reformulations and the reliance on shared experience may be applied to compensation strategies to assist participants to stay in L2 [as illustrated in sections 7.5, 7.6, & 7.7]. For example, learners may enhance content during episodes of circumlocution in order to make themselves understood or rely on shared experiences to help explain themselves. However, when all avenues are exhausted, flipping into L1 for brief periods seems like a valid and additional strategy to continue interaction and discuss language points that arise. These intervals in L1 often represent use of materials, and learners tend to move back into the target language. Such interaction represents a degree of learner control over the activity.

In addition, although this study does not explore speaking anxiety to any depth, perhaps the potential for learners to fall back on L1 may be part of the reason that less speaking anxiety is reported by learners in pair work than in speaking in front of the whole class [detailed in section 2.7.2]. Even when the teacher flips back and forth between languages for specific intent, such interaction appears to be a useful teaching strategy. Swain and Lapkin (2013) contend that L1 use in L2 classrooms should be purposeful and not be random, and as discussed above, these learners often show a purposeful intent to their L1 usage. Because of this purposeful use of L1 demonstrated by participants, educators may want to consider this type of L1 use as a normal and productive part of the language learning process. Both on the sub-floor and in pair work, learner interaction shows a fruitful use of L1. As such, findings in this thesis support a favorable position on the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms especially for the proficiency levels of these learners.

Open-ended language teaching activities that ask learners to provide their own answers prior to teacher intervention have a place in the classroom. While every activity cannot be done in this way, if learners are at a certain ability, then they can be asked to create answers before getting assistance. Such an approach encourages learners to experiment with their current ability. Similarly, Larsen-

Freeman (2013) argues for the benefits of 'teaching students to take what they know and mould it to a new context for a present purpose' (p. 199). Teachers wishing to use open-ended activities such as PVBS or *silent viewing*, where learners are asked first to put forth language to the best of their ability, should feel comfortable with the viability of these activities to support the learning process. However, it must be acknowledged that not all teachers may feel comfortable with such an openness to materials. Teachers must be prepared for a wide variety of responses from students and be able to come up with their own responses in the moment. Most likely, teachers will need to want to teach in this way to be satisfied.

Specific to the Japanese context, the practice of giving space to learners to speak about video materials aligns with MEXT policy of teaching communicative lessons [detailed in sections 1.3 & 2.3]. Interaction in such lessons shows a use of language that is qualitatively different from materials found in many of the grammar translation-type activities of textbooks in the Japanese context. Furthermore, because video-based activities seem to build learner confidence and encourage mutual learner participation, the lessons appear to support the recommendations made by Harumi (2011) to assist learners in Japan to overcome classroom silence [detailed in section 2.7.1].

In teaching with open-ended activities, learners often stay within the parameters of the activity and use strategies to elicit responses from their partners. As such, learners not only work on gaps in knowledge as found in the side sequences, but also appear to work on conversational skills such as asking questions, asking for opinions, eliciting reasons for prior interlocutor responses, and discussing both personal views and experiences. Such moves employed by the learners clearly demonstrate learner intent to develop topics, keep the conversational-like interaction going, and encourage contributions from their partners. These speaking skills are useful for sustaining conversations that learners might experience outside of the classroom or for the testing of speaking skills on high-stakes exams such as TOEFL (The Test of English as a Foreign Language) and IELTS (The International English Language Testing System). Next, I discuss implications of this study for the design of materials.

8.6 Implications for materials writers

Based on findings in this study, a number of points have surfaced in relation to the design of lesson materials that encourage materials use. These points include suggestions for the: (1) creating of video activities, (2) designing of video material, (3) writing of question prompts, (4) inclusion of open-ended activities, (5) developing of vocabulary activities, and (6) value of instructions to the teacher. I discuss these implications in turn.

Materials writers need to rethink the way activities are designed in video-based course books. Tried and trusted activities such as the cloze activity found in *ABC* serve solid pedagogic purposes, yet there is one key area that these activities fail to address. The focus of these more traditional activities can ignore the visual component of the video materials. Just as cloze activities appear to promote listening comprehension, new types of activities need to be designed to take full advantage of the visual component. These activities would function as a type of comprehension check for the visual side of the video, i.e., activities could account for what the images communicate. Such activities would encourage the watching of the video, whereas cloze activities based on video transcripts can discourage use of the visual component as many learners demonstrated in *ABC* lessons by keeping their heads down and eyes on the textbook pages as the video played. The PVBS activity in *DVDay* takes just a small step in this direction by encouraging learners to speak about what was seen in the video.

Furthermore, these new types of activities might promote a visual analysis of specific scenes or quiz learners about what was seen. The burgeoning field of multimodality (Kress, 2010) may provide further insight for ways of analyzing images and direction on how activities might be designed for language learning materials. Moreover, material writers might want to develop activities to take advantage of the reliance on shared experience affordance and create materials that foster its use. Likewise, materials could be designed that promote the use of the content enhancing affordances. Encouraging the use of the video images may lead to affordances that further speaking activities and impact learning opportunities.

Results in the present study show that video components of course books can be useful for training the skill of speaking. I draw a distinction in video-based materials between activities that drive learners to discuss the events in the video (as in the PVBS activity of *DVDay*) versus activities that derive themes from the video to elicit speaking topics (as in the *ABC* question prompts). This study clearly shows that these different activity types yield different types of materials use. Materials writers need to not only be aware of the difference, but also create materials that do both. Such materials would provide activities that push learner attention to the events in the video scenes, and activities that make use of the material thematically. While both books in this study do contain activities that take advantage of the video material in different ways, I warn of a potential danger that course books containing videos may not be exploiting the video material enough, in which case the time spent on watching the video goes to waste. Textbooks with multiple video-based activities would take full advantage of the videos.

Both videos in the textbook materials used in this study are classified as authentic materials. From a materials standpoint, Gilmore (2007) claimed that authentic materials are superior to contrived materials for language lessons. While authentic videos are believed to have pedagogic value [section 3.4], I now place focus on the videos that are a part of this study. Numerous learning opportunities in *DVDay* data relate to nouns. The reason might be due to a lack of action scenes in the videos. However, learners do include some of the few action scenes that are in the videos in their PVBS lists. The action scenes in the video might have stood out against the other scenes that focus on the settings of different locations, making the action seem more noticeable. The dominance of nouns and noun phrases in PVBS interaction could also be due to the open-ended nature of the activity rather than the video materials. Some SLA researchers (e.g., Williams, 1999; Jeon, 2007; Batstone & Philps, 2013) report that classroom interaction leads to lexical development with particular attention to nouns. While lexical development is certainly an important part of the language learning process, the inclusion of more action scenes in *DVDay* videos may lead to more complex language structures produced by learners in *DVDay* classrooms. As such, I suggest that future *DVDay*-type videos include more action scenes.

Another direction for the design of video materials is to include scenes of unusual or novel circumstances. There seems to be pedagogic value in imagery displaying unique circumstances as a way to create interest in the video materials. Novel scenes appear to capture attention of learners and relate to use of material. In the Detroit lesson, learners appear drawn to speak about the images of a statue wearing a basketball uniform. In the New York lesson, learners discuss ice skating in the city center and an unusual advertising sign for Cup Noodles in Times Square that had smoke coming out of the top. The exotic scenes of Santorini inspire comparisons to Japan. Learners also speak about the juxtaposition of broken-down buildings and modern skyscrapers in the Detroit lesson. These instances are all associated with learning opportunities in the full-threads. Novelty and juxtaposition in video scenes appear to generate interest for discussion that may lead to learning opportunities and could be included by materials developers in not only video materials but also in other types of visual materials such as photos or drawings.

As mentioned above, the *ABC* pre-video vocabulary items have a tendency to not be used by learners in the follow-up speaking activity. While additional exposure to the vocabulary items occurs during multiple playbacks of the *ABC* video, the student focus during playback is on completing the cloze activity. The cloze-activity answers do not usually include the pre-video vocabulary items. As such, the multiple exposures to the vocabulary take place in an implicit way through listening. In addition, learners tend to silently read and follow the transcript to complete the cloze activity during which time they may also see the word in print. Therefore, one way to induce further use of the pre-video vocabulary items would be to have those vocabulary items as a part of the fill-in answers to the blanks in the cloze activity.

Because the question prompts control the discussion topics in *ABC* lessons, when textbook units include discussion questions as part of the materials, writers need to pay close attention to the creation of the questions to ensure that these discussion questions integrate closely with the video material. This thesis goes so far as to identify the gap in the way video-based materials may ignore the visual component in certain activities. It is up to materials writers to create materials that account for not only the spoken languages, but also for the language of visual imagery.

Finally, materials writers should be sure that each section in a unit has some sort of instructions of suggested use for the teacher. The cloze activity in *ABC* had no instructions in the book, nor in the teacher manual. The instructions may not be necessary for many teachers, but helpful for others. Furthermore, instructions give an indication of the intended way to use the materials.

8.7 Limitations of study

Results from qualitative studies are usually not generalizable. Therefore, anyone wishing to generalize these results should proceed with caution. While I am unsure how these materials would function in other contexts, I have a suspicion that the *DVDay* videos and the way that the materials are used in this study may only be context specific to Japan or some contexts in East Asia. It is my hope that teachers or researchers in other contexts conduct similar research in their own contexts to provide a means for a cross-case analysis with the results in this study. The use of *ABC* materials may have more generalizability to contexts where learners are of similar proficiency levels to the learners in this study. As another limitation, the qualitative nature of this study is interpretive, and other researchers looking at the same data may reach different conclusions.

With the focus of this study placed on use of video and video-based materials in oral-focused lessons, other important areas of the classroom ecology received little or no attention. Although speaking usually requires a partner to hear and potentially respond to an utterance, this study eschews investigation into the teaching of listening in order to concentrate on spoken interaction. A further limit is that only two genres of video were under observation for speaking lessons. One major part of the Japanese context left unexplored is that of *eigo* lessons [described in Chapter 2]. It would be interesting to learn how video is used in *eigo* lessons, if at all.

Another limitation in the research relates to the recording of the lessons. Because I was interested in the impact of the video viewing on the lessons, I only recorded those sections of the lessons that followed the playback of the video. Another design choice would have been to record all of the lessons in their entirety, even those parts of the lessons unrelated to the video material, to learn ways in which the non-video related materials may impact the video related materials. These classes met twice a week, and I only recorded once a week when the videos were being shown. Furthermore,

because the pre-video sections of the *ABC* lessons occur prior to video viewing, I did not capture classroom interaction in the pre-video sections on the audio recordings. Instead, I relied on my observation notes for analysis of these pre-video segments of the lessons. Analysis would have been strengthened if both observation notes and audio recordings had been a part of the data set for these activities. Had I the chance to do the study over, adding recordings of these activities to the data set is something that I would do.

With regard to the teacher adaptations in the *ABC* lessons, the materials may have been too difficult for the learners, which may have impacted reasons for the teacher adaptations. Such a limitation is a problem with having to select the materials ahead of time for particular groups of learners and of having one set of materials for a diverse set of learners. Perhaps different levels of books are needed for different groups of learners in elective courses. While the learners elected to enroll in these elective courses, it remains a challenge to know which learners will match with a certain level of material. Even learners with higher test scores may not be able to function well in speaking lessons. Furthermore, the *ABC* materials sometimes called for Internet searches as a part of the final speaking activities. Unfortunately, many of the classrooms did not have Internet access, and these discussion questions needed to be altered. Again, this changing of the activity may have impacted the teacher adaptation.

Limiting the recordings to only audio [detailed in section 5.5.2] meant visual data such as gestures, facial expressions, and posture were missed. Such data are important parts of the classroom ecology left unaccounted in audio-only recordings. Going forward, I would strongly consider the use of video recording equipment for research in classrooms especially in light of the ever decreasing costs of such gear. Further related to the lack of visual data is that I did not include any of the video materials as screen shots or in any other format for the presentation of analysis. I understand that not having watched the videos may have made this thesis a challenge to read. I took steps to rectify this limitation though attempts to secure reproduction rights for the newscast videos from the *ABC* News Corporation in New York City. Permission to use the video images in this thesis was denied by lawyers at the company. Fortunately, *ABC* News and Kinseido in Japan (the publisher of *ABC World News 14*) both granted me permission to reproduce pages of the printed textbook as included in

Appendix C. To compensate for the lack of screenshots of the video materials, I explain the video scenes in the body of the thesis text to give the reader a sense of the video scenes most likely being discussed in the extracts of the analysis chapters. While I do own the copyrights to the videos from the *DVDay* textbook, to be fair to the analysis of *ABC* lessons and for the sake of consistency, I exclude screen shots of the *DVDay* videos.

In hindsight, this study could have benefitted from additional observations of the classroom activities. Unfortunately, getting into the classrooms presented a challenge due to time constraints when many of the lessons I wanted observe either fell at the same time I was teaching, or when two or more teachers taught during the same time period [explained in sections 5.5.1 & 5.5.2]. Due to these scheduling conflicts, I was forced to limit my observations and make hard choices about which lessons to observe. Many of the lessons I did observe fell out of the study due to my sampling strategies in the data condensation process [detailed in sections 5.5.5]. At the time of data collection, there is no way to know which observations will be a part of the final data set. Fortunately, I had made sure to observe each teacher multiple times to provide enough observation data from which to draw logical conclusions. Time conflicts can be a limitation of teacher research.

Data from the PVBS activity in Chapter 7 came from the recreation of the list items found in the audio recordings from the lessons. While interaction on the audio recordings seems to provide an accurate account of the list items that were most likely written on the student handouts during the activity, what was actually written could have been different. More accurate data from the actual handouts would have been better. These handouts could have been collected or documented with photos to compare to what was actually said. Furthermore, any notes or sketches that learners may have made on the handouts went uncollected. Gathering the handouts not only would have made the study more accurate, but also saved considerable time in the analysis process when the list items had to be reconstructed from the audio.

Because this study focuses on materials use, analysis includes little research of the actual materials—the content of the textbooks and videos. While such analysis is not materials use in itself, additional analysis of the materials may help to understand the classroom ecology even more deeply and would further demonstrate the synergy between research in materials use and that of materials

development and evaluation. Furthermore, additional relationships between the materials and their use could be uncovered. Frameworks need to be designed to analyze video materials as educational materials to pair with frameworks such as Littlejohn (2011), which researchers have used to analyze the content of the materials (e.g., Humphries, 2011).

Although analysis in the present study does show components of the learning process as related to interaction surrounding the use of video materials, it does not aim to evaluate learning over the course of the semester. This lack of evaluation was a part of the research design. In order for such evaluations to occur, a more longitudinal study is required that would need to take into account the identity of each learner over time. Because I wanted to collect the most naturally occurring data from classrooms as possible, I felt more comfortable letting the teachers choose their preferred way to pair learners in the classrooms [detailed in section 4.6]. The teachers did, in fact, employ different strategies to pair students [explained in section 6.2.1].

Requiring teachers to record the same pairs every week presents problems of not only forcing stipulations on teachers, but also by creating potential issues in the classroom if a student is absent or unwilling to be recorded on a weekly basis. Because all of the student groups were not being recorded in a particular lesson due to limited resources, recording the same pairs every week has the potential to be viewed by other learners as giving preferential treatment to the learners being recorded. In the worst case, such preferential treatment could lead to resentment from and even bullying by the unrecorded students, cultural factors in the Japanese context [detailed in section 2.7.1]. Randomly recording pairs each week is a design element that creates a feeling of fairness among learners and also increases transparency within these data. At the same time, such a design is a limitation that precludes investigation into evaluation of learning.

Perhaps one way to improve on the study design would be to add the process of stimulated recall to the data collection phase. Stimulated recall is when participants are given an opportunity to discuss thought processes surrounding an activity (Gass & Mackey, 2000). The teachers could have been asked to listen to sections of the classroom audio recordings or read field notes and asked to make direct comments on certain passages. While the mini-interviews did serve in the capacity of stimulated recall in a small way, these interviews were not a systematic part of the data-collection process.

Furthermore, teachers could have been asked to read my interpretations of their interview answers soon after collecting data while the experience of teaching the lessons and interviewing was still fresh on their minds to ensure the accuracy of my interpretations. Likewise, interviews with learners may have improved this study. Because of my position of power as a non-Japanese male teacher/researcher, the decision was made early in the research process not to include learner interviews in the data set. Instead of interviewing learners at this age and maturity level, I thought it better to give learners a voice though the questionnaires.

8.8 Future research

As the present study focuses on two genres of video from course books designed for the local market in Japan, it would be interesting to design a similar study that uses different genres of video as materials. Videos in both *DVDay* and *ABC* are considered authentic materials in that they were not created as teaching materials per se, but designed for a wider audience before being brought into the classroom as materials. Future research could address video materials that have been specifically designed for language teaching to learn more about whether or not there is a difference between these types of video and studying with authentic video materials. Both video types would likely have their own strengths and weaknesses. Studies are also needed on course books that have documentary-style videos and authentic movie clips. Popular online sites such as *YouTube* and *Vimeo* have numerous genres available to classrooms that could be used as materials for research.

Research on classroom affordances from an ecological perspective is in its early stages. Affordances found in this study such as *content-enhancing reformulations* [section 7.5.2] and *reliance on shared experience* [section 7.6] need confirmation in additional contexts. Affordances where learning opportunities arise where there is no gap in knowledge such as in *atypical content enhancing* [7.5.3] need to be explored. Further research is also needed that explores the relationship between adapting materials and affordances. Also worthwhile for future studies would be to take more account of the video images. A research project rooted in the growing area of multimodality (e.g., Kress, 2010) would be a good approach to add to the understanding of video use in the classroom. Such a framework could be used to analyze the multi-modal nature of the videos and printed textbooks, and

may have the potential to expand knowledge of the classroom ecology with regard to materials use. For instance, included in multi-modal analysis is a *chain of semiosis* (Kress, ibid.), which aims to account for relationships in far-reaching aspects of materials such as textbook and video production.

Additional research is also needed to uncover ways in which the sub-floor activity affects the language learning process. Sub-floor activity in this thesis has been shown to be a rich source of data. In particular, further research on sub-floor activity may be able to add to understanding of translanguaging or code switching in bilingual and multilingual teaching environments. Similarly, further research of open-ended activities would also be likely to lead to a greater understanding of translanguaging and code switching.

Finally, studies in content-based classrooms where video is produced by learners is another area in need of research. From a perspective of the classroom ecology, such studies would include not only research on the content of the lessons, but also on use of the materials. With growing attention by educators to the production of video in areas such as digital literacies (e.g., Dudeney, Hockly and Pegrum, 2013), research is needed on classroom processes involved with making videos and ways in which these videos communicate with other viewers.

8.9 Closing remarks

The origins of this study are rooted in my curiosity to know more about the ways in which video materials are used in language teaching. Similar to the ways the learners in this study make interaction personal and relevant to their own lives for language study, I, too, have taken a subject that is personal and relevant for my life as a subject for study. Just as the shift to personalization seems to assist learners to sustain interaction, my interest in teaching language with video has sustained my interaction with this thesis throughout the research process. Personalizing this study has led to multiple learning opportunities for me as I put aside my teacher and videographer responsibilities to take up the role of researcher.

Through a qualitative approach, the major focus of this thesis has been on materials use. An ecological approach was taken in this exploratory study to understand ways in which participants used video-based materials in the complex and chaotic setting of the language classroom. Materials use was

studied with attention to topics in interaction, adaptation, and common language over the course of multiple activities. To 'watch' video-based affordances emerge in these data was one of the most exciting parts of this research process. Documenting these affordances may help to create an awareness of them so that the notion can be better recognized in classroom situations to encourage participation with language. Uncovering aspects of ways in which video-based materials impact classroom interaction has helped to fill a gap in the field of applied linguistics with regard to the language learning processes surrounding materials use. I end with a message of hope that this thesis will contribute to the ongoing discussions in the growing research area of materials use, encourage direction for materials writers to design video-based lessons, and inspire teachers and learners to use video materials for language study in creative ways.

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Appendices

Appendix A   Learner consent form in Japanese and English

<u>研究参加同意書</u> (Original for students)

学生参加者各位

本研究では、会話力向上を目指すべくビデオテープを用いた EFL レッスンの効果を考察することを目的としています。参加者には授業中にビデオを見たり、ビデオに関するディスカッションを行ってもらいます。英語教育の質的向上のためにも、本研究にご協力いただければ幸いです。

私はクラスルーム調査に関する████████の規則を順守することを誓います。もし本研究に参加していただける場合、主な内容は以下の 2 点となります：

1. to complete a questionnaire
    質問用紙への回答

2. to let me observe and audio record various classroom discussions.
    私の観察研究を許可し、様々なクラスルーム・ディスカッションの撮影・録画・録音を許可する

もしご協力いただける場合、以下を精読し、指定箇所署名をお願いいたします。
Thank you very much for your help.
ご協力感謝いたします。

Marcus Grandon, PhD Candidate in Applied Linguistics　応用言語学博士候補　Marcus Grandon

Aston University, School of Language and Social Sciences, Birmingham, England, UK.

Lecturer, ████ University　████████

被験者同意書
博士論文研究テーマ：日本人 EFL 学生の会話力向上に関するビデオレッスンの効果について

当研究の概要を精読しました。

質問用紙に解答し、教室でのディスカッションは録画・録音されることを承諾しますが、同時にそれらへの参加を拒否する権限を保持することを理解しています。私のクラスルームは観察研究の対象となり得ることを理解し、その場合、ビデオによる録画であることを理解します。また私は、どの段階においてもこの調査への協力を取りやめる権利があることを理解します。

被験者である自分の氏名を含むすべての個人情報は厳格に保護されていることを理解します。

本研究への協力に同意します。ただし諸事情により本研究への協力を途中でキャンセルする権利は保持し、その場合には調査責任者と講師に知らせることを誓います。

_____
Signature of Participant & Date
協力者署名と日付

_____
Print name and Student Number
協力者の氏名と学生番号

_____
Signature of Researcher & Date
調査責任者の署名と日付

Marcus Grandon, PhD Candidate 博士候補

Please do not hesitate to contact me for any reason with any questions or concerns.
ご質問や気がかりな点がございましたら、お気軽にご連絡ください。
Marcus Grandon

Student Consent Form (English Translation)

Dear Student-Participant,

I am conducting academic research that aims to understand the outcome of video-based EFL lessons on oral proficiency. Participation includes watching videos in class and discussion activities related to the videos. Would you please participate in this research project so that we can improve the quality of English education? I agree to follow all university regulations for classroom research. If you agree to participate, I will ask you for the following:

1. to complete a questionnaire
2. to let me observe and audio record various classroom discussions.

If you are willing to participate, please read the form below carefully and sign it in the space at the bottom.
Thank you very much for your help.
Marcus Grandon, PhD Candidate in Applied Linguistics
Aston University, School of Language and Social Sciences,

Birmingham, England, UK.

Subject Consent Form
PhD Research Project Title: The effect of video-based lessons on the oral proficiency of Japanese EFL students
I have read the description of the research project to be carried out by Marcus Grandon.
I understand that I will be asked to complete a questionnaire and that some of my classroom discussions will be audio recorded. I understand that I can decline to take part in the questionnaire, recordings or any other part of the study at any time. I understand that my classroom may be observed and if so it may be audio recorded. I understand that I may be requested to answer a questionnaire. I understand that I can decline to take part in any of the aforementioned portions of the study at any time.

I understand that my name will be kept in strictest confidence and that my identity will not be revealed.

(Please see other side)

I agree to take part in the study. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time, for whatever reason, and if I do, I will inform the researcher and my teacher.

_____
Signature of Participant & Date

_____
Print name and Student Number

_____
Signature of Researcher & Date
Marcus Grandon, PhD Candidate

Please do not hesitate to contact me for any reason with any questions or concerns.
Marcus Grandon

XXXX University

Appendix B   Instructor consent form

<div align="center">Consent Form</div>

Dear Instructor-Participant,

It is often pointed out that Japanese students have a difficult time using spoken English. I'm conducting academic research that aims to measure the outcome of video-based EFL lessons on oral proficiency. I would like to ask you to participate in this research.

If you agree to participate, I will ask you for up to five things:

1. to complete a questionnaire.
2. to take part in a recorded interview.
3. to let me observe and audio record of your classes.
4. to ask your students to complete a questionnaire.
5. to take photos of writing on the blackboard.

If you are willing to participate, please read the form below carefully and sign it in the space at the bottom.

Thank you very much for your help.

Marcus Grandon, PhD Candidate in Applied Linguistics

Aston University, School of Language and Social Sciences,

Birmingham, England, UK.

Subject Consent Form

PhD Research Project Title: The effect of video-based lessons on the oral proficiency of Japanese EFL students

I have read the description of the research project to be carried out by Marcus Grandon. I have had the opportunity to discuss it with him and ask any questions I have.

I understand that I may be asked to complete a questionnaire and to take part in an interview about my use of video-based EFL lessons and that these interviews will be recorded. I understand that I can decline to take part in such interviews or any other part of the study at any time. I understand that my classroom may be observed and if so it may be audio recorded. I understand that I may be requested to ask my students to complete a questionnaire. I understand that I can decline to take part in any of the aforementioned portions of the study at any time.

I understand that my name will be kept in strictest confidence and that my identity will not be revealed.

<div align="center">(Please see other side)</div>

I agree to take part in the study. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time, for whatever reason, and if I do, I will inform the researcher.

_____
Signature of Participant & Date

_____
Print name

_____
E-mail address & telephone of Instructor-Participant

_____
Signature of Researcher & Date
Marcus Grandon, PhD Candidate

Please do not hesitate to contact me for any reason with any questions or concerns.
Marcus Grandon

<div align="center">270</div>

Appendix removed for copyright restrictions.

Appendix D   Recommended procedure for *ABC World News* lessons

Thank you once again for assisting me with my research project. I am sincerely grateful to you!

With regard to the *ABC World News* lessons for the research study, I've put together a suggested procedure for the teachers. My study seeks to collect data of student discussions in these classrooms. For the most part it follows the book with very few modifications.

Here is the procedure:

Each unit of *ABC* is broken down into sections. Please teach the sections in the following order:

1. Warm-Up Exercises: As written in the book.
2. News Story Activity: As written in the book. Show the video as often as needed.
3. Exercises: Skip exercises A, B, C, and D. Go directly to Exercise E, which is a discussion section. The preparation and discussions in this section are the main focus of my research. I need to have the audio recorders switched on for this activity including the instructions you give them. All classroom interaction for this Section E is what I want to record.

At times, I will provide you with slight modifications on the questions in Section E. A sheet with the modifications for the first 5 units is included with this package. Basically, students are sometimes asked to do an internet search of certain topics in this section, and I'm cutting out this internet search because most students will not have internet access in the classrooms. Even if you do have the internet in the classroom, would you please to skip this section?

I ask you to skip activities A,B,C, and D in the Exercises Section to insure that the students watch the video in class, and have time to do the discussion activity in Exercise E.

If you have time, you can always go back and do the activities A,B,C and D in the Exercise Section, which are mostly listening activities and grammar translation activities.

For my research, I have to have recordings of the Exercise Section E.   I'm asking all participants to be sure to teach that part. The crucial thing for my study to have the recordings of these discussions, and it would be best for the project to follow the procedure I've outline here.

Thank you once again for your help! Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions.

Best wishes,

Marcus Grandon

Appendix removed for copyright restrictions.

Appendix removed for copyright restrictions.

Appendix H   Semi-structured interview questions for teachers

<u>Biographical Information</u>

1. Please make any general comments about your experience with teaching the video-based lessons.
2. Can you provide a walk through as to how you conducted a typical lesson? (I'll have the textbooks on hand.)
3. In post-video portion of the lessons, when the students were working in pairs and the recorders were running, what would you say was the main pedagogic purpose of that part of the lesson?
4. What kinds of things did you see about the videos that provided a base for speaking instruction, if anything?
5. How do you think the students responded to these materials?
6. Please comment on what you noticed about the interaction when students were speaking together.
7. Did you ever notice students assisting each other with language? If so, how?
8. What are benefits of teaching these video-based lessons as related to the skill of speaking?
9. What are the negative points of using these video-based lessons for the teaching of speaking?

Appendix I   Student questionnaire in Japanese and English

<u>ビデオによる英語レッスンについての調査 2013</u>

この調査は私、マーカス・グランドン（イギリス、アストン大学研究生）が英語学習の思想・信念の理解を深めるために行います。あなた方がこの調査のために時間を割いてくれることに感謝します。あなた方が提供してくれた情報を、ビデオを使用した未来の英語レッスンの原案のために役立てます。この質問は、教材ビデオによる英語レッスンを使ったレッスンのためのみに参照されます。これはテストではありませんので、正しい答えや間違った答えなどはありません。アンケート用紙には名前を書かないでください。回答は完全に匿名であり、もちろん評価に何も影響しません。この調査に協力してくれることに感謝します。 ☺

Part I. 答えに丸を付けてください。　　**1. 男　　女**

2. 留学したことはありますか？　はい　　いいえ

2a. はいの場合　1年未満　1年から2年未満　　2年以上

答えを書いてください。　**3. 何歳ですか**　　＿＿＿＿

4. 何年生ですか　＿＿＿＿

Part II. 以下の質問について、どのくらいそう思うか1から6までの番号を一つ丸で囲ってください。どうぞすべての質問に答えてください。

非常にそう思う	そう思う	ややそう思う	あまりそう思わない	そう思わない	全くそう思わない
6	5	4	3	2	1

	非常に そう思う	そう思う	やや そう思う	あまり そう思わない	そう思わない	全く そう思わない
（例）もしあなたが非常にそう思うとしたら数字を丸で囲ってください。 スキーはとても好きだ。	⑥	5	4	3	2	1

	非常に そう思う	そう思う	やや そう思う	あまり そう思わない	そう思わない	全く そう思わない
1. 会話練習のために、DVD教材を用いた授業をまた履修したい。	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. 以前履修した他の授業（高校も含めて）よりも、このクラスにいる時の方が英語を話す。	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. DVD教材を用いた授業を受け、英語で自分の意見を述べる能力が伸びたと思う。	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. DVDを用いた会話練習では、議論のかじ取りを自分ですることが出来た。	6	5	4	3	2	1
5. DVDから考えだされたトピックは話し合いし易いものだった。	6	5	4	3	2	1
6. 私は、自分の話し相手の英語を手伝った。	6	5	4	3	2	1
7. DVD映像はつまらなかった。	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. DVDを用いた会話練習では、自分の経験をテーマとして話した。	6	5	4	3	2	1
9. DVDを用いない英語授業の方がいいと思う。	6	5	4	3	2	1
10. DVD映像やディスカッションのテーマに関して話すことができなくても、英語で話し続けた。	6	5	4	3	2	1
11. 会話練習の際、相手と文法について話したことがある。	6	5	4	3	2	1
12. 自分の話し相手は私の英語を手伝った。	6	5	4	3	2	1
13. DVDでテーマのディスカッションが長くできるようになった。	6	5	4	3	2	1
14. DVDに関連したテーマはほとんど話すことがなかった。	6	5	4	3	2	1
15. DVDでディスカッションのテーマがひらめいた。	6	5	4	3	2	1
16. 話し相手の英語を手伝うことを肯定的にとらえた。	6	5	4	3	2	1
17. ペアでの会話で、ほとんど日本語を使った。	6	5	4	3	2	1

前のページからの続き。以下の質問について、どのくらいそう思うか1から6までの番号を一つ丸で囲ってください。
どうぞすべての質問に答えてください。

非常にそう思う	そう思う	ややそう思う	あまりそう思わない	そう思わない	全くそう思わない
6	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**

	非常に そう思う	そう思う	やや そう思う	あまり そう思わない	そう思わない	全く そう思わない
（例）もしあなたが非常にそう思うとしたら数字を丸で囲ってください。						
スキーはとても好きだ。	6	5	4	3	2	1
18. 学期が始まって間もない頃に比べ学期終盤の頃の方が、練習相手と英語で話すのを躊躇しなくなった。	6	5	4	3	2	1
19. 文法的な間違いを含む文章を話し続けても気にならない。	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. 話し相手が自分の英語を手伝うことを肯定的にとらえた。	6	5	4	3	2	1
21. DVD映像を用いた授業はストレスであった。	6	5	4	3	2	1
22. DVDを用いた会話練習では、自分で話題を見つけることが出来た。	6	5	4	3	2	1
23. 会話の練習では、日本に関する映像をもっと見たいと思った。	6	5	4	3	2	1
24. 話す時に文法的なミスがあれば、再度言い直す。	6	5	4	3	2	1
25. 会話練習後の自分の英語量を自己評価をすることで、自分がどれくらいの英語量を話しているのか分かった。	6	5	4	3	2	1

Part III. どうぞ答えを日本語で書いてください。

１。DVDレッスンの何が好きでしたか？またどうしてですか？

２。DVDレッスンをどのようにしたらもっと良くなりますか？

☺　　終了です! この調査にご協力いただきありがとうございました!!!　　☺

ver. j4

Questionnaire on video-based English lessons 2013 PhD data (administered in Japanese)

This survey is being conducted by Marcus Grandon of Aston University, UK to better understand the thoughts and beliefs of learners of English. I'm grateful that you are taking the time to help me. Your input is important and will help very much with the design of future lessons using video for English education. The questions in this survey pertain only to the lessons you did using the video-based lessons in your class. Please do not put your name on the questionnaire. All answers should be given completely anonymously and will of course not have any effect of the grades given in this class. This is not a test so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Thank you for volunteering to take this survey!。 ☺

Part I. Please circle your answers。   **1. Male   Female**   Please write your answers.   **3. Age** _____

2. Have you ever studied abroad?   Yes   No

2a. If 'yes' to above: a) less than 1 year   b) between 1 and 2 years
                                    c) more than two years   **4. Year in school** _____

Part II. *Please tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by simply circling a number from 6 to 1. Please do not leave out any items.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Tend to Agree	Tend to Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Tend to Agree	Tend to Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
(Ex.) If you strongly agree with the following statement, draw a circle around the number:						
I like skiing。	⃝6	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Tend to Agree	Tend to Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I want to take a video-based class to learn speaking again.	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. I spoke more in this class than in usual English classes I had previously taken (including high school).	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. I am better at explaining myself in English after taking these video-based lessons	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. I controlled the direction of the discussions in the post-video speaking activities.	6	5	4	3	2	1
5. The topics of the videos were a challenge to speak about.	6	5	4	3	2	1
6. I helped my speaking partner with his/her English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
7. The videos were boring.	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. I used personal experiences as the theme in my post-video speaking activities.	6	5	4	3	2	1
9. I prefer English classes without video.	6	5	4	3	2	1
10. Even when I was unable to speak about the video or discussion questions in pairs, I continued to speak in English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
11. During speaking activities I discussed grammatical points with my partner.	6	5	4	3	2	1
12. My speaking partner helped me with my English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
13. I was able to speak at length about topics from the videos.	6	5	4	3	2	1
14. I spoke very little about themes related to the videos.	6	5	4	3	2	1
15. The videos inspired topics for discussion.	6	5	4	3	2	1
16. I felt comfortable when I helped my partner with their English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
17. In pair speaking, I used mostly Japanese.	6	5	4	3	2	1

Continued on Next Page ⟶

Continue here from the previous page. *Please tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by simply circling a number from 6 to 1.。* Please answer all of the questions.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Tend to Agree	Tend to Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Tend to Agree	Tend to Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
(Ex.) If you strongly agree with the following statement, draw a circle around the number: I like skiing。	6	5	4	3	2	1
18. I felt embarrassed speaking English to my partner at the end of the semester.	6	5	4	3	2	1
19. I am comfortable producing spoken sentences that may contain grammatical mistakes.	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. I felt comfortable when I received help from my partner with my English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
21. These video-based lessons caused me stress.	6	5	4	3	2	1
22. I could choose the topics for post-video speaking activities.	6	5	4	3	2	1
23. For speaking activities, I prefer to watch more videos about Japan.	6	5	4	3	2	1
24. I correct my own grammar when speaking.	6	5	4	3	2	1
25. By self-assessing my percentage of English after speaking activities I could better understand how much English I was speaking.	6	5	4	3	2	1

Part III. Please write your answers in Japanese

1。What did you like about the video-based lessons? Why?

2。How can these video-based lessons be improved?

☺　Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this survey!!!　☺

ver. e4

ABC **Topic Flow**

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101 R6 1221015_0051 Mike *ABC* Happiest person in America

Question 1
Everything about Alvin Wong put him in the category of happiest American. What do you think the happiest Japanese would look like? Do you think there are many differences between what makes people happy in the U.S. and in Japan?

Question 2
NOTE: Question 2 was modified by researcher to: Which countries in the world to you think are the happiest? Why do you think that might be so?

(Original question: Check the internet and find out which countries are said to be the happiest. Why do you think that it might be so?)

Teacher adaptation: Talk about when you're happy, or when you're not happy, ok? So, the topic is quite open, jut have a five-minute conversation [Instructions explained verbally to students].

Topic flow
clarifying prompts>happy people in Japan>unhappiness in Japan>personal happiness>personal unhappiness>personal opinions on school experiences>personal happiness>alcohol

---

102 R3 121018_0055 Becky *ABC* Mom's guilt

Question 1
NOTE: Question 1 was modified by researcher to: What percentage of women with children is working in your country? What has the trend been like over the past decade?

(Original question: What percentage of women with children is working in your country? See if you can find statistics going back over the past 50 years or so. What has the trend been like over the past decade?)

Topic flow Question 1
clarifying question prompt>working mothers>students' mothers' jobs>working mothers>reasons students' mothers work

Question 2
NOTE: Modified by researcher to: What kinds of support are available for working women in Japan? What options do working mothers have for childcare? Is the current situation satisfactory?

(Original question: What kinds of support are available for working women in Japan? What options do working mothers have for childcare? Is the current situation satisfactory? Talk to some working mothers and ask their opinions.)

Topic flow Question 2
clarifying meaning of question>types of support for working mothers>current support for mothers

---

Question 3
Should woman quit their jobs when they have children? Discuss the situation with your classmates.
Try to think of as many pro and con arguments as you can.

Topic flow Question 3
clarifying prompt>pros and cons of working mothers>metatalk evaluating their English> pro idea for working mothers

---

103 R2 121206_0075 Becky ADHD

Summary activity: In pairs have students summarize what they just saw in the video by discussing their answers to these questions: **"What was the video about?"** and **"What are your thoughts, feelings and opinions about the video contents?"** Give approximately 5-minutes for this activity.

Topic Flow for Summary activity
reading several lines from the textbook on ADHD>food dye>desire to move to next question>one-word summary of video theme

Question 1
How are your eating habits? What are some healthy foods that you eat regularly? Do you have any unhealthy eating (or drinking) habits? Do you ever think about changing them?

Topic flow Question 1
personal eating habits>unhealthy eating habits>healthy eating habits

Question 2 (skipped at request of researcher)
Original question: Are you aware of a problem with ADHD in Japan. Check the internet and see if you can come up with statistics on how common a problem it is in this country. Is it more common than in the past? How is it treated? Have there been any links to common foods, as in this news report?

Question 3
NOTE: Modified by researcher to: What kinds of things do you do now to stay healthy? What kinds of things would you like to do in the future to maintain your health?

Original question: In your opinion, should the government or FDA get involved in cases like this, or should people be responsible for their own health?

Topic Flow Question 3
clarifying question prompt>staying healthy

104 R3 121206_0078 Becky ADHD

Summary activity: In pairs have students summarize what they just saw in the video by discussing their answers to these questions: **"What was the video about?"** and **"What are your thoughts, feelings and opinions about the video contents?"** Give approximately 5-minutes for this activity.

Topic flow Summary activity
chemical colorings>Japanese food>ADHD joke>student's present emotional state

Question 1
How are your eating habits? What are some healthy foods that you eat regularly? Do you have any unhealthy eating (or drinking) habits? Do you ever think about changing them?

Topic Flow Question 1
eating habits > healthy food eaten regularly > unhealthy eating habits > healthy food > unhealthy food > changing eating habits

Question 2 (skipped at request of researcher)
Original question: Are you aware of a problem with ADHD in Japan. Check the internet and see if you can come up with statistics on how common a problem it is in this country. Is it more common than in the past? How is it treated? Have there been any links to common foods, as in this news report?

Question 3
NOTE: Modified by researcher to: If you have time have students discuss answers to these questions: What kinds of things do you do now to stay healthy? What kinds of things would you like to do in the future to maintain your health?

Original question: In your opinion, should the government or FDA get involved in cases like this, or should people be responsible for their own health?

Topic flow Question 3
nutrition>daily food plan>exercise>sleep schedule

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105 R4 121029_0097 Starflower Mom's Guilt

Question 1
NOTE: Question 1 was modified by researcher to: What percentage of women with children is working in your country? What has the trend been like over the past decade?

(Original question: What percentage of women with children is working in your country? See if you can find statistics going back over the past 50 years or so. What has the trend been like over the past decade?)

Question 2
NOTE: Modified by researcher to: What kinds of support are available for working women in Japan? What options do working mothers have for childcare? Is the current situation satisfactory?

(Original question: What kinds of support are available for working women in Japan? What options do working mothers have for childcare? Is the current situation satisfactory? Talk to some working mothers and ask their opinions.)

Question 3
Should woman quit their jobs when they have children? Discuss the situation with your classmates. Try to think of as many pro and con arguments as you can.

Topic flow
clarifying prompt #2>nursery school>reading prompt #2>money needed to raise children>reading prompt #2>nursery school>options for their discussion>reading prompt #2>money from government>parents' use of money from government>read prompt #3>difficulty of balancing work and child care>difficulty in quitting work>student's mothers life>read question prompt #3>clarify meaning of prompt>need for money to raise children.

DVDay **Topic Flow**

001 clarifying prompt>visiting Okinawa>experience in Hawaii>hometown oceans>eating fish>eating Okinawan food
      R1 121029_0062 Becky Miyakojima

002 clarifying prompt>Okinawan acquarium>experience in Hawaii>eating in Hawaii>eating plans in Tokyo>eating in Okinawa
      R3 121029_0062 Becky Miyakojima

003 video scenes of Detroit>travel hopes (USA)>travel experience in Australia>money (joke)>hunger> travel experience in Hawaii and Guam>family
      R1 121108_0063 Becky Detroit

004 Detroit>future travel in USA
      R3 121108_0063 Becky Detroit

005 Detroit>travel experience>learning French language>experience in France> French museum experience>eating French food
      R4 121108_0099 Becky Detroit

006. impressions of New York>experience skating>experience in winter>travel aspirations>favorite Korean music
      R1 121206_0075 Becky New York

007 favorite Cup Noodle flavor>experience ice skating>playing sports>membership in clubs>playing music>high school experience>commuting to university>friends>playing mandolin
      R2 121206_0073 Becky New York

008 New York>travel experience>friend in New York>visiting Korea>travel aspirations>instructions>English language study>Spanish language study>students' Spanish language teacher
      R3121206_0076 Becky New York

009 traveling to New York>travel experience>travel aspirations>future residences>future career>speaking foreign languages
      R4121206_0115 Becky New York

010 New York>travel experience>junior high experience>France experience>Korean experience>eating French food>eating Korean food>instructions>travel aspirations>boys>today's lunch>students' residences
	R5 121206_0067 Becky New York

011 Chicago>travel experience>travel to New York>no desire to visit Chicago> Chicago>instructions>music>student hometowns
	 R2 121210_0077 Becky Chicago

012 Chicago>general travel experience>experience in Thailand>instructions>experience in Thailand>eating foreign food: ramen>playing a musical instrument
	R3 121210_0080 Becky Chicago

013 sea swimming>opinion of ancient things>opinion on modern things>value of history>opinion on ancient things>instruction>school counseling on TOEFL>lighting in the video>New Year's sunrise in Japan>hunger>lunch plans>teacher attributes
	R1 121213_0080 Becky Brackish

014 Santorini video scenes>visiting Greek heritage sites>Spanish heritage site>location of Greece> instruction>experience at world heritage sites in Japan >Ise>opinions on food
	R2 121213_0078 Becky Brackish

015 instructions>churches>sea>summer>winter>emperor's birthday>instructions>emperor's birthday>emperor>royal family>emperor>celebrating the emperor's birthday>bathroom break>celebrating the emperor's birthday
	R3 121213_0081 Becky Brackish

016 Washington D.C.>travel: New York>desire to visit Washington D.C.>suitable partners for marriage>hunger>visiting Disney>instructions>winter holiday plans: attending music festivals>upcoming plans: attending a football game>upcoming plans: visiting Disney>homework>food
	R1 121220_0084 Becky Washington D.C.

017 The White House> monuments in Washington D.C.>instruction>Washington D.C.> studying English>practice for speech: living in India>living in Japan>comments on speech>living abroad>living in and visiting Japanese cities
	R3 121220_0085 Becky Washington D.C.

018 deciding on a topic>visiting Detroit>visiting New York>last night's party>visiting Chiba>invitation to Chiba>holiday plans>Daiki
	R1 121109_0066 Miho Detroit

019 impressions of Chicago>opinions on Ferris wheels>impressions of Chicago>opinion on Ferris wheels>comparing Chicago to New York>*Chicago* the Hollywood movie>speech contest
	R1 121214_0083 Miho Chicago

020 experience in Chicago>travel aspirations to America>comments on audio recorders>Chicago's location>students' feelings>student's new shoes>instructions>opinions on Ferris wheels (teacher mediated)> comparing Ferris wheels to rollercoasters>students' Christmas plans
	R2 121214_0081 Miho Chicago

021 visiting Chicago>art> visiting Chicago >opinions on music as art> Chicago lake culture>classmates' names >visiting Chicago>visiting foreign countries> visiting Chicago>urban v. countryside>modern art
       R3 121214_0084 Miho Chicago

022 Chicago car park>[unintl.]>visiting Chicago>[observer effect]>[speaking in Japanese] travelling abroad>comparing Chicago and Peking [teacher mediated]
       R5 121214_0077 Miho Chicago

Appendix K   Full-threads of *DVDay*

Full Thread Name	Theme	PVBS Beginning	PVBS Episode	Link to WGBS	WGBS Main Floor	WGBS Subfloor	FSA Link	FSA Use	Topic Theme
003-1 Becky Detroit	Hip hop	Sentence construction	n/a	Natural	Phrasal co-construction with teacher	rehearsal	lexical	-Phrasal uptake -Leads to learning opportunity in side sequence	More closely related
003-2 Becky Detroit	Dirty	PT1	n/a	Collab	co-const. with teacher	notices teacher build	lexical	-counter to interlocutor's opinion	More closely related
004-1 Becky Detroit	Church	Gap	-self-build -unresolved issue raised	Natural	-teacher corrective feedback -co-const. with teacher	nothing	lexical	-reason for visiting Detroit -negotiation	More closely related
004-2 Becky Detroit	Zou	Gap	-lexical meaning -phrasal/clausal construction	Collab	co-construction with teacher	-notices -repetition by both learners	lexical	use of new lexical item	More closely related
005-1 Becky Detroit	Statue	Gap	-repetition -spelling -phrasal construction -experiment with sentence construction	Natural	co-construction of sentence with teacher	-learner co-build of clause; reaches to co-build with teacher of sentence	lexical	use of new lexical item in context	Less closely related
006-1 Becky New York	Crowded	Experiment	phrasal rehearsal, repetition	Collab	Teacher co-construction	Nothing	lex/prop	lexical a phrasal use	More closely related
006-2 Becky New York	Advertisement	No gap	-self-repetition, self-building	Collab	-Negotiation with teacher -co-construction with teacher	Nothing	lexical	use in further constructions	More closely related
006-3 Becky New York	High buildings	Repetition	self-repetition, self building	Collab	-implicit teacher corrective feedback -teacher co-build	rehearsal to answer teacher question	lexical	built into a passive sentence	More closely related
006-4 Becky New York	Skating	No gap	repetition	Natural	implicit corrective feedback; 'rink' as a teacher co-construct; query to researcher; teacher review with more co-constructs	Writing sound as evidence of noticing	lexical	build into sentences	More closely related
007-1 Becky New York	golden statue (at skate rink)	Gap/co-construct	-Co-construct - repetition -Spelling	Collab	teacher co-const -query to researcher.	-prediction -phrasal repetition	lexical (rink) & Prop	Built into story on skating	More closely related
007-1a Becky New York	Skate jo, spinning, golden statue	Gap	-repetition -self-build	Collab	Teacher correction	-repetition -noticing -laughing	lexical	built into a sentence	More closely related
007-2 Becky New York	Cup noodles	Gap	-self-repair -questions pluralization	Collab	corrective feedback of pluralization from another learner	-noticing -spelling error	lexical	question to begin activity	More closely related
011-1 Becky Chicago	Monorail	Gap	-Comparison -Begins in Japanese	Collab	propositional: monorail in PVBS; lexical: 'train' from English on MF and Japanese in PVBS	Nothing	lexical from WGBS & Japanese	Built into a sentence	Less closely related
013-1 Becky Brackish	Beach swimsuit	Gap	-self-repair -repetition -confirmation	Collab; PT2 Natural	implicit correction -co-create with teacher based on the scene	noticing 2, repetition of teacher, laughing, major joke	lexical/ prop	used at a pivot	In transition from more closely related to less closely related
013-2 Becky Brackish	Ancient	Gap	-self-build -collaborative dialogue -partner encouragement -self-repair	Natural	-implicit corrective feedback -negotiation -recast and co-build with teacher -T gives examples	Noticing	lexical	Ancient places and things contrasted to modern things	Less closely related
014-1 Becky Brackish	*Isseki* (ruins)	Gap	-word meaning -partner looks up word as collaboration	Collab	-MF negotiation with teacher -recast by teacher -teacher builds with examples -teacher repetition 6x	-Noticing -repetition -co-const. for MF turn -picking up *girisha* for later from another dyad	Prop/lex	World heritage sites	Both more and less closely related
014-2 Becky Brackish	Beach/sea	Gap	-co-build -indefinite article	Collab	2) -neg -recast; 4 & 5) -recast -co-build -asks new question -recast -co-builds; 9) -repeats -positive feedback -co-builds; 11) -recasts -co-builds; 12) -recasts -explains -co-builds	2) -notice -repetition; 4&5) -repetition -engaged with question -translates new vocab -repetition 9) -notice; 11) N/A; 12) -relief -repetition -notice -apologizes -practices pronunciation -laughs	prop	talking about a place in Japan	Less closely related
014-3 Becky Brackish	Exotic	Gap	-asks about translation of word -asks about phrase	Natural	-corrective feedback -teacher explains and gives examples	-discuss issue from PVBS -repetition for pronunciation	lexical	-giving opinion on video	More closely related
014-4 Becky Brackish	Heritage	Gap	-confirmation of meaning -self-build in Japanese	Collab	-Teacher ties ruins with ancient with examples of world heritage sites	-Notice -this thread ties with 014-1	Lexical	world heritage sites	Both more and less closely related
015-1 Becky Brackish	Seawater	Gap	-repetition -translation -co-construct -vocabulary	Natural	evaluated by teacher - two comparisons by teacher	-co-construct and rehearsal prior to turn -repetition of evaluation -acknowledge teacher comparisons - repeat teacher turn	prop/ lexical	-leads to learning opportunity in new context	More closely related
015-2 Becky Brackish	Church	Gap	-phrasal co-construct -Vocabulary	Collab	Teacher repetition	-jointly choose offering -repetition	lexical	built into a context	More closely related

Appendix L   Summary of reliance on shared experience affordances and examples

	Recording	Activity	Thread Type	Participant	Theme	Intent
1	013 Becky Brackish	WGBS	Full	teacher	Sunbathing	Instructional
2	013 Becky Brackish	PVBS	Full	learner	Rock 'near the ocean'	Instructional
3	013 Becky Brackish	WGBS	Full	learner	Joke about sexy girls	Humor
4	004-2 Becky Detroit	PVBS	Full	learner	Hand 'toka' in reference to explaining objects	Instructional & Explanatory
5	014-3 Becky Brackish	FSA	Full	learner	These scenes in Turn 030	Explanatory
6	006-2 Becky New York	FSA	Full	learner	Many such advertisements in turn 025	Explanatory
7	006-2 Becky New York	WGBS	Full	teacher	Nasdaq>signboard>advertisement >Shibuya	Instructional
8	004 Becky Detroit	WGBS	PT2	teacher	Graffiti	Instructional
9	005 Becky Detroit	All threads	Full	learner	Statue in FSA solves a problem of what to call nike	Explanatory
10	013 Becky Brackish	WGBS	PT2	learner	Swimsuit	Instructional
11	014 Becky Brackish	WGBS	PT2	teacher	'You saw a man painting a house' from student. Teacher builds on the scene with 'painting it white'	Explanatory
12	014 Becky Brackish	WGBS	Full	teacher	The seawater, it makes you want to jump in	Instructional &Explanatory
13	014 Becky Brackish	WGBS	Full	teacher	Those ancient broken houses	Instructional
14	012 Becky Chicago	PVBS	NT	learner	Faces in fountain	Explanatory
15	005 WGBS Becky Detroit	WGBS	Full	teacher	Fountain – helps define fountain	Instructional

1. 013 WGBS R1 121213_0080 Becky *DVDay* Brackish Water
   MF = Main Floor (bolded)   SF = Sub-floor   OM = Off mic

```
034   T:  MF   ok next number four yes
035   OM: MF   there are many people in beach
036   R:  SF   ah iyuwarita ([we] said [that one])
037   L:  SF   mm (yes)
038   T:  MF   ok there are many people on the beach
039   OM: MF   on the beach
040   L:  SF   hum
041   T:  MF   there were many people on the beach and a lot of
               people were wearing swimsuits
042   L:  SF   [whispers] atta ([we] have it)
043   T:  MF   bikinis and swimsuits for for guys what are they
               doing
```

```
044   L:  SF  (laughs)
045   T:  MF  what were they doing?
046  OM:  MF  (unintl.)
047   T:  MF  what's that? What do you call that in English?
048   L:  SF  (laughs)
049   R:  SF  eh
050   L:  SF  ahh
051   T:  MF  anyone
052  OM:  MF  sunburn
053   T:  MF  they were sunburned no sunburned is
054   R:  SF  sunburned
055   T:  MF  the effect what happens to your skin when you stay
               in the sun on the beach
056   R:  SF  sunburned
057   T:  MF  you lie down and you let the sun
058   R:  SF  mmmm
059   T:  MF  um you you call that sunbathing ok so you say
               people were sunbathing
060   L:  SF  ehhh sunbathing [whispers]
061   T:  MF  sunbathing means they're letting their bodies soak
               up the sun ok
062   R:  SF  oh
063   L:  SF  ehhh [sound of writing]
064   T:  MF  so you can say I'm going to go sunbathing
065   R:  SF  sunbathing [whispering]
066   T:  MF  that means you're going to make yourself ah tan
067  OM:  MF  ah
068   T:  MF  by letting yourself stay where the sun can shine on
               you ok shine on you ok next yes
```

2. 013 PVBS R1 121213_0080 Becky *DVDay* Brackish

```
058  L:     ah there are many rock rocks
059  R:     rock?
060  L:     rocks ah stone with stone
061  R:     ah
062  L:     near near ocean
063  R:     many stone stone?
064  L:     ah many rock
065  R:     ro- ah yeah yeah
066  L:     many rocks near the ocean
067  R:     ocean many rocks rock how do you spell rock?
068  L:     ah
069  R:     rock rock ro-gu rock rock there rock
070  L:     mm
071  R:     do you know how rock was
072  L:     ah
073  R:     how
074  L:     I don't remember (laughs)
075  R:     mm yeah many rocks
076  L:     mm
```

3. 013 WGBS R1 121213_0080 Becky *DVDay* Brackish

165	L:	ah some people wear swimsuit
166	T:	some people
167	R:	ah
168	T:	swim suits
169	R:	(unintl.)it's time to say there is two there are two
170	L:	(laughs)
171	R:	(laughs)

Note: Final joke. Context of PVBS included in thesis body.

4. 004 PVBS All R3 121108_0063 Becky *DVDay* Detroit

001	F:	*oh ano* (ah that) object
002	M:	object *atteiru zou ga* (is good for statue)
003	F:	*mm* (yes)
004	M:	*mm* (yes)
005	F:	ah hand *toka* (for example)
006	F:	*eh a ja* (yeah well)
007	M:	*mm* (yes) object *nandarou* (what) object
008	F:	many objects no [particle marker] mm object ah *nandarou nantteiyu wakatta* (what how can I say I got it) *object mitai na* ([it] looks like)
009	M:	*katachi ga* (the shape)
010	F:	*katachi ga ah nandarou* (the shape ah what)
011	M:	many object
012	F:	*hito* (a person)
013	M:	*hito zou dayo ne* ([it] is a statue of a person right)
014	F:	*hito* (a person)
015	M:	br-bronze
016	F:	br-bron-bronze
017	M:	*hito zou* (a statue of a person) object
018	F:	object of (laughs) people object *de ii no kana ma ii* (is good I think good) object *tte kaiteoko* (let's write) object of people human human *to* (and)(unintl.) *ho ga ii kana* (is better I think)

5. 014 R2 121213_0078 Becky *DVDay* FSA Brackish

019	L:	how about you?
020	R:	I think *eto* (eh) this is huh where is this (laughs)
021	L:	where is this
022	R:	but I found it is Greece *girisha* (Greece)
023	L:	mm Greece *ka girisha tte* ([question marker] means Greece)
024	R:	it's very exotic
025	L:	mm
026	R:	so I think it's fun
027	L:	fun (laughs) mm why (laughs)
028	R:	why
029	L:	why (laughs) exotic *dakara ka* (that's why?)
030	R:	*un to* (eh) these scene cannot be find in Japan
031	L:	mm mm mm mm
032	R:	so it's fun
033	L:	mm

6. 006 R1 121206_0075 Becky New York *DVDay* FSA

```
016  M:      ah how ah what what ah how about you?
017  F:      mm (laughs)
018  M:      (laughs) do you do you want go New York?
019  F:      New York ah yes I I want New York mm because many
             nantoiyu (how can I say) many good place (laughs)
020  M:      (mm mm yeah)
021  F:      there is many good place and advertisement is many
             hum (mm) advertisement ga ippai (many
             advertisements)(laughs)
022  M:      (laughs)
023  F:      de un (and yeah) it is funny
024  M:      funny
025  F:      funny advertisements I want many such advertisement
026  M:      mmmm
```

7. 007 R2 121206_0073 Becky New York *DVDay* From Inqscribe

```
105  OM9:  MF   NASDAQ NASDAQ
106  T:    MF   How to you spell that? like that.
107  OM9:  MF   N-A
108  T:    MF   N-A gomen (sorry)let me go check your spelling
109  OMX:  MF   signboard
110  T:    MF   signboard the signboard is called NASDAQ
111  OM9   MF   NASDAQ
112  L:    SF   NASDAQ NASDAQ
113  T:    MF   is it one of those signs that you see on the wall?
                or ah sometimes they are also called advertisement
                like in Shibuya when you go to Shibuya there are
                lots of different types of of advertisement or
                signboards that you can see about different
                products different idols
114  L:    SF   idol (unintl.)
115  T:    MF   and famous people and those kind of things  ok
                next group
```

8. 004 WGBS Raw R3 121108_0063 Becky *DVDay* Detroit

```
009  MFS:  MF  ah scribbling scribbling
010   F:   SF  ah scribbling
011   T:   MF  like that
012   F:   SF  mm scribbling
013   T:   MF  scribbling
014  MFS:  MF  scr-scribling
015   T:   MF  ok
016   F:   SF  mm
017   T:   MF  or
018   M:   SF  (unintl.)
019   F:   SF  scribbling
020   T:   MF  or you mean on the wall ok you can also say ah those
                drawings on the wall are also called ah instead of
                scribblings or drawings you say graffiti
```

```
021  OMS: SF  graffiti
022   F:  SF  graffiti
023   M:  SF  ehh [surprise]
024   T:  MF  so iyu ne (said like that right) Kentaro
025   M:  SF  (laughs)
026   F:  SF  (laughs)
027   T:  MF  ok graffiti
028   M:  SF  graffiti
```

8b. 005-1 R4 121108_0099 Becky *DVDay* Detroit City

```
021  MFS: MF  ah scribbling scribbling
022   R:  SF  ahh (ahh)
023   L:  SF  ahh rakugaki (ahh graffiti)
024   R:  SF  rakugaki (graffiti)scribbling
025   L:  SF  hum (yes)
026   T:  MF  like that scribbling
027  MFS: MF  scr-scribbling
028   T:  MF  ok
029   R:  SF  scribbling
030   L:  SF  scribbling tte nani (what's [scribbling?])
031   R:  SF  scribbling rakugaki (graffiti)
032   L:  SF  rakugaki (graffiti)
033   T:  MF  or you mean on the wall
034   R:  SF  scribbling
035   L:  SF  ehhhh [in surprise]
036   T:  MF  you can also say ah those drawings on the wall are
                also called ah instead of scribblings or drawings
                you say graffiti
037  OMM: SF  graffiti
038   R:  SF  ah graffiti
039   T:  MF  so iyu ne (said like that right) Kentaro ok
                graffiti
040   R:  SF  graffiti
041   L:  SF  graffiti tte nani (what's [graffiti?])
042   R:  SF  rakugaki kabe no  (graffiti on a wall)
043   T:  MF  ok
044   R:  SF  kabe ni rakugaki suru koto (like to make graffiti
                on the wall)
045   L:  SF  ohhh (ohhh)
```

9.   005-1 R4 Becky Detroit (statue) FSA

```
169  L:      nike nike
170  R:      ah nike un wakaru (mm I understand) nike
171  L:      nandakke samutorakeno nike (how can I say Nike of
             Samothrace)(laughs) nandakke (how can I say)
172  R:      statue statue (laughs)
173  L:      statue statue (laughs) statue
174  R:      statue
```

10. 013 PVBS R1 121213_0080 Becky *DVDay* Brackish

```
102  L:       (laughs) um some people wear swim suit or
103  R:       swim?
104  L:       swim suit
105  R:       swim suits um hum wear some people
106  L:       some people
107  R:       ah mizu gi ne (ah a swim suit right)
108  L:       mm
```

11. 014 R2 WGBS Raw 121213_0078 Becky Brackish

```
072  T:    MF  [. . .] next how about the other yes
073  MF:   MF  the man painted house
074  T:    MF  the
075  MF:   MF  man painted house
076  T:    MF  the man
077  MF:   MF  painted
078  T:    MF  was painting a house very good you saw a man
                 painting the the walls of the house and painting it
                 white I think yes um the man (laughs) the man was
                 painting a house ok alright next group yes
```

12. 014 WGBS R2 121213_0078 Becky Brackish

```
075    OMMF:   MF   the sea water is clear
076    T:      MF   the seawater
077    L:      SF   tashika ni (for sure)
078    T:      MF   very good seawater is clear it makes you want
                      to jump in and swim all day because the day
                      was very nice it was a clear day and the water
                      was very clear unlike Tokyo water Tokyo water
                      is grey it looks nice at night ok next one
                      although Okinawa water is very clear too I
                      heard yeah ok next
```

13. 013 WGBS R1 121213_0080 Becky *DVDay* Brackish

```
099  T: MF  ok next yes
100  R: MF  there are some buildings like ancient broken house
101  T: MF  there are some buildings
102  R: MF  like like ah ancient broken house
103  T: MF  like ancient
104  R: MF  bro-broken house
105  T: MF  broken houses those um those ancient broken houses you
             can call ruins ok like ancient ruins sorry can you see
             it
106  L: SF  eh
107  T: MF  ok broken houses you or you can say ruins
108  L: SF  (unintl. whisper) [sound of pencil on paper]
109  T: MF  ancient ruins are what they call the really really old
             buildings or houses that were built a long long time
             ago
110  L: SF  eh
```

14. 012 PVBS All R3 121210_0080 Becky *DVDay* Chicago

```
021  L:      hum how about hum to have a idea
022  R:      mm to have idea
023  L:      other idea
024  R:      mm
025  L:      I forgot ah eh
026  R:      human face
027  L:      mm
028  R:      human faces
029  L:      what is that?
030  R:      ah women man ah
031  L:      sometimes change
032  R:      sometimes
033  L:      change
034  R:      change ah man and women face
035  L:      yeah
036  R:      face
037  L:      hum what what is that
038  R:      um
```

15. 005-1 WGBS Becky Detroit R4 121108_0099

129	OMF:	MF	fountain
130			[intentionally blank]
131	T:	MF	fountain
132	L:	SF	*mada han da* (half done)
133	T:	MF	ok this is what you've been
134	L:	SF	*ato youn-ju go-fun* (another 45 minutes)
135	T:	MF	asking earlier fountain fountain is a what's that word again
136	L2:	MF	*fun-funsui* (fountain)
137	L3:	MF	*funsui* (fountain)
138	L:	MF	*funsui* (fountain)
139	T:	MF	*funsui funsui* (fountain fountain)fountain ok
140	L:	SF	*doshio* (what should [we do])
141	T:	MF	what's in the fountain there was a statue right?
142	R3:	MF	water
143	T:	MF	there's water a statue
144	R3:	MF	statue
145	T:	MF	and the water's coming out of the statue
146	R3:	MF	up up up
147	T:	MF	ok how about other group

Appendix M   101 R6 1221015_0051 Mike *ABC* Happiest person in America (Whole FSA)

```
001  T:    so you can talk about you can use the questions on
           the board, or you can talk about when you're happy,
           or when you're not happy ok? so the topic is quite
           open ok open just have a 5 minute conversation.
002  L:    nan demo ii tomo shiawase ni tsuite (anything is
           fine related to happiness)
003  R:    honto dane (that's true)
004  L:    which people which purpose
005  R:    eh?
006  L:    do you think which people
007  R:    (laughs)
008  L:    (laughs)
009  R:    in Japan are happiest? (laughs)eh do ne eh eh
010  L:    I think ((pages flipping)) I um I think ah happiest
           people in Japan is
011  R:    mmm
012  L:    a person who
013  R:    mm
014  L:    received
015  R:    ahh
016  L:    a pension
017  R:    ah ok
018  L:    because ah they they have they don't have stress
           about a work and mmm their children is grown up so
           mm they live to own own life
019  R:    mm I think retired people
020  L:    mm
021  R:    is happiest
022  L:    mm
023  R:    because they don't work
024  L:    mm
025  R:    and um free
026  L:    mm
027  R:    so they can do mm they can (unintl.)
028  L:    hum?
029  R:    nan demo nan demo dekiru jiyu (they have the freedom
           to do anything)
030  L:    ev- everything
031  R:    eh (laughs) they can
032  L:    they do everything
033  R:    do everything
034  L:    mm
035  R:    so
036  L:    so
037  R:    they are
038  L:    they are
039  R:    happiest
040  L:    mm
041  R:    mm
042  L:    mm mm mm
043  R:    young people is not happiest
044  L:    yes ok me too
045  R:    (laughs)
```

```
046  L:      they they are eh they are des- they have, ah de they
             feel depression
047  R:      mm
048  L:      about school office
049  R:      ahhh
050  L:      and relationship other with other people
051  R:      mmmmm ((pages flip)) they are pressed by work
052  L:      mm
053  R:      or school
054  L:      mmmmmm
055  R:      anymore
056  L:      mm
057  R:      so they don't happy they are happy
058  L:      un
059  R:      they they aren't happy
060  L:      un
061  R:      un so da na  (that's right)
062  L:      are you happy?
063  R:      now?
064  L:      mm
065  R:      mm mm happy?
066  L:      happy  why?
067  R:      because
068  L:      (laughs)
069  R:      because mmmm because I finished
070  L:      un
071  R:      regular concert
072  L:      un un un un un un
073  R:      and I can asobutte nandake? (how do I say play?)
074  L:      play
075  R:      I can play
076  L:      un
077  R:      everything
078  L:      un
080  R:      for example eating eat dinner with my friend
081  L:      un
082  R:      uh mm play game
083  L:      uh
084  R:      (laughs)
085  L:      (laughs)
086  R:      mmm
087  L:      mm
088  R:      how about you?
089  L:      I'm happy (laughs)
090  R:      why?
091  L:      because I have a good friends and good good family
             and mmmm
092  R:      (laughs)
093  L:      (laughs) unn and ah I usually ah I I always eat food
094  R:      mmmm
095  L:      and wear cloth-es and uh money so I I'm happy
096  R:      (laughs)
097  L:      yeah
098  R:      mmmm
099  L:      (unintl. whisper)
```

```
100  R:    when you feel unhappy?
101  L:    eh part-time jobs my part-time jobs
102  R:    ahh
103  L:    very stress
104  R:    naruhodo (I see) (laughs)
105  L:    how about you?
106  R:    (laughs)  ahh mmm mmm can't
107  L:    mm
108  R:    can't eat food
109  L:    mm
110  R:    oh tabetai toki ni (when I want to eat) when I want
          to eat
111  L:    mm
112  R:    and relationship at mm school
113  L:    mm ah
114  R:    is unhappy
115  L:    but I mmm I feel school (laughs) is em eh school is
          enjoy eh school I like school
116  R:    Enjoy school?
117  L:    yes yes
118  R:    oh ala ma (um ah) I  enjoy school
119  L:    un
120  R:    but I'm very mmmm mmmmm
121  L:    so nanda (really)
122  R:    I'm very mmmm
123  L:    a kind of class is boring (laughs)
124  R:    ah yes yes ah trouble-ru-some [reading] troublesome
          troublesome
125  L:    ahh mm mm mm
126  R:    plus many
127  L:    school is I go to school for meeting with my friend.
128  R:    yes
129  L:    (laughs)
130  R:    me too
131  L:    (laughs)
132  R:    (laughs) I want to only talk with my friend in
          [school
133  L:    [un (laughs)
134  R:    (laughs)
135  L:    so, I if I don't have friend I (laughs) I can't go
          to (laughs) school.
136  R:    (laughs)
137        [pages flip]
138  L:    (whispers) nagai na nagai (This is long isn't it
          long)
139  R:    (unintl.)
140  L:    motto hai (more yes)
141  R:    mmmm
142  L:    mmmm to eto (ah)
143  R:    mmmm
144  L:    when do you feel happy recently?
145  R:    ummm eat delicious food
146  L:    un
147  R:    because I like
148  L:    when when
```

```
149  R:      when?
150  L:      when? (whispers) itsu taberu (when are you going to
             eat?)
151  R:      dinner itsu (when)
152  L:      yesterday dinner?
153  R:      yes yesterday (laughs)
154  L:      (laughs)
155  R:      yesterday's (laughs)
156  L:      un drinking party
157  R:      (laughs) drinking (laughs) party
158  L:      (laughs)
159  R:      (laughs) drinking
160  L:      un
161  R:      eat delicious food for example
162  L:      un
163  R:      kimuchi nabe (kimuchi stew)
164  L:      mm mm mm
165  R:      and pizza
166  L:      mm
167  R:      and fried chicken
168  L:      mm
169  R:      and potato
170  L:      mm
171  R:      any more
172  L:      any more
173  R:      yes
174  L:      do you like alcohol?
175  R:      yes
176  L:      (laughs)
177  R:      (laughs)
178  L:      do hum di did did you nanda? (what?) drink
179  R:      mmmm
180  L:      kind kind of alcohol?
181  R:      nan shuryui? dore kurai nandaka? (how many kinds?
             how much?)
182  L:      nani wo nondaka? (what did you drink?)
183  R:      mmmm beer
184  L:      what kind of alcohol?
185  R:      beer
186  L:      un
187  R:      and cocktail
188  L:      un
189  R:      and nihon shu? (Japanese sake)
190  L:      un Japanese alcohol (laughs)
191  R:      Japanese alcohol
192  L:      (laughs) yeah yeah yeah
193  R:      mm
194  L:      great
195  R:      great (laughs)
196  L:      great
197  R:      (laughs)
```

```
001  T:        ready go
002  R:        mm
003  L:        mm
004  R:        have you ever go to (laughs) Detroit City
005  L:        no (laughs) I never
006  R:        ah ja (ah how about) have you ever go abroad
007  L:        ah yes I have been to France
008  R:        eh ((surprised))
009  L:        and Korea
010  R:        eh ((surprised)) France
011  L:        ah mm
012  R:        when when did you go?
013  L:        I went to Korea ah jusan jusan sai jusan (13 13
               years old 13)
014  R:        jusan sai (13 years old)
015  L:        jusan nen (13 years) (laughs)
016  R:        jusan nen (13 years)
017  L:        ah mo (it's already [been]) fifteen (laughs) years
018  R:        (laughs)
019  L:        anno ne France (how about France)
020  R:        France
021  L:        France I went to France eh nanda kouni dakara ju-
               (well second grade of high school so) seventeen
022  R:        school trip
023  L:        un
024  R:        eh
025  L:        yes (laughs)
026  R:        pari (Paris)
027  L:        pari (Paris)
028  R:        oh
029  L:        Paris
030  R:        so you take French lessons ka [question marker]
               French
031  L:        ah so so so (ah yes yes yes) yes yes yes
032  R:        (laughs)
033  L:        yes yes yes yes now now
034  R:        ii na (good for you) I want to go France ii na eto
               ne (good for you eh well) how long
035  L:        ah
036  R:        do did you stay France?
037  L:        ah nantsuttara iindarou tabun (how can I say maybe)
               actually four days
038  R:        oh
039  L:        but eh yon huh ka yon haku huh yon (unintl.)  roku
               haku (four hum four nights hum four nights four six
               nights)
040  R:        eh roku haku (eh six nights?)
041  L:        ah chigau chigau chigau yon haku (ah no no no four
               nights)
042  R:        (laughs)
043  L:        are roku muikakan attan dakedo nanka hikoukino
               kankei de ko tomariga ookatta (there were six days
               but what including flight time)
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044  R:      ah (ah)
045  L:      (laughs) nantsuttaraiinda ichio muika kan (how can
             I say roughly six days) six six (laughs)
046  R:      (laughs) six nights
047  L:      six mm
048  R:      eto ja (well then) how long did you nanteiyunda
             (how can I say) did you ah take take plane
049  L:      take plane
050  R:      plane
051  L:      oh oh oh oh ah
052  R:      nan jikan (how long)
053  L:      thirty
054  R:      thirty (laughs)
055  L:      (laughs) thirteen
056  R:      thirteen (laughs)
057  L:      (laughs) thirteen
058  R:      thirteen
059  L:      ah moscoa (ah Moscow)
060  R:      oh (oh)
061  L:      um keiyu tte  nanteiyundaro um (how can I say via)
062  R:      um (um)
063  L:      um (um)
064  R:      toutta (passed) (laughs)
065  L:      su- su- (su su)
066  R:      through
067  L:      through through mosukuwa (Moscow) (laughs)
068  R:      (unintl.) mosukuwa wa eto (Moscow eh)
069  L:      through above (laughs) mosukuwa keiyu de nanka (via
             Moscow eh) (laughs)
070  R:      mosukuwa keiyu de (via Moscow) (laughs)
071  L:      tabun (maybe) I (laughs)
072  R:      eto ne eto (well eh well) mmm when did you go
             France ano nan gatsu nan gatsu nan (which month
             which month which)
073  L:      ah December
074  R:      December
075  L:      ah near my birthday (laughs)
076  R:      oh December
077  L:      ah some people um birthday (laughs)
078  R:      ah
079  L:      and ah Fr- atte sa chotto mata France jin tte sa
             eigo de nante iyu? (well how can I say French
             people in English)
080  R:      French
081  L:      French
082  R:      (laughs)
083  L:      francei nandayo fransugo ttesa (You say Francei in
             French) (laughs)
084  R:      (laughs)
085  L:      wakannaku nacchatta (I'm confused) French
086  R:      un
087  L:      French's
088  R:      French's
089  L:      French's
090  R:      French's (laughs)
091  L:      ah ce-celebrate
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092  R:      un un un
093  L:      their birthday
094  R:      oh
095  L:      celebrated their birthday
096  R:      party it's party
097  L:      oh cake cake
098  R:      oh
099  L:      (laughs)
100  R:      French cake (laughs)
101  L:      very delicious
102  R:      ah
103  L:      delicious delicious
104  R:      eh December ah was
105  L:      mecha (very) cold
106  R:      it cold ah
107  L:      mainusu nando (how many degrees below zero)
             (laughs) anno (ah) snow
108  R:      un un un (um um um)
109  L:      tsumotteru zaku zaku (covered with a lot of snow)
             (laughs)
110  R:      (laughs) zaku zaku akitayori samui kana (lots lots
             is it colder than Akita?)
111  L:      samui sugoku samukatta (It was cold very cold)
             Versailles and I went to
112  R:      mm
113  L:      Versailles
114  R:      eh ii na (eh that's great)
115  L:      nanda kyuuden tte nanteiyundaro (well how can I say
             palace) (laughs)
116  R:      kyuuden kyuuden (palace palace)
117  L:      Versailles
118  R:      Versailles
119  L:      but and to mo-mon huh (but gate huh)
120  R:      mon (gate)
121  L:      nandakke asoko sakurekuru sakurekurujiin tte
             shiranai ka (where was it Sacred Heart Sacred Heart
             temple [basilica] you don't know)
122  R:      wakara (I don't know) (laughs)
123  L:      jiin ga atte (Some temple [basilica]  was the
124  R:      mm (mm)
125  L:      orusei ano bijutsukantte (d'Orsay that museum)
126  R:      orusei (d'Orsay?)
127  L:      nanteiyu (How do you say [museum])
128  R:      eh art
129  L:      art
130  R:      art
131  L:      are (huh)
132  R:      nanteiyukke (how can I say)
133  L:      are are detekonakunacchatta (ah ah can't remember)
134  R:      museum hakubutsukan (museum) art eh nandakke (eh
             how can I say)
135  L:      art
136  R:      art
137  L:      museum (laughs)
138  R:      (laughs) tsutawaru (I understand) (laughs)
139  L:      um (um)
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140  R:      um (um)
141  L:      dorsay  (d'Orsay)
142  R:      mm (mm)
143  L:      ato nandakke are aitsu aitsu louvre louvre (what
             else ah that that Louvre Louvre)
144  R:      oh (oh)
145  L:      louvre (Louvre)
146  R:      it-itta no (have you been?)
147  L:      un (yes)
148  R:      monarisa (Mona Lisa)
149  L:      monarisa mita chichakatta (I saw the Mona Lisa [it]
             was small) small
150  R:      chichakatta eh so nanno nanka bon- (oh it was small
             what)
151  L:      garasu (glass)
152  R:      ah (ah)
153  L:      garasu (glass)
154  R:      (laughs)
155  L:      mona lisa broke
156  R:      (laughs)
157  L:      (laughs)
158  R:      eh (eh)
159  L:      kasha kasha (crash crash) (laughs)
160  R:      (laughs) sugoi omoshiroine omoshiroi hito dane
             (it's so funny you are such a funny person)
             (laughs)
161  L:      (laughs) sonnakotonaiyo futsuudayo (I'm not I'm
             normal)
162  R:      kasha kasha (crash crash) (laughs)
163  L:      kasha kasha um to ato nandakke nandakke ah mo-mon
             ma (crash crash eh and how can I say how can I say
             ah Mo-Mon Ma)
164  R:      mon (Mon)
165  L:      ma (Ma)
166  R:      ma (Ma) (laughs)
167  L:      nandakano nikeru (Nike something)
168  R:      nikeru? (Nikeru?)
169  L:      nike nike
170  R:      ah nike un wakaru (mm I understand) nike
171  L:      nandakke samutorakeno nike (how can I say Nike of
             Samutorake) (laughs) nandakke (how can I say)
172  R:      statue statue (laughs)
173  L:      statue statue (laughs) statue
174  R:      statue
175  L:      mm mm are mondainai (mm mm it's no problem) are
             sore chigau vinus sore (what that's not right that
             is Venus) (laughs)
176  R:      sore nike chigauwa (it's not Nike)
177  L:      nike ga hane hane (Nike has wings wings)
178  R:      Nike is Nike is a man
179  L:      man a man? oh hatsushiri (Oh [it's the] first time
             to know) (laughs)
180  R:      are are onnadakke iya (was it female no) man da
             (right)
181  L:      hum (hum)
182  R:      man man
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183  L:        ano nandakke kore tsubasa tte nante iyunda tsubasa
               tsuiteiruyona? (ah how can I say this how can I say
               wings? it has wings right?)
184  R:        nante iyu tsubasa? (how do you say wings?)
185  L:        like angel (laughs)
186  R:        like angel (laughs) like angel
187  L:        ah
188  R:        um
189  L:        ato ato nandaro (well well what else) but I don't
               like French food (laughs)
190  R:        eh
191  L:        abura (oil) oi-oily it's oily
192  R:        uso (are you kidding)  (laughs)
193  L:        oily very oily
194  T:        all right
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