

Young Boys and Girls Learning English as a Foreign Language: Teacher-Student Interactions in an English Immersion Kindergarten in Japan: Part 2

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The materials reported in this article are part of an MA dissertation in TESL/TEFL submitted to the University of Birmingham by the writer. This small case study attempts to examine the role of a Female teacher and the amount and type of attention she pays to her mixed-sex classroom of young Japanese learners in an immersion English kindergarten classroom. Methodologically, Sinclair and Coulthard's classroom discourse analysis framework, and Farooq's categories for analyzing gender-based classroom interaction were adopted and modified in order to analyze transcribed classroom data of the teacher-student interactions which were then coded into the designated categories. As the space in this article does not allow the entire dissertation of 265 pages, including transcripts and appendixes, the present report is focused on describing the details of the study, as well as to provide a detailed explanation of how data was collected, transcribed and analyzed.

3 The Study

3.1 The research site: Sequoia International Kindergarten

The first step in conducting this research study was finding a suitable research site. Sequoia International Kindergarten¹, a private school in Ichinomiya, Japan, permitted me to observe classes. I first discovered the school a year prior to this study when applying for a temporary substitute teacher position. I was impressed with the students' English proficiency at such a young age. The school is considered throughout the surrounding prefectures to be an excellent kindergarten that, in my experience, provides exceptional training to teachers as the curriculum is quite extensive. As it is a private school with high tuition rates, many of the students come from affluent families. There are some students with non-Japanese parents, though not in each year. The administration of the school was very supportive; after expressing my interests and intentions for research and promising to collect data in an ethical way by maintaining students' and teachers' anonymity through use of pseudonyms, I was granted allowance to execute this

¹ Note: The name of the school, the teachers, and the students have all been changed throughout the study to protect the identities of the participants.

study at Sequoia International Kindergarten.

Kindergartens in Japan are not compulsory, however as the birthrate declines and more women put off motherhood to work, enrollment has dwindled, forcing schools to become more competitive and find new ways of incorporating childcare and education (Nanakida, 2015). Currently more than 60% of kindergartens in Japan are private (MEXT, 2013). Unlike most Japanese kindergartens, which are three-year schools separate from the regular school system, Sequoia is a four-year school. While traditional Japanese kindergartens enroll students at age three when school starts in April, Sequoia starts one year earlier with the youngest students entering the ‘bumblebee’ class at age two. By the following April, every student in the bumblebee class will have turned three, and they start the following school years in the ‘ladybug’, then the ‘caterpillar’, and finally the ‘butterfly’ class, at the end of which all students will have turned six years old.

Sequoia is an English-immersion school. The kindergarten students study Math, English, Social Studies, Science, Art, and P.E. in English with their homeroom teacher: a foreign teacher. Japanese and music classes, each twice a week for thirty minutes, are conducted by a Japanese teacher in Japanese. The owner of Sequoia stated his beliefs that “the most important period of students’ education begins in their early formative years. This idea is commonly accepted by education professionals. But in most countries, the introduction to subjects like math, science, social studies, etc. doesn’t begin until elementary school” (email correspondence). He believes that students should learn English through the study of these subjects along with other experiences designed to give them the “knowledge and skills [...] needed to function at fluency level” (ibid). It is these beliefs that influenced him to build the school and develop the curriculum at Sequoia.

There are roughly 100 students enrolled in Sequoia, with two classes for each year, and between 10 and 15 students in each class. Sequoia initially was opened as a private eikaiwa, with after-school classes for elementary students. The kindergarten has been in existence for 8 years and currently employs 20 foreign and Japanese staff, including 8 homeroom teachers, most of whom are American, Canadian, or Australian.

3.2 Participants: The teacher

The teacher, referred to as ‘Miss T’, or simply ‘T’ in the transcripts (see Appendix III-VII), is a twenty-eight-year-old American female. She has worked full-time at Sequoia for four years, and has lived in Japan for five. She is currently teaching the ‘caterpillar’ class (year 3 kindergarten). Before teaching at Sequoia, she taught for one year at an eikaiwa in Japan. Miss T earned an undergraduate degree in visual communications before coming to Japan. She has no teaching certification and had no experience teaching before coming to Japan. She expressed an interest in my research and was willing to have her lessons observed and video recorded for the purposes of exploring teacher-student interaction. The school administration was also in full support of the study. I observed three mornings in September and another

two mornings in early November for a total of 4 mornings. Each morning was 4 hours in duration; hence, I gathered 16 hours of classroom data.

The caterpillar class has two teachers, Miss T, with her eleven students (4 female, 7 male) and also a male teacher with twelve students (4 female, 8 male). I initially intended to observe and compare both teachers, however on one of the days that I went to Sequoia for observation, the male teacher could not come to school, and on another day, there was difficulty with the camera and the students could not clearly be seen, so the video was discarded. Once the transcriptions were made and the analysis process began, it was realized that to analyze both teachers would have been too complicated and time consuming. Also, Miss T seemed more willing and interested to participate in this research project.

3.3 Participants: The students

The participants for this study were 11 children (4 girls and 7 boys) in the caterpillar class of the kindergarten. All of the children were 4 or 5 years old at the time of data collection. Most of the students have attended Sequoia since the ‘bumblebee’ class, making this their third year. No preliminary test was conducted to evaluate the students’ proficiency level; however, I observed that the children were able to understand the teacher, even when confronted with complex speech, and the teacher could easily conduct the entire class in the target language. The students could speak in a way that was comprehensible and appropriate to the context of the lesson. According to the TESOL Language Proficiency Levels for PreK to 12th grade learners of English (TESOL, 2006), I would rate the students somewhere between Level 3-Developing and Level 4- Expanding.

4 Methodology

4.1 Observing and recording the lessons

In recent decades, many observation schemes have been developed to record and analyze interaction and behavior in classrooms. One of the most well-known, and a “pioneer” (Stern, 1992: 49) for the development of similar analytical systems, is the FLINT observation system which Chaudron (1988: 32-33) describes in detail. Other systems include COLT, MOLT, FOCUS, SCORE and others that are described by various researchers (see Chaudron, 1988; Dörnyei, 2007; Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Many of these observation schemes are extremely difficult to employ as they include numerous categories, some requiring coding in real-time, which requires professional training. Using a published coding system can also have disadvantages, for example having preselected categories, some of which might not be relevant to the researcher’s objectives. Additionally, some require users to code behaviors in timed intervals, consequently what happens in the intervening time may be discarded (McDonough and McDonough,

1997).

In order to replicate Farooq's (2010) data analysis methodology, I decided rather than employing an observational scheme, to instead investigate classroom interactions through textual analysis of transcripts obtained by video and audio recording the lessons. While collecting this kind of ethnographic record proved to be extremely tedious and time-consuming, it has many advantages. Firstly, it allows “structures to emerge from the data rather than being imposed on them” (Nunan, 1989:89). Secondly, having a record of spoken data can later be used to support and justify findings. Finally, once a transcript has been made, “it can be tested against other observational schemes, and, for an unskilled researcher trying to come to grips with clarifying unfamiliar concepts in a systematic way, help guide the process of the research” (Farooq, 2010:29).

The classroom was set up in a traditionally teacher-centered manner. The students were divided among two tables with boys and girls at both tables. However, three of the four girls were at one table, and only one at the other. During the teacher-fronted discussions, the students would position their chairs to face the teacher and the whiteboard at the front of the class. There was also an “All About Today” chart on the left wall for the teacher and students to consult when discussing the date, weather, etc., during the ‘morning activity’. On the right wall were the students cubbies where they keep their jackets, lunch sets, and back-packs, and above those were displays of students’ artwork, a map of the world, and a bookshelf with English storybooks which students would read between lessons, or after finishing assignments.

For the recording, two small voice-recorders were placed at opposite ends of the classroom near each of the tables. At the front of the room, behind the teacher, a small video recorder was placed on the teacher’s desk, facing the class so that all of the students could be viewed. This proved to be adequate observing when students raised their hands, or made unsolicited contributions. Both the teacher’s and students’ voices could be heard clearly in the video recording, however the audio recordings were also useful for deciphering voices of quiet students, and when it was noisy or multiple students were talking.

At the beginning of the first lesson, I was introduced to the students by the teacher. In order to gain the cooperation of the students, they were told that I was watching the teacher and that they were not to interact with me during lessons. One problem was encountered during the observation that might have affected the data. At times not all students could be seen in the video recording because, for example, the teacher may have walked in front of the recorder. In those instances, students raising their hands were marked as ‘Ss: [raise hands]’ without names included.

4.2 Transcribing the data

I visited the school to observe and record lessons on four separate occasions for about 3 to 4 hours each time. I did not observe the music or Japanese lessons taught by the Japanese teachers, or P.E. classes, as they were taught outside along with the other caterpillar class, or the art classes, as those were generally noisy and it was too difficult to pick up the audio clearly. There were also instances where students

were being tested or given individual or group assignments which were also not recorded. I informed the teacher that I was interested in collecting data on the teacher-led classroom discussions in order to study the patterns of teacher-to-student and student-to-teacher interactions, and whenever possible she tried to conduct the class in a way that made this possible. I collected 5 transcripts of various lengths and in various subjects totaling 76 minutes of transcribed data.

Shortly after recording the lessons, I edited the audio and video files and transcribed the classroom discussions. The teacher was very supportive and kindly agreed to review the transcriptions with the video recordings in order to confirm that all of the utterances were correct, as well as to help clarify any incoherences.

4.3 A brief background and description of the employed version of the Sinclair-Coulthard classroom discourse analysis model

Discourse Analysis is a relatively new discipline. Although its origins can be traced back to ancient times with the study of language, literature, and public speech, the contemporary emergence of the field now called Discourse Analysis (DA) only truly started to develop in the mid 1960's (van Dijk, 1985). While DA is concerned with the description and analysis of both spoken interaction as well as written texts, many have emphasized the importance of a focus on conversation in order to better understand "what language is and how it works" (Firth, 1935, cited in Coulthard, 1985:1). Recent developments in computer and audio technology have allowed for the collection and storage of extensive quantities of spoken data, the analysis of which can help us to become aware of distinctions in spoken and written grammar (McCarthy and Carter, 1995).

Halliday (1961, reprinted in Halliday, 2002) described grammar using a hierarchical rank scale, identifying morpheme as the smallest unit, and sentence as the largest. Based on this rank scale, Sinclair et al. (1972, cited in Coulthard, 1985:120) and Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, cited in Coulthard, 1985:120) designed, and later modified (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992), an analytic system for "investigat[ing] the structure of verbal interaction in classrooms" (Coulthard, 1985:120). In this model, *lesson* is the "highest unit of classroom discourse, consisting of one or more *transactions*" (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992:4). Transactions are comprised of *exchanges*, classified as *Boundary* or *Teaching*, which are in turn comprised of *moves*. Boundary exchanges consist of *framing* and/or *focusing* moves, and Teaching exchanges consist of *opening*, *answering*, and *follow-up* moves which realize the elements of exchange structure, identified as *Initiation* (I), *Response* (R), and *Feedback* (F). Moves are in turn comprised of the lowest unit: *act* (see Appendix I)

Coulthard and Brazil (1981 and 1995), modified the model by renaming the moves in Teaching transactions to *eliciting*, *informing*, and *acknowledging*, and creating an additional element of exchange, *Response/Initiation* (R/I), thus extending the exchange structure to I (R/I) R (Fn) where the elements in parenthesis are optional and F can occur multiple times, therefore represented as Fn. Also, the "one-to-one

correspondence between move and exchange [was] abandoned” (Francis and Hunston, 1992, p.124) so that the elements I, R/I, and R may be realized by two moves and F by a single move. Finally, decisions about the final utterance of an exchange (at R or F) “may be made on the grounds of intonation, or according to the type of information being sought or given” (ibid, p.124, see also Brazil, 1981; Brazil 1997, p.40-66).

In adopting the revised (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992) model with modifications by Coulthard and Brazil (1995), Farooq (2010), rationalized his decision to employ this method of analysis for various reasons. One being that the use of an established analytical framework provides a guiding scheme that will make it easier to “arrive at categories with confidence” (ibid, p.32), as well as make it possible to “develop a general framework that can be utilized by the writer or other researchers for future studies” (ibid, p.32). He also points out the reliability and applicability of the model for use in studies on ESL/EFL classroom interactions (see Hewings 1992; D. Willis, 1992, J. Willis, 1992; Chaudron, 1977; Tsui, 1985; and Cheetham, 1998). I would justify my decision to adopt and modify the revised Sinclair-Coulthard model, along with the associated coded categories developed by Farooq (2010) (discussed below), by pointing out that he successfully employed the model for analysis of a teacher’s interactions with male and female students in an EFL classroom of Japanese learners.

4.4 Fitting the transcribed data in to the analysis model.

Based on Farooq’s (2010) representation of the revised (Sinclair and Coulthar, 1992) and modified (Coulthard and Brazil, 1995) hierarchical system, the following figures (Figures 4.2.1-4.2.5) “present a diagrammatic representation of a framework developed to code various categories of the transcribed data of the current study by merely dividing moves at slots I, R and F” (Farooq, 2010, p.34). Teacher’s moves were coded at the end with a reference to whom the move was directed to: a boy (B); a girl, (G); or the whole class, (C), (e.g. eliciting-B/G/C or directing-B/G/C). Responding moves by the students were also coded with the same letters at the beginning of the move title (e.g. B/G/C-informing).

The acts (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992, p.19-21) are summarized in Appendix I for reference during the analysis. As suggested by Coulthard and Brazil (1995, p.72), the act ‘reply’ is not included, and is instead realized as ‘informative’. Also, Farooq (2010) adopts Francis and Hunston’s (1995) terminology regarding ‘directing (I)/behaving (R)’ moves, “a responding move realized by the act ‘rea’ was named as a ‘reacting’ move” (Farooq, 2010, p.34).

With regards to modifications of my own to the Sinclair and Coulthard model, I adopted the act ‘reject’ (not included in Figure 4.2.3; included in Figure 4.2.5 below, and Appendix I) from Francis and Hunston’s (1992) adaptation of the Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) model for conversational analysis. In the Francis and Hunston model (1992, p.132), ‘reject’ is realized by both verbal and non-verbal items. For this study, it seemed useful to employ it for instances when the teacher rejects student bids:

example 1² : Appendix IV, exchange: 119

Shuji	[raises hand]	b
Ss	[incoherent counting, chatting]	
T (I)	Okay, just a minute, Shuji	rej

and for instances when the teacher rejects a student's unsolicited contributions (for which the codings will be discussed in the following section):

example 2: Appendix III, exchange: 15

Mie (I)	I know one more buuuuut...	i
T (F)	Nkay. Thats fine	rej

example 3: Appendix III, exchange: 25

Satoko (I)	flowers—	i
T (F)	—raise your hands	rej

In the Frances and Hunston (*ibid*) model, reject realizes “the head of an informing move at R/I or R (Elicit exchange)”, however as the structure of a Pupil Inform exchange is I F (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992:28), and F is always realized by an acknowledging move (Coulthard and Brazil, 1995:73), reject, in the present study, realizes the head of a teacher informing move at I in the case of a rejected bid, or it realizes the head of an acknowledging move at F in the case of a rejected unsolicited student contribution. The act's function is to indicate unwillingness to allow a student to contribute to the discourse. It seemed odd that the Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) model did not account for this type of interaction. They do, however, mention that an “initial bid may be countered with a ‘not now’ or ‘just a minute’ and the exchange never gets off the ground” (*ibid*, p.27), although they do not give instructions for how to label such incomplete or non-exchanges.

Another modification that I made to the Sinclair and Coulthard (*ibid*) model, for the purpose of this study, was to include a bound exchange called ‘Reciting’ (see Figure 4.2.1 below). In many EFL/ESL classes, a teacher will direct the students to ‘repeat after me’ and then give a word or list of words as models for the students to repeat. The new form for this type of exchange is given the structure I R (F) Ib R (F), where the initial I and the Ib are realized by the head act ‘direct’ - usually a single word or group of words to be repeated by the students at R, realized by the head act ‘react’, thereby also modifying ‘react’ as to include linguistic actions when the teacher directs the students to speak.

² The following examples are from the transcripts of the current study. It may therefore be useful to first consult the ‘Key to Symbols’ table (Appendix II) to better understand the examples.

Example 4: Appendix VI, exchange: 98a-c

T (I)	So lets practice them one more time [...]	
	Ready?	
	First one is plain.	d
Ss (R)	Plain.	rea
T (F)	Good.	e
T (Ib)	Hills.	d
Ss (R)	Hills.	rea
T (Ib)	Lake.	d
Ss (R)	Lake.	rea

It was somewhat surprising that this type of interaction was also not accounted for in the Sinclair and Coulthard model, as reciting is a common occurrence in classroom discourse.

Furthermore, video collection was employed in the data collection, and I was therefore able to collect and analyze data on student bids (see Appendix I). These acts were included in the analysis in order to analyze both verbal (e.g. “I know”, “Miss T”) and non-verbal (raising hands) bids in the discourse. As previously mentioned in the above review of literature, Kelly (1988) found that girls raised their hands more often than boys, implying that they were willing but not allowed to participate as often as the boys, who frequently called out without bidding. Therefore, collecting and analyzing this data would help to answer the implications question of this study.

Using the definitions given above, as well as in Appendix I (acts), the transcripts and video were used to enter the the collected data into the above described Sinclair and Coulthard analysis model (see Appendix III-VII). After this was completed, I went back and coded the moves of each participant (also in Appendix III-VII), according to Farooq’s (2010) codings for analyzing teacher’s attention to boys and girls in the classroom. The adoption and modification of these codes will be discussed in the next section.

Figure 4.2.1: A remodeling of Sinclair and Coulthard’s hierarchical system: Types of exchanges, and their general internal structure (es2): I (R/I) R (F) with regards to moves between the teacher (T) and a boy (B), a girl (G), or the whole class (C)

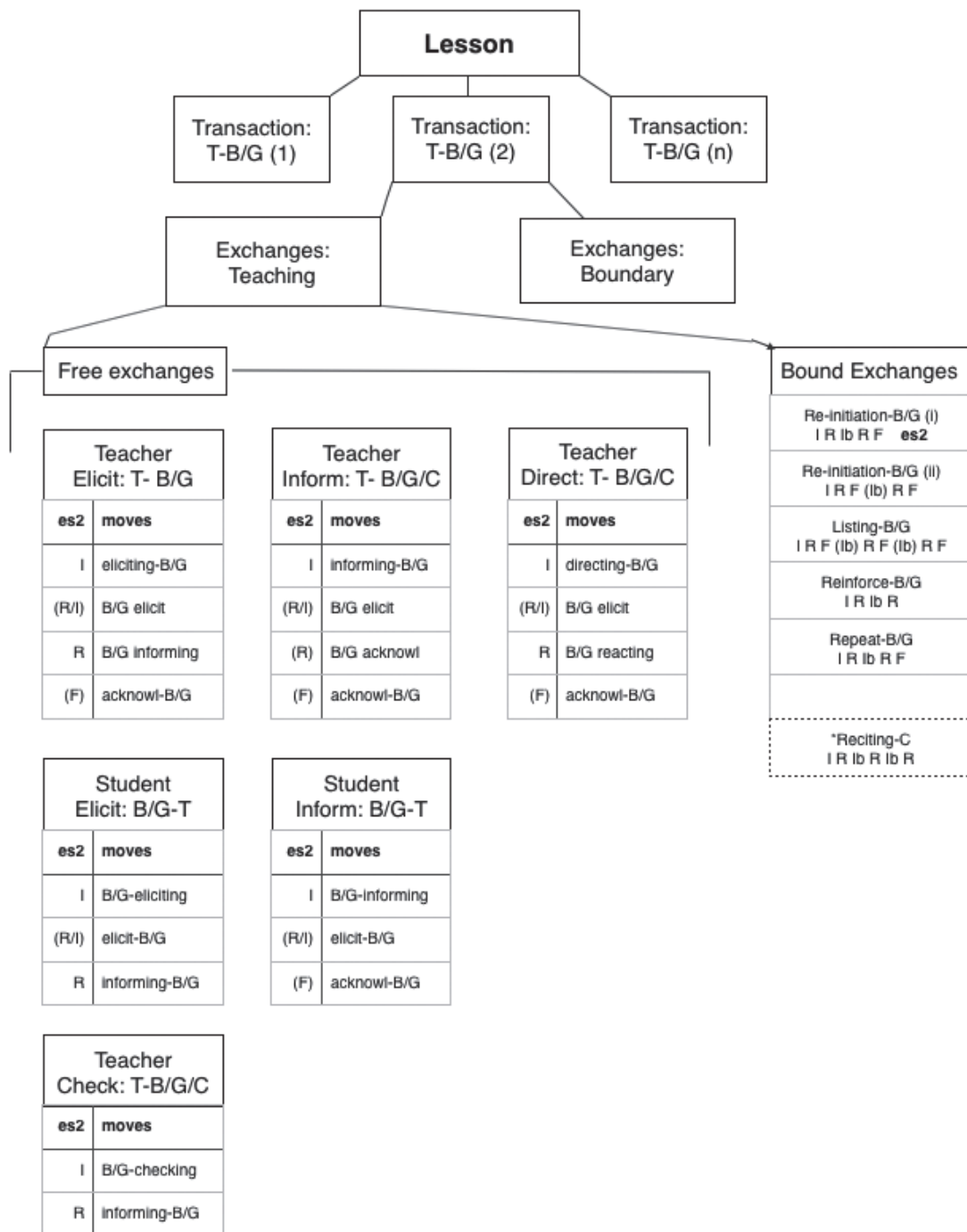


Figure 4.2.2: A remodeling of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical system: Framing (Fr) and focusing (Fo) moves and their internal structures (es1) in terms of acts (see Appendix I)

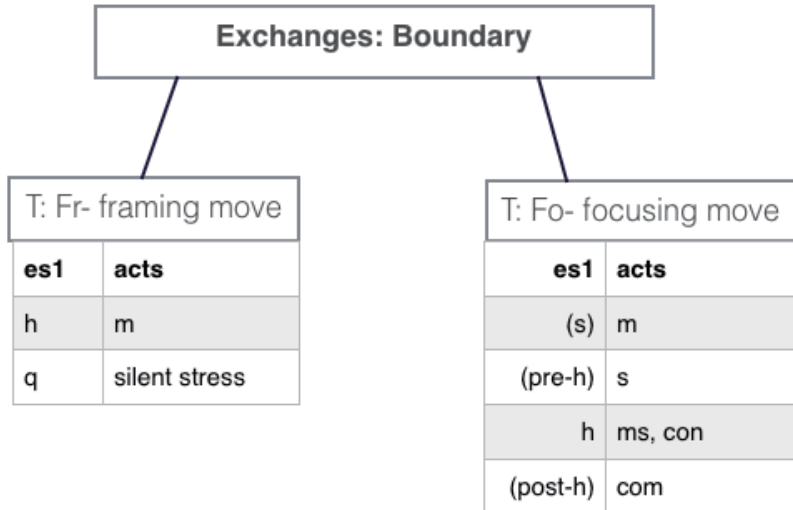


Figure 4.2.3: A remodeling of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical system: Teacher (T) and student (S) Initiating moves and their internal structures (es1) in terms of acts (see Appendix I)

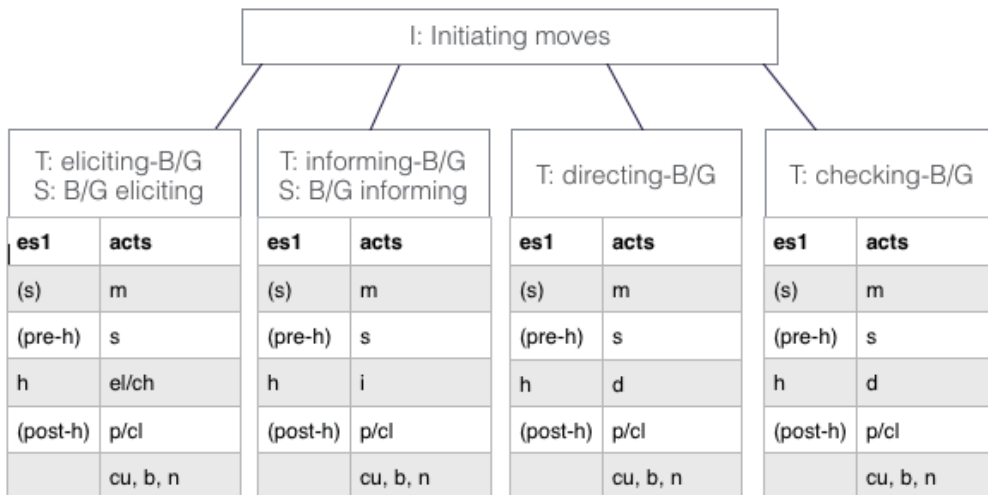


Figure 4.2.4: A remodeling of Sinclair and Coulthard’s hierarchical system: Teacher (T) and student (S) Responding moves and their internal structures (es1) in terms of acts (see Appendix I).

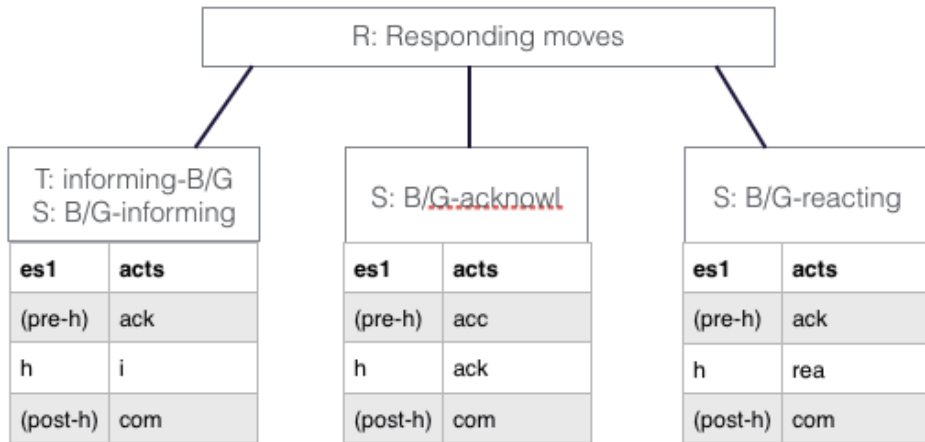
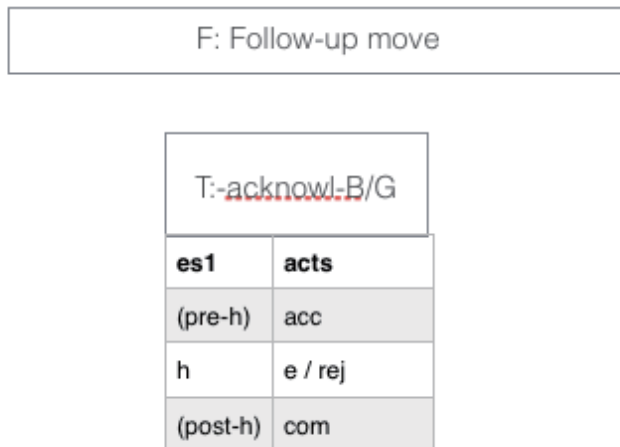


Figure 4.2.5: A remodeling of Sinclair and Coulthard’s hierarchical system: Teacher’s Follow-up move and its internal structure (es1) in terms of acts (see Appendix I).



4.5 Employing the codes for the study of gender differentiated treatment in the classroom

This section describes the coding and analysis of the teacher's initiating and follow-up moves, regarding her questions and feedback to male and female students, as well as students' initiating and responding moves.

4.5.1 Teacher's initiating moves

In adopting with the above described analysis model, the teacher's moves at I and Ib were categorized as either eliciting, informing, directing, or checking, according to how they were realized by their head acts (see Figure 4.2.3). Teachers moves were coded according to who the move was directed to, or who was nominated to respond to it: a boy (B), a girl (G), or the class (C), preceded by a coding to describe it as either academic (AC) or non-academic (NA), following Farroq's definition that "any move which was not clearly concerned with the contents of the lesson or its procedure was regarded as NA" (ibid, p.38). Examples from the transcripts are given below.

Example 5: Appendix IV, exchange 132a

T (I)	Did you figure it out Mie?	eliciting-G	ACG
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Example 6: Appendix IV, exchange 37a

T (I)	...Are you okay, Shuji?	checking-C	NAB
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Example 7: Appendix III, exchange 5

T (I)	Are we ready to start?	checking-C	ACC
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Only the first initiation with a student was coded as AC or NA. Subsequent bound interactions, such as Re-initiations in the form of clarification requests (CL) or further elicitation after errors (EE) were not coded as AC or NA. The reason for this is so that I could have an accurate idea as to how frequently the teacher *initiated exchanges*, no matter how long, with each student.

One item was included to the original Farroq (2010) codes for teacher's initiations. The item, 'reprimand' (REP) (see Appendix II), was added for the purpose of coding teachers moves at I. The reason for including this code was to account for instances where the teacher, at I, reacts to a student's behavior, sometimes by simply stating the student's name. Having this code would also make it possible to identify differences in non-academic moves.

4.5.2 Teacher's questions

Eliciting and checking moves at I and Ib (often realized by a nomination) were “considered receptively” (Farooq, 2010 p.39) and coded as closed (CQ) questions, regarded as ‘yes and no’ questions, and open (OQ) questions, regarded as ‘wh questions’ (e.g. what, who) . They were also multi-coded as display (DQ) and referential (RQ) questions. Farooq, (ibid) adopted an modification to the Sinclair and Coulthard model, suggested by D. Willis (1992), that the act ‘acknowledge’ be accepted as a head act in a follow-up move of an eliciting exchange. In doing this, display and referential questions could be coded by examining the head act (‘evaluate’ and ‘acknowledge’ respectively) of the acknowledging move at F. Checking moves were regarded as referential questions as they “are real questions to which the teacher does not know the answer” (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992). Questions in eliciting exchanges with no Follow-up move were coded as DQ or RQ according to context.

In addition to the above codes, detailed in Farooq’s (2010) analysis, I also included coding for procedural questions (PQ) . Eliciting moves at Ib in bound exchanges were also coded. Eliciting moves to a new student at Ib in Listing and Re-initiation exchanges with the head act of either ‘elicitation’ or ‘nomination’ were given codes from the original question at I (AC/NA, DQ/RQ, CQ/OQ). Eliciting moves to a student at Ib in Re-initiation exchanges that follow said student’s error, and have a head act of ‘elicitation’ were coded as “EE” (Elicitation after an Error) as well as given DQ/RQ and CQ/OQ codes (e.g. Appendix IV, exchange 141d). Eliciting moves at Ib in a Bound-Repeat exchange with the head act “L” were coded as clarification requests (CL) (e.g. Appendix III, exchange 57b, c) which will be further explained with teacher Follow-up moves, below. Finally, regarding the teacher’s question modification techniques, if a teacher repeats or rephrases a question in an exchange, it is coded (QR).

All of the above codes are followed by a code for male (B) and female (G) students as in examples 5 through 7 above.

4.5.3 Teacher's Follow-up moves

In his analysis of teacher follow-up moves, Farooq (2010) gives codes for two elements of teacher feedback: affective and cognitive feedback, using the definitions proposed by Vigel and Oller (1976; cited in Brown, 1994). He employs Chaudron’s (1988) classification of negative and positive affective (-/+AF) and cognitive (-/+CF) feedback, including neutral affective feedback (NAF) (see Appendix IV, exchanges 55 and 60). Although Brown (2007, p.271) states that cognitive feedback can also be neutral, it was not included as an adaptation to the coding.

Some additions to these codes were made. Positive affective (+AF) and negative affective (-AF) feedback were multi-coded with the items of teacher ‘praises or encourages’ (PE) (e.g. Appendix III, exchange 7b), ‘criticisms of responses’ (CR) (e.g. Appendix IV, exchange 86b) and ‘criticisms of behavior’ (CB) (e.g. Appendix IV, exchange 24), included from the FLINT system (see Chaudron, 1988, p.32). Also

from the FLINT system were codes for when a teacher repeated a student's correct response verbatim (RV) (e.g. Appendix IV, exchange 4), which were multi-coded with positive cognitive feedback (+CF). Negative cognitive feedback (-CF) was also multi-coded in order to include instances where corrective feedback was employed by the teacher. Six types of corrective feedback, identified by Lyster and Ranta (1977, outlined in Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p.104; see also Ellis, 2001; Lyster, 2004; Panova and Lyster, 2002), were identified and given codes for use in the analysis. This includes codes for explicit correction (EC) (e.g. Appendix IV, exchange 128a), metalinguistic feedback (ML) (e.g. Appendix VII, exchanges 14f and 51a), recasts (R) (e.g. Appendix VII, exchange 50), and repetition of the student's error with a questioning intonation (RE) (e.g. Appendix III, exchange 50b). Two more corrective feedback items (ibid, p.105), elicitation after an error (EE), and clarification requests (CL) were coded at Ib (see section 4.3.2), and therefore not reported with a '-CF'. Including codes for these types of corrective feedback appeared useful in analyzing the quality and type of teacher attention in the form of feedback, as Sunderland (2000a) emphasizes considering *kind* of attention, as opposed to only quantity, while stating that "a quantitative approach [...] still has value, if the analysis of classroom language is at high levels of specificity" (ibid, p.164).

All of the above mentioned codes for the teacher's follow-up moves were preceded with a code for male (B) and female (G) students as in examples 5 through 7 in section 4.3.1 above.

4.5.4 Student's Initiating and Responding moves

Following Farooq's (2010) analysis, moves by students were coded according to language used by students: English (RE), Japanese (RJ), and moodless items (RMI). In Farooq's study, the 'R' in the codes refers to the student *responses*, however the codes employed in this study were for both initiating and responding moves by the students, and therefore the 'R' refers to *remarks* made by a students at both slot I and slot R. It should be noted that codes for student remarks in english, as well as a teacher's repetition of an error with a questioning intonation have the same code (RE), however it is easy to distinguish the two, as the former is *preceded* with a code for gender (e.g. GRE) and the latter is *followed* by a code for gender (e.g. REG).

I also adopted the codes for AC and NA (detailed above), however in the case of student moves the coding for gender is located to the left. Also included is a code for solicited (S) and unsolicited (U) moves which were coded using students' bids and teacher's nominates (see Appendix I). Final codings were four letters (e.g. GSAC, meaning a girl (G) makes a solicited (S) academic (AC) move; BUNA, meaning a boy (B) makes an unsolicited (U) non-academic (NA) move). Using these codes help to answer both the general comprehensive and implications questions of this study by making it possible to investigate how the teacher treats unsolicited moves by girls and boys (section 5.4.1).

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