

Triadic Interaction in Young Learner EFL Classrooms: Virtual Windows of Opportunity

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Abstract

There are scores of young EFL learners who struggle with English all across the globe. One approach to resolving this problem is to engage these learners in triadic interaction. As defined in this thesis, triadic interaction is the interaction between teacher, learners and audio-visual, computer-based activities presented on a screen. An attempt is made to document, analyze and interpret this form of interaction in a Korean young learner EFL context using a competitive game lesson format. Further, the learners themselves were consulted, employing a questionnaire, in order to elicit their opinions regarding triadic interaction and competitive games. While the results are mixed regarding actual observed triadic interaction, the learners in this study expressed positive views in terms of engaging in computer screen competitive game lessons. Further research models are suggested and concluding remarks on the complexity of the research model are offered.

Keywords: computer-based, young EFL learners, triadic interaction

This paper is dedicated to Leo van Lier.

His innovative ideas inspired my own efforts and his ecological views offered purpose and direction in times of doubt and frustration.

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis represents my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been previously included in a thesis or report submitted to this university or to any other institution for a degree, diploma or other qualification.

Timothy Brockley

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Triadic Interaction in Young Learner EFL Classrooms:
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Chapter 1: Introductory Elements

"Communication facilitates thinking and thinking facilitates communication. Dialogue and questions provoke new thoughts, new ideas, and new forms of language which require new vocabularies, and those new vocabularies then make new thoughts and insights possible"
(Logan, 2007, p. 104).

1.1 Introduction

Picture a classroom, an enclosure the size of a large bedroom, obviously concrete with plain white wallpaper and tiled linoleum floors. The room is brightly lit with fluorescent lights. There are no windows, but there are a few posters on the walls, perhaps one of vegetables (carrots, cucumbers, celery, and others), and one of emotions, involving faces, (happy, sad, tired, energetic, and others) offering the Korean and English translations juxtaposed by definition. The room may be too hot or too cold depending on the season and the age of the building among other factors. This is a sixth grade EFL lesson with ten Korean youngsters attending an after-school academy. A situation of this type is the normal state of affairs, as almost all Koreans of this age attend an academy of one sort or another—likely an English academy—after the school bell rings.

But let's get back to the scenario. The ten students are seated in two rows behind desks with textbooks open to the indicated page—except perhaps one or two 'troublesome' learners. The class reads a passage orally, then performs a fill-in-the-blanks exercise designed to test their vocabulary. We are now ten minutes into a fifty-minute lesson. All seems to be going well. On the following page of the text, there is a cartoon dialogue of a captain and a deckhand on a ship. The teacher plays the audio version of the dialogue (using the supplied CD) and attempts to discuss the interaction in English. The students then write their answers to the questions posed at the bottom of the page in their textbooks.

Great! Twenty minutes have now elapsed, but there is one problem; namely, only two pages of the textbook have been assigned for this lesson. The teacher knows this and has prepared worksheets to accommodate the remaining thirty minutes. The students are paired off and are

given an information gap activity. This activity involves just what its name implies: one student has information that the other doesn't have, and that student (working in a pair) must close the gap by gathering the unknown information. As the teacher presents the activity, a light sense of chaos is breaking through the seam of teacher control. The activity appears to be unpopular. The students groan. The teacher unintentionally sighs. Fortunately, ten minutes have passed. There are only twenty minutes remaining in the lesson, yet a few students have become unruly. They have (in collaboration) caused two other students, a boy and a girl, who are working as a pair, to argue and fight. To clarify, at this age and in this culture, boys and girls do not often work in pairs. The troublemakers are exploiting this fact. This is nothing new. Such events are common and include various forms of name-calling, gesturing and the like. The teacher decides to remove the trouble-makers from the classroom, but is concerned whether this was the proper decision.

So now there are just ten minutes remaining. What a relief for everyone! But the mood is somber. The teacher decides to 'play hangman' to regain student trust and interest. The fact is, 'hangman' may be the best part of this lesson. The reason is that the learners are engaged in what they want to do. There is no syntactic value to this exercise, but there is collaboration and engagement. Exasperation causes the teacher to question: "How could I incorporate student 'wants' into a meaningful lesson?" This is the question that has inspired this study.

What I have just described is a composite of some of my own experiences teaching English to mostly Korean young learners in an EFL context. While the problems are not specifically pointed out, they certainly relate to the lack of engaging materials, the delicate relationships that exist between learners in this age group (elementary school learners), and their attention spans that shift so readily. This study addresses the problems of engaging young EFL learners in the process of learning a second language.

While I was participating with and examining young Korean learners (beginners in the third through sixth grades in elementary school) in their EFL environments (after school English academies), it became apparent to me that the activity generated in the classroom episodes was often playful, and that the learners seemed to be inclined to use any and all means from the field of their experience to attempt to communicate. In fact, prior to the present study, I had been developing computer-based activities for five or six years in an attempt to engage these young learners in their lessons. A general lack of interest in learning English was often quite obvious

(as mentioned in the scenario above). As my curriculum developed, and as I began to employ more computer-based activities, the interaction became triadic in nature, and more and more learners began to engage in the lessons.

Triadic interaction as defined in this thesis is the interaction between teacher, learners and audio-visual, computer-based activities presented on a large screen in front of the classroom using a projector or other type of device, such as a large screen television. The device is directly connected to the teacher's computer. This type of set-up—a computer with a screen apparatus—is not uncommon in Korean classrooms. The triad potentially involves more and less able learners and the computer screen (learner-learner[s]-screen) or teacher and learner[s] and the computer screen (teacher-learner[s]-screen). In each of these contexts, any of the three elements can act as a catalyst for interaction at any given time. This study offers the suggestion that triadic interaction, occurring in game-style, computer screen activities, is an engaging lesson format for the young learners participating in this study. Further, there is ample evidence that these engaged learners continually seek out opportunities to communicate, virtual windows of opportunity, if you will.

In game-style lesson formats, language itself is a playful tool. It's a puzzle, it's a game and it's a challenge. The intrigue of putting the different linguistic pieces of the puzzle together becomes a collaborative effort for each team. In my experience, one team can range in number from two to twenty, while two or three different teams (but not four) in one lesson are optimal. Four teams divide the class such that teams not in participation tend to lose focus. There is simply too much time between students' active turns. Teams may be divided randomly (e.g., one section of the classroom versus the other[s]), or specifically (e.g., boys versus girls). Teams are maintained throughout the lesson and may even be established over a course or extended period of time (e.g., one month).

Following lesson procedures, the students are assigned numbers (e.g., one through ten with two teams of five) which are represented in a deck of numbered cards. When the lesson commences, the teacher chooses cards randomly using the numbered deck. Fair turn-taking is thus established. Additionally, this method of random card selection succeeds in terms of student anticipation: They are eager to hear if their number is called.

When the game is then in process, each team attempts to out-score the other—in a two-or three-team format—and the edge of competition is layered into the mix. With the assistance of a computer screen and online activities, collaborative effort becomes triadic interaction. The competitive game format pushes the lessons forward—toward the goal of winning—and adds an element of excitement, maintaining an essential level of engagement. When combined with a guided, safe and rule-based competitive game-style lesson format, triadic interaction has the potential to unlatch the gateways to communication.

1.2 The Problem

In Tsui's (1996) study of reticence and anxiety in Hong Kong, she outlines how ethnic Chinese teachers of English perceive the problem of learners not being willing to speak because of their worries and inhibitions. She presents five notions that the teachers in the study perceived as causes of reticence and anxiety (pp. 149—155):

- 1) students' low English proficiency,
- 2) students' fear of mistakes and derision,
- 3) teacher's intolerance of silence,
- 4) uneven allocation of turns, and
- 5) incomprehensible input.

Although Tsui elicited information from, for the most part, ethnic Chinese teachers of English in their native environment—teaching English in Hong Kong—I would suggest that very few educators in our field would disagree with such results.

The observations gathered throughout the present study ring true in relation to the five notions from the teachers in Tsui's (1996) study listed above. In the present investigation—examining and participating with Korean EFL learners at the third- through sixth-grade elementary school level—it will be necessary to add two of my own perceptions regarding reticence and anxiety.

The first addition on this extended list would be "failure to establish a good teacher/learner relationship". Foreign teachers in Korea who are native speakers of English must create and maintain relationships with their students in terms of the culture in which they are teaching. Knowledge of the learning culture, as well as knowledge of the students' perceptions of native foreign English teachers, is essential.

The second addition will remain at the forefront of the discussion that follows in this study: "failure to provide interesting/engaging classroom activities and lesson formats". Lesson materials and formats that do not capture the attention of young learners are unlikely to engage them in any meaningful language use. The proposed solution to this problem is the implementation of computer-based activities with competitive game-style lesson formats. This is the essence of the present study.

1.3 What this Study Proposes

The general area of research is triadic interaction. In the context of the present study, this construct is composed of the following three participating elements:

- 1) Korean young learners in EFL after-school academy classrooms,
- 2) their native speaking teacher (myself as a participant-observer), and
- 3) a computer and large screen set-up with an online audio-visual (voice, images and text) activity-based lesson format.

This study proposes that when engaged in triadic interaction in competitive game formats, young EFL learners not only participate in classroom activities, but are motivated to do so. This lesson format is offered as an alternative to (or in conjunction with) more formal curricular activities, such as the use of textbooks, written exercises, and information-gap tasks. There is no attempt to compare the benefits or shortcomings of any particular classroom activity with another. In fact, this thesis takes the position that a multiplicity of activity types may be the optimal means of constructing knowledge in EFL classrooms and may be in the best interest to younger learners.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to discern whether or not triadic interaction and competitive game-style lesson formats have a positive impact on the students in the classroom environments presented in this research. Triadic interaction—teacher, learners and computer-based activities—has the potential to capture the attention of young learners, but it is possible, even considering a computer-based approach, that learner attention will flag over the course of a lesson. Competitive game-style formats in combination with triadic interaction may have an additional potential to keep the level of learner interest above the threshold of boredom.

The value of the present research lies in the possibility of revealing interaction among young EFL learners in classrooms at Korean after-school English academies; that is, triadic interaction, in the target population in this study, examines a lesson format that may well promote a substantial amount of learner participation.

1.5 Background to the Study

Here, I will give background information on the development of the online curriculum, as on-screen activities, as well as the background of the study itself. The curriculum is, and will be, in a state of continual development until the researcher is unable to do so. The curriculum's inception had been documented in a previous paper (Brockley, 2009) in which I described the difficulty of teaching large classrooms (from 30 to 40 elementary school-aged Korean learners) using traditional means (chalkboard and hand-outs). There occurred a breaking point on the first day of this particular term of employment: "... sometime after 7 pm, I am elated at being finished but strangely disoriented... and I really can't properly speak. After five hours of concentrated verbosity, I have come to my communicative end. I have a shocking realization: either find a better way to do this or risk serious mental and physical illness..." (p. 4).

A chalkboard and hand-outs just weren't adequate in a setting with large groups of young Korean EFL learners. The notion to employ computer-screen activities, as the classroom was equipped with the necessary technology, became a necessity. I immediately began developing power point presentations with text and images and consequently used a large screen to engage the learners who, otherwise, would be laboring over a hand-out and the slow pace of my chalk moving over a dimly-lit board. With the aid of the computer screen, students would come to the front of the room and point out (both physically and verbally) to me and the other learners what they were willing to communicate. In the same paper, I wrote: "The screen and its contents gave me and the class a joint focus of attention. We were now three...I had space to breathe, to think, to engage in quality interaction and to allow the antics of humor a chance to join in" (p. 5). At that time, I felt a sense of relief and excitement: relief, because the burden of directing classes of 30 to 40 elementary school-aged learners required dire means—in this case, technology—and excitement, because of the potential that large screen presentations with images, audio, and text had to offer.

This study examines eight video-taped excerpts extracted from three separate 40- to 50-minute lessons. Each of these lessons followed a computer-screen competitive-game format,

where two teams competed for points. At the end of the lessons, one team would be declared the winner. The lessons were governed by the researcher's online curriculum. This curriculum offers a variety of lesson files from vocabulary to pronunciation (see eslenglishclassroom.com). At the same time, eight of the excerpts in this study have the same on-screen activity format called 'Verb Files'.

Verb Files are simple activities where a cartoon picture is presented with a question—in both audio and text form—containing a particular verb tense. The student is prompted for an answer, and after the answer is given, the teacher poses another question (spontaneously and verbally) related to the same picture. The verb files in this study present simple present verbs, and in one case, present progressive verbs. As just mentioned, the learners first answer a closed question—as shown on the screen—and then are asked an open question—as created and posed by the teacher. According to Ellis (1997), a closed question "is one that is framed with only one acceptable answer in mind" (p. 695). For example, a question that reads, "How much ice cream does she usually eat?" with a picture of a girl devouring a large bowl of ice cream is positioned with the closed answer: "She eats a lot of ice cream." We can then define an open question, following Ellis (1997), as one that "has been framed with no particular answer in mind" (p. 716). An example of an open question following the above closed example could be, "How much ice cream do *you* usually eat?" or "Who eats *a lot of* ice cream?"

In the lowest level lesson (the fifth of the eight video excerpts discussed in this paper), only closed questions were posed. These third-grade elementary students at the beginner level simply could not process open-style questions. The other seven video excerpts (discussed at length in Chapter 5) contain some interaction, if only peripherally in some instances, involving open questions.

From the point of view of the activities employed in this study, the closed questions act as stimuli that are intended to activate the learners' prior knowledge. In each excerpt, the learners had engaged with these same activity files in previous lessons; in other words, they had prior knowledge of the activity content and procedures. As a follow up to the closed questions (presented on the screen), the open questions (presented by the teacher) step outside the stimuli; that is, they move closer to the learners' day-to-day realities. In this question type, the learners are required to communicate outside their immediate prior knowledge or 'schemata'. To clarify

this idea, Nunan (1999) describes schema theory as being "based on the notion that past experiences lead to the creation of mental frameworks that help us make sense of new experiences" (p. 201). In this way, open questions can be seen as engaging learners in very simple forms of conversation. In sum, the closed-to-open-question sequence in computer-screen activities is an attempt to bridge the gap between forms of utterances and texts—phonology, vocabulary and syntax—and their correlative meanings—actual comprehension and communication. Success in producing acceptable responses to open questions reveals a level of learner comprehension and an ability to make meaning. The process of engagement in this manner (closed-to-open sequences) challenges the learners to participate and become creative in the language-making process. Thus, the learners establish value in communicating in *their* second language. They now have a sense of ownership. In the best of all possible worlds, learners create their own messages and respond to others in kind.

1.6 The Aims and Justification of the Study

This study aims to examine and analyze the aspects of a triadic interactive classroom environment where students are engaging collectively with activities on a screen, assisted by a teacher. Too often, young learners are bogged down with drills and repetitive exercises in EFL classroom environments, in which a wedge is driven between the target language and a learner's desire to engage in interaction. According to Zhao and Morgan (2004), "Children generally are not consciously interested in language for its own sake and usually tend to direct their interest towards things that are easy for them to understand" (p. 8). Paraphrasing Ur (1996), Zhao and Morgan (2004) go on to say, "Children in general learn well when they are active and when action is channeled into an enjoyable game. They are often willing to invest considerable time and effort in playing it" (p. 8). It comes as no surprise then, that ways and means (in this case, games and technology) must be explored in order to offer young EFL learners an optimal environment in which they may participate whole-heartedly in their lessons. In addition, no studies to date (that I am aware of) have been carried out that examine triadic interaction in computer screen-based competitive game classroom environments. Further, any study that examines the role of computer-based lessons and language teaching is a study that pertains to classrooms of the future.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Young Learners in EFL Contexts

Young learners are usually defined as being from four- or five-years-old up to the age of twelve, after which they may be labeled as 'teens'. Following Pinter (2006, p. 2), Nunan (2010) suggests that "all children are unique, and two children at the same chronological age can exhibit markedly different characteristics" (p. 6). The uniqueness of the individual is an important fact to keep in mind when teaching classroom English. It is fair to suggest that—whatever young learner age group you may be taking into consideration—different developmental levels will be exhibited by different members of any particular group.

Vygotsky (1978) gives an example of the dynamics at work when considering chronological age and developmental level (pp. 85—87). He begins his investigation with two young learners, "both of whom are ten years old chronologically and eight years old in terms of mental development" (p. 85). Vygotsky (1978) assumes that most people would be inclined to believe that, regarding these children, "the subsequent course of mental development and of school learning will be the same, because it depends on their intellect" (p. 86). As mentioned, the ten-year-olds in Vygotsky's experiment had been determined to be at the developmental level of eight-year-olds, and this level had been determined by the administration of a test "that [had] been standardized for the eight-year-old level" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 85). In his experiment, Vygotsky (1978) proposes the same problem to each of the ten-year-old participants and "show[s] them different ways of dealing with the problem" (p. 86). Vygotsky (1978) discovered that after the process of presenting the problem, assisting the children with the problem, and analyzing the different outcomes of the children's efforts, "it turn[ed] out that the first child [could] deal with problems up to a twelve-year-old's level, [and] the second up to a nine-year-old's" (p. 86). Results of this experiment showed "that the capability of children, with equal levels of mental development, to learn under a teacher's guidance, varied to a high degree" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Following from this experiment, Vygotsky (1978) documented his concept of the zone of proximal development (or ZPD) based on the results of the experiment with the two ten-year-old children presented above.

This difference between twelve and eight or nine and eight is what we call the zone of proximal development. It is the difference between the actual developmental level as

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

"Independent problem solving" in Vygotsky's experiment is determined from the results of the standardized test taken by each child individually. Although they were chronologically ten years old, both children were at the developmental level of eight-year-olds according to the test results. In other words, the test results were shown to be the same. "Problem solving under adult guidance" in this experiment is to be seen as the difference between the developmental level (as determined by the standardized test) and the potential to go beyond that level in the process of being guided by an adult or "in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Vygotsky (1978) suggests that "when we determine a child's mental age by using tests, we are almost always dealing with the actual developmental level" (p. 85). This idea refers to "independent problem solving" on standardized tests as just mentioned. Problem solving "under adult guidance" or "in collaboration with more capable peers", according to Vygotsky (1978), is an equally important assessment, referring to a child's potential level of development. Evidence for this type of development comes "if we offer leading questions or show how the problem is to be solved and the child then solves it, or if the teacher initiates the solution and the child completes it or solves it in collaboration with other children" (p. 85).

The idea that young learners have different rates of development at different times in the learning process is a useful one in any young learner context. Further, the idea that young learners have different levels of potential development—as determined by the ability to learn with assistance from others—is something that should be carefully considered in research.

Regarding EFL environments and young learners, it would be appropriate to compare their circumstances to young learners in ESL contexts. Since EFL learners are constantly participating in the non-English language of their own culture, classroom English is their main exposure to the target language. ESL learners exist in a culture where English is often spoken in the public arena, thus they have potentially more exposure to the English of native speakers. To put it another way, learners of a foreign language (EFL) are challenged by their limited time in engagement with native or near-native speakers; whereas, ESL learners (e.g., immigrants in Canada) usually have opportunities to speak the target language both within and outside the classroom.

English as an *auxiliary language* is a term prescribed by Smith (1976) and is contrasted with the notion of English as an *international language*.

My operational definition of an international language is one which is used by people of different nations to communicate with one another. English is the most frequently used international language. My operational definition for auxiliary language is a language, other than the first language, which is used by nationals of a country for internal communication. English also frequently serves this purpose (p. 38).

The question that follows is this: What about the status of young learners in EFL environments? One problem that exists in research conducted in the name of young learners in EFL contexts could be that such learners have neither an "international" nor an "auxiliary" context in which to explore English. One suggestion is to encourage learners in EFL environments to take ownership of English as a part of their language culture. This ownership has been accomplished in such countries as the Philippines, Singapore and India. Smith (1976) makes this point clear.

English belongs to the world and every nation which uses it does so with different tone, color, and quality. It is yours (no matter who you are) as much as it is mine (no matter who I am).

We may use it for different purposes and for different lengths of time on different occasions, but nonetheless it belongs to all of us (p. 39).

The young learners in the present study, for the most part, regard English as a classroom subject. When the doors open and the students leave the room, and when they make their way back home, their experience is devoid of any English-speaking context. A bridge needs to be made between the English classroom experience and the students' lives outside of class. On a good day, the learners will be discussing the events which had transpired in class as they are taking leave. Although there are many ways and means to inspire students to take a greater interest in English as a living language, computer-screen lessons in competitive-game formats, as in the present study, are attempts to give ownership of English to all young learners in EFL contexts.

2.2 Scaffolding and Triadic Interaction

Scaffolding is not simply giving students the answers to questions, nor is it encouraging students to repeat utterances mindlessly. In young learner EFL classroom environments—such as the lesson segments described in the present study—there is sometimes a fine line between a true scaffold and a parroted utterance. It would be impossible to claim that all the interaction in the

transcribed video excerpts below constitute genuine acts of scaffolding. On the other hand, as a participant observer in this study, I can say that some interactions exhibited what Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) described scaffolding to be: "controlling those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capability, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence" (p. 90). In this way, I would suggest that scaffolding is the process whereby the teacher, or more able learner, offers footholds for the less able learner to reach levels of potential knowledge, encouraging the less able learner to step beyond the areas of knowledge she or he has already attained. Nunan and Bailey (2009) a useful explanation of the scaffolding process.

Think of offer the term in its metaphoric sense: A scaffold is erected around a building that is either being renovated or being built. The scaffold is there to help the workers reach the problem areas or unfinished areas that need attention. When those areas have been dealt with, the scaffolding is removed. It is an intentionally temporary structure (p. 178).

That is to say, when learners have gained a new foothold in the knowledge or skill they strive to attain, the scaffold is removed and brought forward to the next potential level of learning. The less able learner is then given the opportunity to take one step forward with the assistance of a more able interlocutor. I would suggest that scaffolding is evident in many classroom interactions in one form or another, when teachers and learners—or learners among themselves—construct knowledge by way of collaboration.

At this point, it may be useful to address the notions of 'collaboration' and 'co-construction'. Donato (2004) presents three conceptualizations that appear to be common to groups working in collaboration:

- 1) Collaboration involves a meaningful core activity (e.g., playing a networked computer game, creating a visual product, developing curricular innovations) and the social relations that develop as a result of jointly constructed goals for the common endeavor.
- 2) Collaboration involves recognition of individuals as parts of a cooperative activity and the acceptance of the contributions of individuals in the service of a larger goal.
- 3) Collaborative groups build coherence within and among social relations and knowledge located and distributed in its members (p. 287).

In the context of the present study, the first conceptualization, that is, the "meaningful core activity," is the competitive game format using computer-based activities. Second, teamwork and

the desire to win the game "involves recognition of individuals as parts of a cooperative activity" (Donato, 2004, p. 287). Finally, success in completing questions and consequently being awarded points as members of a collaborative team "build[s] coherence...and knowledge". Donato (2004) sums up these points by suggesting, "In this way, collaboration co-constructs new knowledge that goes beyond any knowledge possessed by a single member in isolation" (p. 287). I would suggest then that collaboration is a dynamic process that encourages the co-construction of new knowledge. The present study focuses on such collaboration in competitive game formats.

Swain (2000) defines *collaborative dialogue* as "knowledge-building dialogue.... It is dialogue that constructs linguistic knowledge. It is what allows performance to outstrip competence. It is where language use and language learning can co-occur" (p. 97). The opportunities for collaborative dialogue become enhanced when the rigging of teacher control is relaxed and learners take over the process of meaning-making, that is, when they learn to scaffold one another. This is the moment "in which learners are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building" (Swain, 2000, p.102). In this sense, collaborative dialogue can be seen as an essential characteristic of triadic interaction in computer-screen, competitive-game formats.

Not all researchers consider the scaffolding metaphor as ideal. Van Lier (2004) suggests that "The notion of a scaffold is rather rigid and static, but the educational work that goes by its name is dynamic and flexible" (p. 147). Nonetheless, as van Lier (2004) goes on to say, the term *scaffolding* "is useful if we regard it as a structure that allows the movement of pedagogical activity, that permits efficient and quick access to pedagogical goals, and that is temporary" (p. 147). Further, van Lier (2004) explains that "there are two kinds of work involved in successful scaffolding" (p. 149). The first relates to the structure of lesson activities, that is, "planning, setting up, and maintaining the scaffolding structure (both building up and dismantling it as required)" (p. 149). The second form of scaffolding relates to "interactional work on, at or inside the scaffold" (van Lier, 2004, p. 149). The second form allows for both teacher/learner and learner/learner scaffolding.

Van Lier (2004) describes the process of giving control of the scaffolding process to learners—in favorable circumstances—as the "handover/takeover" principle (p. 149). When favorable conditions exist, the teacher hands over the lesson content to the learners, and the

learners take over the scaffolding process from the teacher's control. In this manner, the learners, within their respective groups, collaborate to construct well-formed responses to the questions posed and consequently exhibit more learner/learner scaffolding.

To reiterate, the interaction in this study is triadic in nature and includes various instances of learners working cooperatively and, in some cases, showing signs of scaffolding. Communication between learners and between the teacher and learners is aided by the on-screen activities. Triadic interaction can be seen as students "working side-by-side, with a joint focus of activity, the object (the computer screen) as a third interlocutor of sorts" (van Lier, 2002, pp. 147-48). Scaffolding can be understood as the available footholds of assistance—either from a teacher or more able peers—that allow learners the potential to reach higher levels of knowledge, that is, to step beyond the knowledge they have already attained, even if these steps are barely visible. The discussion now turns to the merging and operationalizing of the notions of triadic interaction and scaffolding, that is, triadic scaffolds.

2.3 Triadic Scaffolds

Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) examined three- to five-year-olds in the process of learning to put together wooden structures with interlocking wooden blocks (e.g., a pyramid). It was in this study that they described a 'scaffolding process' that positioned each young child in interaction with a tutor who then gave the child instructions in carrying out the block-building task. The goal of the experiment was to come up with a theory of instruction. The result was a set of functions of tutoring referred to as "scaffolding functions" (p. 98). I will paraphrase these six functions below, as they are rather lengthy in their original descriptions:

- 1) Recruitment: to enlist the problem solver's interest in and adherence to the requirements of the task.
- 2) Reduction in degrees of freedom: to simplify the task by reducing the number of constituent acts required to reach a solution.
- 3) Direction maintenance: to keep the learners in pursuit of a particular objective, often involving the deployment of zest and sympathy to keep them motivated.
- 4) Marking critical features: to mark or accentuate certain features of a task that are relevant.
- 5) Frustration control: to ensure problem solving is less dangerous or stressful with a tutor than without.

- 6) Demonstration: to model solutions to a task by creating an idealized form of an attempt made by the learner, in the expectation that the learner will 'imitate it back' in the more appropriate form (p. 98).

In her study, Meskill (2005) employed four of the six scaffolding functions developed by Wood et al.: (2) reduction in degrees of freedom, (3) direction maintenance, (4) marking critical features, and (6) demonstration. Meskill (2005) then combined these functions with triadic interaction in relation to the computer-based lessons she had analyzed. The scaffolding functions in Meskill's (2005) study, borrowed from Wood et al. (p. 48), appear in italics:

- a) what appears on the screen can be viewed as *reducing the size of the task so the child can complete it* (Wood et. al., function 2).
- b) what appears on the screen and what changes to it are possible can be viewed as *keeping the child's attention in the moment* (Wood et. al., function 3).
- c) what appears on the screen can facilitate *making salient relevant features* (Wood et. al., function 4).
- d) what the teacher says and does in reaction to what appears on the screen can be viewed as *modeling ways to accomplish* a specific language goal (Wood et. al., function 6).

Meskill (2005) goes on to explain: "Each [of the four characteristics above] involves strategic instructional moves that, as a complex whole, are at the heart of the craft of teaching. The presence of the computer potentially amplifies such moves" (p. 48). In sum, these four of six characteristics of scaffolding described by Wood et al., have been operationalized by Meskill (2005) at the level of triadic interaction in a computer-assisted language learning context. Further, Meskill (2005) explains the genesis of her notion of triadic scaffolds: "The construct *triadic scaffold* grew out of observing a preponderance of similar verbal routines around the computer." (p. 49). The data analysis components were then constructed (Meskill, 2005).

Select classroom data came to be coded by a set of (a) teaching strategies (both verbal and nonverbal, global and local); (b) the role of the computer in the instructional scaffold; and (c) what these combined (teacher + computer features) strategies appear to accomplish and what the teacher reports them as accomplishing (p. 50).

After establishing these criteria, a coding system was developed: "Triadic scaffolds are thus comprised of and were coded as follows: (1) S - a teacher verbal strategy; (2) C - contribution of the computer; (3) A - what the strategy accomplishes" (Meskill, 2005, p. 50).

As a follow-up to Meskill's (2005) work—developing the construct of triadic scaffolds—it is important to note that she examined one ESL teacher in her attempts to give instruction in a special program designed to assist immigrant children in public schools in the US. The teacher had lessons with 4 to 8 learners who interacted with her and two computer screens, using various on and off-line activities. Meskill (2005) audio recorded and made field notes of the lessons over a three-month period (pp. 48-49). In operationalizing the construct of triadic scaffolds in such a unique and practical manner, Meskill's work has contributed greatly to the overall approach and methodology developed in this paper. On the other hand, as you shall see, this thesis will not include the construct of triadic scaffolds; rather, triadic interaction will remain the core construct in analyzing the content of this study.

2.4 Young Learners and Computer-assisted Language Learning

CALL (computer-assisted language learning), as an umbrella term, takes many forms. There are e-mail and text chat assignments at universities, where students need not attend the physical classroom (Cummings, 2004). There are computer labs where students carry out exercises individually (replacing the audio labs of old), and there are project-based tasks carried out by groups of students over time (Jeon-Ellis, Debski, and Wigglesworth, 2005). In describing a classroom application, Chapelle (2001) discusses computer-supported collaborative learning (CSCL) in relation to language acquisition as "the social structure of an activity [that] can include the computer software with which a learner interacts in addition to other learners who collaborate in the same room or from remote locations through networked computers" (p. 32). In the present study, learners collaborate in a competitive game format, using the audio-visual content on the computer screen to push forward in the lesson and to gain points for their teams.

Nunan (2010, pp. 133-134) proposes four models of learning in computer-based lesson contexts. I have taken the liberty to paraphrase the definitions below:

- 1) The 'traditional' classroom is supplemented and supported by technology. In this model... the teacher decides what is to be taught, how it is to be taught and how it is to be assessed, and technology plays a secondary role.

- 2) Technology delivers the content and is supported by web-based 'live' instruction.
In this model instructional content is delivered through technology, and is supplemented and supported by a teacher...
- 3) Technology delivers the content and is supported by supplemental face-to-face instruction. This model is similar to Model 2 except that the 'live' support is provided in traditional face-to-face classrooms rather than through the Internet.
- 4) In the fully integrated classroom, in contrast, technology and live instruction work side-by-side...

These models make useful distinctions and can provide a framework for future research in which different models are examined and analyzed according to their potential or perceived strengths and weaknesses in different learning contexts. The present study may be seen as a combination of Nunan's (2010) models 1 and 3. In the online curriculum employed in this investigation, "the teacher decides what is to be taught, how it is to be taught, and how it is to be assessed" (p. 133). On the other hand, once the competitive game format gets underway, the learners can be seen interacting in the foreground as the teacher works as a guide or referee. In these circumstances, the activity "is supplemented and supported by a teacher" (p. 133).

Although the models presented by Nunan (2010) are the trend in many educational contexts, there is some resistance to their implementation in more traditional quarters. In Korean young learner contexts, I've experienced what Nunan (2010) describes when he speaks of how the public sometimes views games and technology in the classroom: "The negative is that many people, parents in particular, do not see online games as learning. They draw a clear distinction between education and entertainment. For some, the belief seems to be that if it's fun, it can't be education" (p. 134). Perhaps future research may help to alleviate the fear that games cannot be educational, that they are somehow all homogenous and potentially destructive, and that only textbooks and tests are legitimate classroom activities.

2.5 A Competitive Game Format and Language Play

A further element explored in this study is a competitive game format. In their study, Zan and Hildebrandt (2005) compare competitive games, where learners are divided into teams and play against one another, and cooperative games, where one unified group plays against a computer or

other non-human entity. The latter type can be found on the web, for example, where learners work together against the clock or to defeat some type of cyber villain.

Zan and Hildebrandt (2005) react to a book-length treatment that advocates a negative view of competitive games in childhood education offered by Kohn (1992). Kohn (1992) proposes that competition is destructive and causes aggression in learning contexts. Zan and Hildebrandt (2005) offer a counterpoint to Kohn's view in the following manner. They note that Kohn (1992) argues that "competition damages self-esteem, destroys relationships, and impedes the development of trust... it leads to envy, distrust, and aggression" (p. 2). They also report that Kohn (1992) concludes "that all competition is harmful to children" (p. 2). Zan and Hildebrandt (2005, p. 3) provide two arguments against Kohn's viewpoint:

- 1) Competition and aggression are not synonymous— if we define competition as 'playing to win' and aggression as 'treating other people in a rough, hurtful, or unfair fashion,' then it is clear that one can play a competitive game without necessarily being aggressive.
- 2) Cooperation is a prerequisite to competition—in other words, children need to cooperate in order to compete.

Regarding the first argument, the present study examines learners in contexts where they are 'playing to win'. This examination will document aggressive behaviors if they are evident in the data. In regards to the second argument, Zan and Hildebrandt (2005) go on to assert that "in order to play a competitive game, children must agree to the rules, abide by the rules, and accept the consequences of the rules, all of which require[s] cooperation" (p. 3). The present study attempts to provide some evidence that cooperation often precedes competition—including rule-abiding behavior—in EFL classroom game contexts using computer-screen lessons. It must be added that further research on this topic may be essential to distinguish between positive and negative forms of competition in many and diverse contexts.

Zan and Hildebrandt (2005, pp. 9-10) drew two conclusions from the results of their analyses, the first of which is presented here: "We find no evidence to suggest that competitive games are harmful to children in otherwise cooperative classroom atmospheres, such as those in constructivist classrooms". In order to address this first conclusion, it will be useful to define the "constructivist classroom" as expressed in the quote above. Agrawal (2010) gives a broad but

comprehensible definition of the activity that might ideally be manifested in a constructivist classroom.

Constructivism emphasizes that the learner is a sense maker, whereas the teacher is a cognitive guide... encouraging the students to use active techniques, to create more knowledge and then to reflect on and talk about what they are doing and how their understanding is changing. Questioning is an integral part of constructivist learning. By questioning themselves the students become expert learners. The main task of the teacher here is to encourage this learning and reflection process. When one of the students comes up with the relevant answer, the teacher seizes upon it and asks the other students to follow the same steps. Constructivism... modifies the traditional role of a teacher so that he may help students to construct knowledge rather than to reproduce a series of facts. Students construct their knowledge actively rather than just mechanically receiving knowledge from the teacher or the textbook (internet article, no page numbers).

Perhaps not many teachers, or classroom environments, could live up to the precepts presented here. In the present study, it will only be possible to ascertain whether young learners using computer-screen activities in an EFL classroom show cooperation in competitive game formats.

In the second of Zan and Hildebrandt's (2005, pp. 9-10) conclusions, they state: "We also found that children's play of cooperative games and competitive games appears to be equally cooperative—that is, they are no more likely to cheat or to play out of turn in competitive games than in cooperative games." The fact that a game is competitive may even encourage adherence to rules and proper manners, especially when the teacher is acting as a referee. Zan and Hildebrandt (2005) responding once again to Kohn (1992) found no evidence in their study that "when people play games competitively, their desire to win leads them to distance themselves from their opponent, even so far as to dehumanize the other, so that they can beat their opponent without feeling guilty" (p. 10). Further, in cooperative games, rule-abiding may even break down if the learners don't feel the game is challenging or serious enough to warrant adherence to the rules or to command their attention: "When children break the rules or cheat in a cooperative game, generally no one protests because the cheating benefits everyone" (p. 10). Considering the increase in computer-based educational materials and games and the prospect of advancements in technology, the question of the role of competitive games in EFL contexts will remain an important one.

Another type of 'play' experienced in classroom interaction relates to the use of language. 'Language play' in relation to language learning is defined by Sullivan (2000) as a "socially mediated activity that stand[s] between the individuals and the language being learned....These playful exchanges serve as tools that result in awareness of language meaning and form" (p. 123). In fact, it can be argued that an element of language play is beneficial in most classroom environments. Along the same lines, Broner and Tarone (2001) suggest: "Language play is affectively charged. As such, the emotional excitement that comes with language play may simply make the L2 discourse more noticeable, and thus more memorable" (p. 375). In the present study, evidence of language play of this type—in competitive game-style formats—will be explored after analyzing the data.

2.6 Dörnyei: Communication Strategies

Dörnyei (1995) combined the common elements of communication strategy taxonomies that had hitherto been occupying the same territory in the field of applied linguistics (p. 58). As a result of these efforts, he developed a typology with three distinct macro-categories. The first macro-category, *avoidance or reduction strategies*, involves "either an alteration, a reduction, or complete abandonment of the intended message" (p. 58). The second macro-category, described as *achievement or compensatory strategies*, offers "alternative plans for the speakers to carry out their original communicative goal by manipulating available language, thus compensating somehow for their linguistic deficiencies" (p. 58). The third macro-category, *stalling or time-gaining strategies*, is used "to gain time and to keep the communication channel open at times of difficulty" (p. 58).

The following table is now being presented in order to overview the taxonomy developed by Dörnyei (1995) to gather data relating to communication strategies.

Table 1: Typology of Communication Strategies Adapted from Dörnyei (1995, p. 58)

#	Strategy	Definition	Example
Avoidance or Reduction Strategies			
1	Message abandonment	leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties	speakers change the subject when they get frustrated
2	Topic avoidance	avoiding topic areas or concepts which pose language difficulties.	speakers are not comfortable discussing topics such as death or taxes.
Achievement or Compensatory Strategies			
3	Circumlocution	describing or exemplifying the target object or action	<i>the thing you open bottles with for "corkscrew"</i>
4	Approximation	using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible	<i>ship for sail boat</i>
5	Use of all-purpose words	extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking	the overuse of <i>thing, stuff, make, do, as well as using words like, what-do-you-call-it</i>
6	Word-coinage	creating a nonexistent L2 word based on a supposed rule	<i>vegetarianist for vegetarian</i>
7	Use of nonlinguistic means	mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation	pointing to show the way, a sigh, a smile, the finger
8	Literal translation	translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2	"Got sem chu-ee" (Korean) means "The wind is jealous of the flowers" in English
9	Foreignizing	using an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically (i.e., with an L2 pronunciation) and/or morphologically	I like Thai Kwon Doo" "We sushied yesterday"
10	Code switching	using words from your own or other languages while conversing in L2	"Do you prefer chu-toro or lean maguro?"
11	Appeal for help	turning to the conversation partner for help either directly or indirectly	directly: <i>What do you call . . . ?</i> or indirectly: rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression
Stalling or Time-gaining Strategies			
12	Use of fillers/hesitation Devices	using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think	<i>"well, now let me see", "as a matter of fact", or "Uh"</i>

2.7 Ferreira, Moore and Mellish: Feedback Strategies

Ferreira et al. (2007) distinguished three main types of feedback. The first type is defined as positive feedback: such feedback includes repetition or rephrasing. The second type, defined as negative or corrective feedback, and given the distinction of "Giving-Answer Strategies" or "GAS", capture, under their umbrella, the strategies of repetition, recasts, explicit correction and answer-giving. The third type, also defined as negative or corrective feedback, but distinguished as "Prompting-Answer Strategies" or "PAS" include meta-linguistic cues, clarification requests and elicitation. Table 2, adapted from Ferreira, et al. (2007), is presented to overview the various types of feedback strategies this model identifies.

Table 2: Feedback Strategies Adapted from Ferreira, Moore and Mellish (2007, pp. 391—393)

#	Term	Definition	Original examples provided by the author of this paper
Forms of positive feedback:			
1	Repetition:	The teacher repeats the student's correct answer.	=Student: "I went shopping." =Teacher: "Oh, you went shopping..." a form of agreement
2	Rephrasing:	The teacher accepts the student's answer but aims to expand the student's knowledge, to polish the utterance structure, or to show a new structure which rephrases the answer given by the student using different words, and in some cases, adds new information.	=S: "Not at school yesterday..." =T: "Oh, you <i>stayed home</i> from school yesterday."
Forms of negative/corrective feedback as Giving-Answer Strategies (GAS):			
3	Repetition:	The teacher repeats the error or the portion of the learner's phrase containing the error, using stress or rising intonation to focus the student's attention on the problematic part of the utterance.	=S: "I Goed to the market." =T: "You <i>goed</i> there." a mirroring of error with expressions of disbelief (intonation, facial expressions, gestures, eye contact)
4	Recast:	Reformulation of all or part of the student's answer, providing the target form.	=S: "The supermarket has many fried chickens." = T: "Wow... It has <i>lots of</i> fried <i>chicken</i> ..."
5	Explicit correction:	The teacher provides the correct target form. This differs from recast because the teacher directly corrects the error without rephrasing or reformulating the student's answer.	=S: "We go last night..." =T: "went... <i>went</i> last night"
6	Give answer:	Feedback used in cases when the student does not know or is unsure of the answer.	=S: "There was lots of rain and. . ." (Student does not know how to say 'thunder' or 'lightning'). =T: "Thunder and Lightning" (Teacher completes the answer).
Forms of negative/corrective feedback as Prompting-Answer Strategies (PAS):			
7	Meta-linguistic cues:	The teacher provides information or asks questions regarding the correctness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the target form.	=S: "Do you see me yesterday?" =T: "You have to use the past tense with 'yesterday'."
8	Clarification requests:	These are questions intended to indicate to the student that his/her answer has been misunderstood due to a student error, or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is required. Clarification requests often include phrases such as "Pardon me", "What?" or "What do you mean?".	= S: "I have a sick leg." =T: "What do you mean?"
9	Elicitation:	The teacher encourages the student to give the correct form by pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher's utterance, by asking the student to reformulate the utterance, or by asking questions to elicit the correct answer, such as "How do we say that in Spanish?"	=T: "What do you do after breakfast?" =S: Student gestures washing her face... =T: "How do you say that in English?"

Ferreira, et al., (2007) have looked at various taxonomies of feedback strategies in-depth (e.g., Ellis, 1997, Lyster, 1998, and Doughty and Varela, 1998). Perhaps their contribution to the construct of feedback in general concerns their notions of "prompting" (PAS) versus "giving" (GAS) "answer strategies" in language learning contexts.

By distinguishing the PAS and GAS groups... we hope to gain further insight into the relative merits of feedback strategies that encourage students to attempt to generate or construct the correct form themselves (PAS), versus those in which the teacher resolves the language error either by indicating the location of the error or providing the target form (GAS) (p. 393).

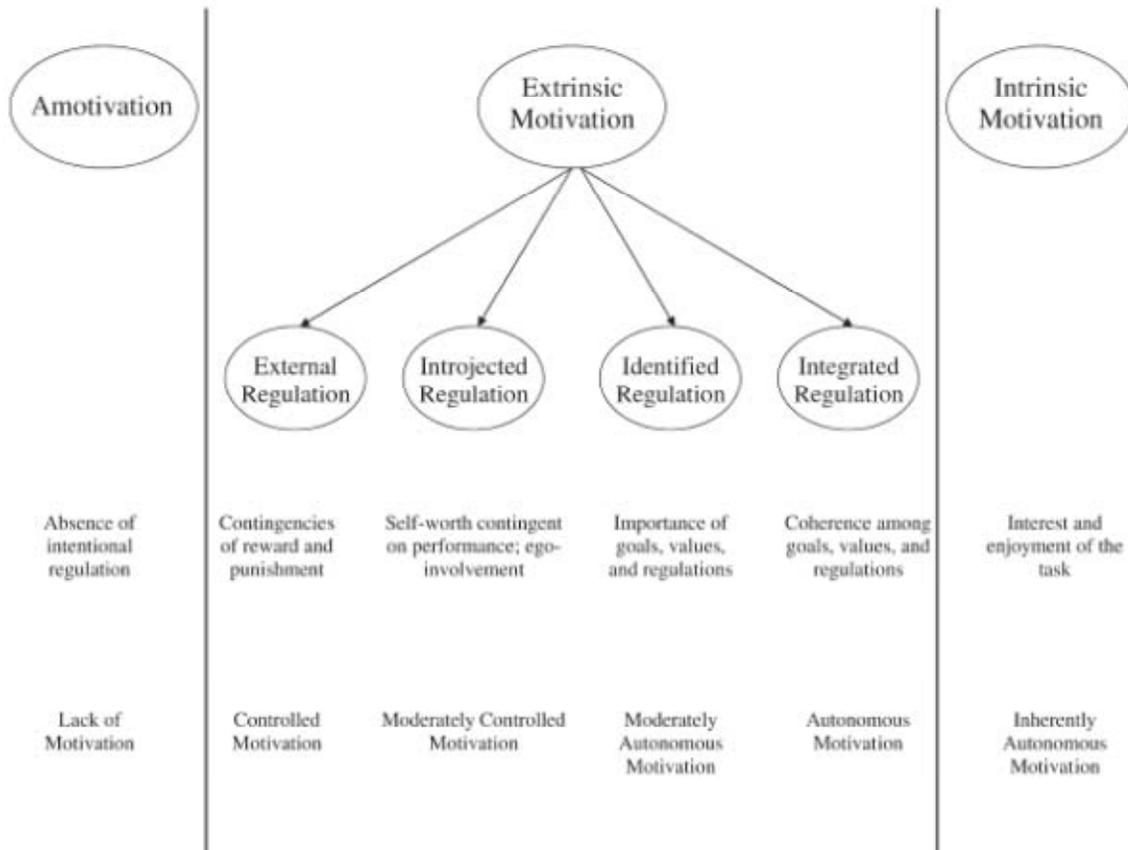
This important modification offered by the Ferreira, et al. (2007) typology proposes that speakers are potentially autonomous learners and that this typology offers a means to distinguish between learner autonomy and learner dependence on more able interlocutors.

2.8 Gagne and Deci: Self-Determination Theory

The classic definitions regarding motivation have divided the notion into two camps: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In the abstract to their article on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Ryan and Deci (2000) make these distinctions: "Intrinsic motivation remains an important construct, reflecting the natural human propensity to learn and assimilate. However, extrinsic motivation is argued to vary considerably in its relative autonomy and thus can either reflect external control or true self-regulation" (p.54). One could simplify the concepts as "wanting to learn something" (intrinsic) versus "having to learn something" (extrinsic).

Taking perhaps the next obvious step in the elaboration of a theory on motivation, Gagne and Deci (2005) present their self-determination theory (SDT) on a continuum, "showing amotivation, which is wholly lacking in self-determination; the types of extrinsic motivation, which vary in their degree of self-determination; and intrinsic motivation, which is invariantly self-determined" (p. 336). Their continuum is reproduced below.

Figure 1: Representation of Self-Determination Theory from Gagne and Deci (2005, p. 336)



The continuum in Figure 1 above is set up by degree from an absence or "lack of motivation" to intrinsic or "inherently autonomous motivation" with four grades of extrinsic motivation falling in between. The model represents "the degree to which each [type] represents autonomous motivation" (p. 336). Gagne and Deci (2005) go on to explain the various subtypes of extrinsic motivation in more detail. *External regulation* is related to the behaviorist paradigm, as learners react to various rewards and punishments. In young learner contexts, these consist of praise, prizes, seating changes or scolding, to name a few. *Introjected regulation* is "a regulation that has been taken in by the person but has not been accepted as his or her own.... It is as if the regulation were controlling the person" (p. 334). Examples in young learner contexts include answering questions to please the teacher, showing off, or making attempts at humor.

In terms of *identified regulation*, "people feel greater freedom and volition because the behavior is more congruent with their personal goals and identities" (p. 334). They participate "even though the activities are not intrinsically interesting" (p.335). Clarification requests

regarding vocabulary or grammar or inquiries about game rules may fall into this category in terms of our target population. Finally, "With *integrated regulation*, people have a full sense that the behavior is an integral part of who they are, that it emanates from their sense of self and is thus self-determined" (p. 335). Learners who willingly scaffold others and are willing *to be scaffolded*, in other words, learners who are able to co-construct meaning with others, may be exhibiting this type of motivation. It is interesting to note that as the motivation becomes more autonomous, the definitions of behavior become more 'adult-like'; that is, the descriptions are no longer age dependent.

On the SDT continuum, integrated extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation blend together at their edges: "In short, intrinsic motivation and integrated extrinsic motivation are the two different types of autonomous motivation (with identified extrinsic motivation being relatively autonomous)" (p. 335). In other words, intrinsic motivation, at times, wavers into the category of identified extrinsic motivation, as when learners pause to write down vocabulary items in classroom lessons. In a similar fashion, integrated extrinsic motivation may also blend into forms of intrinsic motivation. For example, while co-constructing knowledge, the learners may reach an epiphany; that is, something in the syntax or lexicon of the target language may 'click' favorably, and the learners will produce previously inaccessible knowledge. The intrinsic motivation distinction lies in the ability of the learner(s) to combine the elements of learning in a whole-hearted manner and exhibit an accomplished sense of autonomy in this respect.

Chapter 3 Research Design

3.1 Introduction

The present study takes an interactive approach to CALL where learners collaborate with one another in the same room with the aid of computer-based activities on a large screen—either using a projector or a large LCD television screen. The information on the screen is accessible to both the teacher and the learners. The activities are manipulated by the teacher using a keyboard and mouse. A single activity format (employing images, audio and text) from an online curriculum with a variety of activity formats was employed in each lesson context. The online activities in this curriculum, developed by the teacher-researcher, have been specifically designed for young EFL learners (www.eslenglishclassroom.com).

At this point, let me offer a scenario of interaction typical to the format employed in this study. There are eight students in the classroom. The teacher moves about in front of a large-screen LCD television connected to a computer. The students are divided into two teams, four boys versus four girls in this case, and each student has a number that corresponds to the numbered cards in the teacher's hand. Students jointly focus on an image on the screen. Imagine an image of a girl, with an angry expression, chasing a boy. He is sprinting into a restroom in order to evade the wrath that the girl wishes to administer. We can imagine that he has teased her, and that the girl has decided not to put up with it. The question posed—in audio and text—is, "Where is the boy running?" The students must engage with this image and the audio and text question to construct an answer.

The teacher randomly pulls out one of the small plastic cards and calls out, "Seven! Lucky seven". This number pertains to the third member of the boys' team (with members 5 through 8). "He is run into the restroom," the boy blurts out. "Sorry, not quite right," the teacher tilts his head slightly, and gives a gesture and facial expression that is intended to push the student to introspect. The teacher then imagines that some of the students have already identified number seven's error. The girls' team now has a chance to answer. "I volunteer!" shouts an excited member of the girls' team. "Yes!" The teacher acknowledges the student's move to take a turn, pointing to her. "He is runNING into the restroom" she projects with a knowledgeable smile. "That's right. Two points, girls' team," the teacher announces. Student eight on the boys' team, who has been designated the 'scorekeeper' for the lesson, reluctantly puts two chalk lines on the

board. The boys groan and the girls cheer. The girls' team has just moved ahead, twelve points to ten.

3.2 Setting and Participants

Data were collected from 26 young Korean EFL learners (elementary school grades 3 ~ 6) attending after-school English academies. These grade levels are equivalent to those of the Western elementary/primary school system.

Three separate computer-based classes participated in this study from two separate academies. The first was coded as academy 'A' and the second was coded as academy 'B'. There are four video excerpts documenting the first class (A1-1, A1-2, A1-3, and A1-4) with a total enrolment of nine students (six boys and three girls), ages 9 through 11, comprised of fourth and fifth graders. Four of the boys were not visible in the videos as they were absent on this particular day (said to be attending a soccer game).

There is one video excerpt documenting the second class (B1), with a total enrolment of ten students (six boys and four girls), ages 8 and 9—third and fourth graders. There are three video excerpts documenting the third class (B2-1, B2-2, and B2-3) with a total enrolment of seven students (four girls and three boys) ages 11 and 12—fifth and sixth graders. Simply stated, there are four video excerpts from academy A and four excerpts from academy B. The proficiency levels range from low-beginner (B1) to high-beginner (B2), with the A1 group falling somewhere between. These characteristics of the classes are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary of students participating in this study by gender, age and level

Academy/ Class	Total Learners	Girls	Boys	Grade/Age	Level
A1	9 Students	3	6	Grades 4 and 5 Ages 9 ~ 11	Beginner
B1	10 Students	4	6	Grades 3 and 4 Ages 8 ~ 9	Low-beginner
B2	7 Students Total: 26	4 Total: 11	3 Total: 15	Grades 5 and 6 Ages 11 ~ 12	High-beginner

In total, there are 26 students from a middle- to upper-middle socio-economic background. This judgment can be made from the fact that such after-school academies cost a substantial monthly fee to attend.

3.3 The Research Questions

At the forefront of this study is an examination and analysis of how young EFL learners deal with the presentation of knowledge in competitive game-style lessons using computer screen activities. First, there must be a means to examine and analyze the characteristics of triadic interaction—teacher, learners, computer screen activities—which potentially emerge while employing competitive games in this study. Second, it will be useful to explore motivation behaviors that young EFL learners exhibit in participating in these lesson formats. Finally, it will be essential to gather information from the young learners themselves regarding triadic interaction and competitive game-style lesson formats.

The following research questions are intended to guide this study as I explore some answers to these inquiries. The research questions are also proposed as a means to open up a discussion related to CALL and the scaffolding processes involved in triadic interaction using computer-based lesson formats and competitive games in the classroom:

- 1) What are the characteristics of triadic interaction that occur among young EFL learners and their teacher in competitive game-style lesson formats in a computer-based classroom context?
- 2) What types of motivation—as measured on a self-determination theory (SDT) continuum—are exhibited in these competitive game-style lesson formats?
- 3) What are the young learners' views regarding triadic interaction?
- 4) What are the young learners' views regarding competitive game-style lesson formats?

3.4 Definitions of Terms: Triadic Interaction, Scaffolds, and Triadic Scaffolds

To begin with, triadic interaction—as has been previously established—is defined as "the interaction between teacher, learners and audio-visual, computer-based activities presented on a large screen in front of the classroom using a projector or other type of device, such as a large screen television" (p. 3). In addition, scaffolding has been described—on p. 16 of the present study—by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) as "controlling those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capability, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence" (p. 90). Finally, triadic scaffolds have been described earlier in this paper as, "comprised of and [were] coded as [follows]:

(1) S - a teacher verbal strategy; (2) C - contribution of the computer; (3) A - what the strategy accomplishes" (Meskill, 2005, p. 50).

Let's examine the differences between these three, potentially, interrelated concepts. A triadic interaction is simply interaction in an environment in which there is a more able participant (usually a teacher), a less able participant (usually a student/learner), and a means to transfer knowledge (a book, a map, a field trip, or, in the present case, computer screen English activities). A scaffold is evidence of some sort of completion, a result that occurs within or following a task or activity. A successful scaffold assumes some transfer of knowledge. Finally, a triadic scaffold, according to Meskill's (2005) model, accomplishes some pedagogical goal by means of interaction between learners and a teacher interacting with content on a computer screen. Therefore—of the three concepts—only triadic interaction leaves open the possibility that there may be no transfer of knowledge taking place—it is simply a particular kind of learning environment; at the same time, there is the possibility that scaffolds may exist and may even be abundant in this environment.

At this point, more background about Meskill's (2005) study will be useful as a means to modify her construct of triadic scaffolds in an effort to transform it into the more comprehensive construct of triadic interaction as it applies to the present study. As mentioned in Chapter Two, Meskill's research relates to a special program in the US public school system where immigrant children are provided extra-curricular assistance in learning English for assimilation into mainstream classrooms. In this program, computers are employed in triadic interaction. Meskill (2005) concludes:

In spite of the often "directed" feel to this teacher's talk ["Mrs. M"], these interactions are eminently social in nature with children fully involved and responsive. The children's careful attending to what gets said and done is clearly evident; their acquisition of the language that gets used and scaffolded is likewise apparent. This is in contrast to the rest of their day in the mainstream classroom where there is little support for comprehension nor opportunity to participate.... In Mrs. M's class, learners actively participate in the conversation by moving the cursor around the screen and clicking the mouse as a form of response while Mrs. M models and forces meaning out of language that is directly related to sight, action, and the immediate social milieu (p. 53).

This approach positions the teacher as the locus of triadic scaffolds. In the present study however—competitive game lesson formats—the locus of triadic interaction is variable: between teacher and learner[s], between the learners themselves, or even between the audio, images, and texts (as activities) emerging on the computer screen and engaging the learners in this medium.

As described above, Meskill (2005) set up a useful construct for classroom interaction involving the teacher, learners and the contribution of the computer: (1) S - a teacher verbal strategy; (2) C - contribution of the computer; (3) A - what the strategy accomplishes (Meskill, 2005, p. 50). A realization of this construct could be seen as: (1) S – the teacher directs the students' attention to the present tense form of the verb on the computer screen: "What's this verb form? Do you remember?"; (2) C – the computer screen content—Who eats a lot of ice cream? as audio and text—anchors the referent, as the teacher gives direction: "Each answer is worth one point. You must answer the question on the screen correctly for your team to receive a point"; (3) A – the teacher elicits an answer by calling on a learner. The learner responds: "My brother eats a lot of ice cream".

In her study, Meskill (2005) identified "triadic scaffolds" as "three dimensions of an utterance that at once aims to teach language, is fashioned to be instructional, and references the computer in a sociolinguistically and instructional way" (p. 50). While this model is useful from a teaching perspective, using computer and screen as tools, the construct lacks an element that would include learner-learner interaction.

In comparison to Meskill's construct then, triadic interaction in this study will involve two general models: (1) teacher-learner(s)-computer screen-based interaction, and (2) learner-learner(s)-computer screen-based interaction. The decision to provide two models of triadic interaction relates directly to the notion of the handover/takeover principle (van Lier, 2004, p. 149). As I suggested in Chapter Two of this study, "When favorable conditions exist, the teacher hands over the lesson content to the learners, and the learners take over the scaffolding process from the teacher's control" (p. 18). This principle can be seen as the transfer of power from teacher to learners, and thus the potential provision of knowledge from more able learners (assuming the role of 'teacher') to their less able classmates. Scaffolding in this situation unfolds in the hands of the learners themselves. They take over the responsibility for their participation and learning, if only for a short time.

The problem of documenting teacher-learner(s) and learner-learner(s) triadic interaction will be addressed by expanding upon Meskill's (2005) construct of triadic scaffolds. The construct in the present study will be coded as follows: (1) 'TCS' as teacher communication strategy; (2) 'LCS' as learner communication strategy; (3) 'TFS' as teacher feedback strategy; (4) 'LFS' as learner feedback strategy. The communication strategy instrument, introduced in Chapter Two (p. 28)—from Dörnyei's (1995) typology of communication strategies—and the feedback strategy instrument, also introduced in Chapter Two (p. 30)—from Ferreira, Moore and Mellish—will be employed in the data analysis.

Also, Meskill's (2005) category, "Contribution of the computer" ('C') will be coded as "role of the computer" ('ROC'), and the category, "what the strategy accomplishes" ('A') will be replaced by "result of the interaction" ('ROI'). The reason for these modifications is that, in the first instance (Meskill's 'C'), "contribution of the computer" doesn't allow for a possible negative role played by the computer. In the second instance (Meskill's 'A'), "what the strategy accomplishes" doesn't take into account that there may be nothing accomplished at all; that is, the results of the interaction may be helpful, harmful or neutral, depending on the circumstances. Therefore, these modified constructs—Table 4 below—broaden the range of possible analysis and interpretation beyond Meskill's (2005) original coding categories.

Table 4: Constructs modified from Meskill (2005) for analyzing communication and feedback strategies as well as the role of the computer and the role of interaction

<p>Triadic interaction: Learner/Learner(s)/Computer:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Learner Communication Strategy ("LCS") Learner Feedback Strategy ("LFS") <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Positive Feedback (PF) b) Negative Feedback as Giving Answer Strategies (GAS) c) Negative Feedback as Prompting Answer Strategies (PAS) 2) Role of Computer ("ROC") (image, audio, text) 3) Result of the interaction ("ROI") 	<p>Triadic interaction: Teacher and Learner(s)/Computer:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Teacher Communication Strategy ("TCS") Teacher Feedback Strategy ("TFS") <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Positive Feedback (PF) b) Negative Feedback as Giving Answer Strategies (GAS) c) Negative Feedback as Prompting Answer Strategies (PAS) 2) Role of Computer ("ROC") (image, audio, text) 3) Result of the interaction ("ROI")
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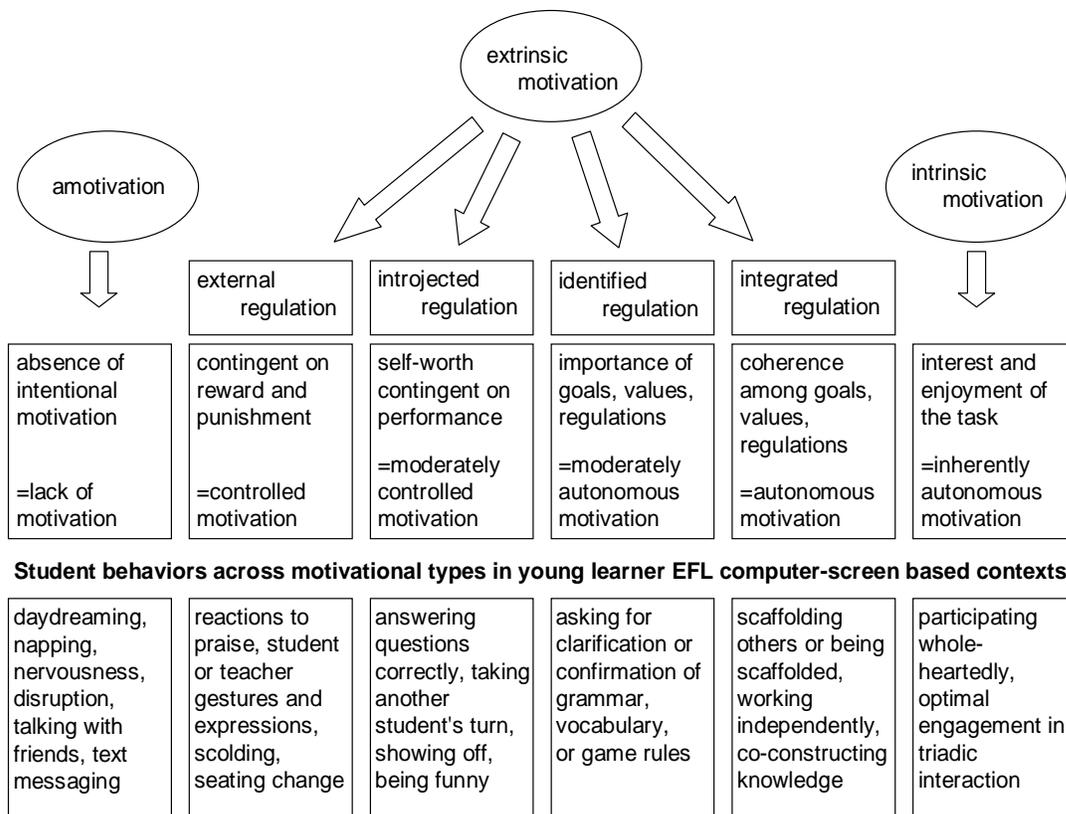
In sum, with a competitive game format and an online curriculum (which have predetermined lesson activities), there are four elements that need to be added as analytical tools: (1) a means to document not only teacher-initiated strategies in triadic interaction, but also potential learner-initiated strategies; (2) a means to document both communication strategies and feedback strategies in triadic interaction (and by extension, both learner and teacher strategies); (3) a

concise taxonomy of communication strategies for *both* learner-learner(s) and teacher-learner(s) contexts; 4) a thorough taxonomy of feedback strategies for *both* learner-learners(s) and teacher-learner(s) contexts.

3.5 Self Determination Theory (SDT) Operationalized for Young Learner Contexts

Clarification of how motivation was analyzed in this study must follow at this point. The diagram below (Figure 2) has been operationalized from the work of Gagne and Deci (2005) discussed in Chapter 2 above. Motivation behaviors potentially manifesting throughout the course of young learner EFL lessons have been added by the researcher in order to more closely match the context of the environment and processes under investigation.

Figure 2: Examples of student behaviors across motivation types in young learner EFL computer-screen based classroom contexts following the SDT model (Gagne & Deci, 2005)



You may recall that Gagne and Deci (2005) suggest that self-determination theory "posits a controlled-to-autonomous continuum to describe the degree to which an external regulation has

been internalized. The more fully it has been internalized, the more autonomous will be the subsequent, extrinsically motivated behavior" (p. 334).

It is possible to suggest that the more autonomous the learners become, the more they may be able to utilize triadic interaction in the classroom. In other words, the more thoroughly they may be willing and able to engage in screen-based activities with the guidance of a teacher and their classmates, the better the chances that these learners may be able to internalize the target language. It follows then, that these learners may possibly become more adept in the process of scaffolding and of *being* scaffolded.

3.6 The Target Population in an Ecological Context

Let me begin by saying that after viewing the video segments for the first time, and then transcribing these interactions, I became aware of how gestures, eye-contact, verbal cues, body language and, most of all, relationships, seemed to have driven the lessons in their unique trajectories. How learners and teachers interact in the classroom is dependent on the ongoing development of relationships. In this way, a classroom can be seen as a set of nested ecosystems. Van Lier (2004) explains: "The context of education can be characterized as a set of ecosystems, each one nested inside the next" (p.208). Van Lier (2004, p. 209) uses the model developed from Bronfenbrenner (1979), whose construct includes three ecosystems that combine to form a *macrosystem*. These three ecosystems were operationalized as follows: (1) a microsystem (e.g., a classroom), (2) a mesosystem (e.g., a school or academy), and (3) an exosystem (e.g., a family, a community, or a culture). Van Lier (2004) furthers this concept, once again borrowing core ideas from Bronfenbrenner (1979), by saying that, "Each ecosystem has its own set of actors and artifacts, and its own pattern of operations and relations. Also, each ecosystem operates on its own time scale and cycles of events" (p. 208). The participants in this study are actors in the microsystem of the classroom, the mesosystem of the academy, as well as in the wider social spheres of the exosystem (i.e., family, community, and culture). Conventional classroom artifacts are tools, such as books and a whiteboard and marker. The artifacts at the forefront of the present study are online computer-screen activities.

In the context of the present study then, the participants are subject to the rules and conventions of the classroom, the classroom is subject to the rules and conventions of the academy—where I was employed—and the academy is subject to the rules and conventions of

the family, community and culture. The community, as defined in this case, includes the family as well as the educational system, both local and national. The point to be made here is that the present study is nested in a complex network of human relationships. Altogether, these three ecosystems (classroom, academy, and family, community, and culture) make up the *macrosystem* in which the research takes place.

Chapter 4 Data Collection Procedures (Design and Administration)

4.1 Data Collection Methods: Overview of the Video Process

Informed consent forms (translated into Korean) were collected from each of the 26 participants (Appendix A). A video lesson was recorded one week prior to the actual shooting in order to determine the optimal location and angle of camera placement as well as to determine the quality of image and audio.

The videos (in the actual data collection) were shot from the back of the room in each lesson. A digital audio recorder (in my shirt pocket) was employed as a backup for the video, but the sound quality of the video footage itself was quite good. The audio files were only necessary in cases where the voices were at very low decibels. The video excerpts were transcribed, and the transcripts were eventually used to analyze the data using the instruments described in Chapter Three. The video-taped excerpts were essential in order to assist my recall of the events that unfolded in each of the three classroom lessons (eight excerpts). The analyses, in terms of triadic interaction, were performed at various intervals—sometimes reconsidered in light of third-party advice—and will be discussed at length in Chapter Five.

A "split-page" device described by Nunan and Bailey (2009, pp. 317-18) was used to organize the data. The format has three distinct organizational processes. Although these processes have been explored in previous chapters, I'd like to offer an outline here. First, discourse (speech) and nonlinguistic means (e.g., gestures and the use of images) were transcribed. Second, forms of triadic interaction were identified in terms of communication (Dörnyei, 1995) and/or feedback strategies (Ferreira, Moore and Mellish, 2007). Third, motivational behavior types—also described as motivation behaviors—were documented according to Gagne and Deci (2005). Table 5 is a data-free copy of the split-page form. Details regarding the implementation of the split-page instrument will be given in the following sections of this chapter.

Table 5: Copy of split-page instrument used in the organization and analysis of the data

Class: _____ Time of Interaction (Video): _____ Form # _____ File _____		
Notes:		
Transcription, triadic interaction and notes on behavior (Student: "A, B, C," etc... and Teacher "T")		
Transcription	Triadic Interaction	Motivation behaviors

4.2 Data Collection and Analysis of Triadic Interaction

The video excerpts were transcribed and studied several times. Consequently, the researcher recorded his perceptions of which types of communication strategies, feedback strategies, and motivation behaviors were taking place in the interaction on split-page forms for each of the eight excerpts.

Table 6 is a composite of the split-page categories that have been employed in analyzing the video transcripts in terms of triadic interaction—communication and feedback strategies—and motivation behavior types as described in previous chapters. It is presented here to give the reader more familiarity with the constructs used in the analyses.

Table 6: Composite of the categories for analyzing the transcriptions in terms of triadic interaction and motivation behaviors.

<p>Triadic interaction: Learner/Learner(s)/Computer:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Learner Communication Strategy ("LCS") Learner Feedback Strategy ("LFS") <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Positive Feedback (PF) b) Negative Feedback as Giving Answer Strategies (GAS) c) Negative Feedback as Prompting Answer Strategies (PAS) 2) Role of Computer ("ROC") (image, audio, text) 3) Result of the interaction ("ROI") 	<p>Triadic interaction: Teacher and Learner(s)/Computer:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Teacher Communication Strategy ("TCS") Teacher Feedback Strategy ("TFS") <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Positive Feedback (PF) b) Negative Feedback as Giving Answer Strategies (GAS) c) Negative Feedback as Prompting Answer Strategies (PAS) 2) Role of Computer ("ROC") (image, audio, text) 3) Result of the interaction ("ROI")
<p>Motivation behavior types developed from the self-determination theory (SDT) model:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 0) <u>amotivation</u>: daydreaming, napping, nervousness, disruption, talking to friends, text messaging, frustration 1) <u>external regulation</u>: reactions to: praise, gestures, expressions, scolding, seating change 2) <u>introjected regulation</u>: answering questions correctly, taking another student's turn, showing off, being funny 3) <u>identified regulation</u>: asking for clarification or confirmation of grammar, vocabulary, or game rules 4) <u>integrated regulation</u>: scaffolding others or being scaffolded, working independently, co-constructing knowledge 5) <u>intrinsic motivation</u>: participating whole-heartedly, includes elements of identified and integrated motivation 	

For each of the eight excerpts, a narrative account of what I have experienced from both an immediate (notes taken during and shortly after the initial video footage), and a delayed perspective (analyses after reviewing the footage time and again) has been offered. The actual transcripts and split-page analyses will be available in the Appendices as well as online.

Additionally, the data have been analyzed in terms of the result of interactions (ROI) and the role of the computer (ROC) for each excerpt as they have been documented on the split-page form. Further, the scope of the overall analysis has been expanded to include triadic interaction as related to the learning environment, the participants—as in any experiment—as well as the researcher's impressions in regards to the videos and transcripts themselves. This process has been employed in order to address research question one: "What are the characteristics of triadic interaction that occur among young EFL learners and their teacher in competitive game-style lesson formats in a computer-based classroom context?"

In the same manner—that is, in analyzing transcripts and video excerpts—an analysis of motivation behaviors has been carried out in regards to research question two: "What types of motivation—as defined on a self-determination theory (SDT) continuum—are exhibited in such competitive game-style lesson formats?"

4.3 Data Collection Methods: Questionnaire

A questionnaire was included in the present study for two specific inquiries relating to learners' views. Such inquiries are embedded in research questions three and four:

- 3) What are the young learners' views regarding triadic interaction?
- 4) What are the young learners' views regarding competitive game-style lesson formats?

17 simple statements regarding triadic interaction and competitive game formats were translated into the students' native language (Korean). The questionnaire was then back-translated into English to check for accuracy. Following this process, the Korean version was piloted with a low level class (not included in this study). The items were carefully constructed following the guidelines in Nunan and Bailey (2009, pp. 130—156). A Lickert scale from 1 ("Not at all") to 6 ("Very much") was employed for each item and the results were treated as interval data. The decision to create a scale of 6 points was made to prevent the young learners from marking the central number ("3" in the case of a 5-point scale) automatically, as they are sometimes inclined to do in order to avoid the 'work' of filling out a questionnaire. At the same time, an 8-point scale

was thought to be beyond the cognitive capacity of some younger learners, potentially causing them confusion. Therefore, a 6-point scale was chosen as a logical option.

In conducting this study, I had been teaching the learners for more than a year using the computer-based curriculum with competitive game formats. Thus, the questionnaire (Appendix B) itself had been fashioned for this study's particular student population. As a participant researcher, I created the questionnaire items in light of how I perceived the learners engaging with both the teacher and with each other. I also considered how the learners engaged with the content on the computer screen. Further, I considered learner behavior in the arena of competitive game formats. These were the criteria I employed when framing the 17 items.

An attempt to embed a test of validity in eliciting responses can be illustrated by the fact that matched item pairs were employed. For example, participants could be asked to mark a number from 1 to 6 ('1' being 'not at all' and '6' being 'very much') regarding the two statements: "I like apples" and "I don't like apples". If both responses were similar/the same, we could assume that the respondent was either mentally dysfunctional or perhaps not paying attention. The following pairs were intended to elicit valid data:

5) The activities on the computer screen are fun.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

6) The activities on the computer screen are boring.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

and...

10) I like using computer screen lessons more than studying with a textbook in English class.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

11) I like using textbooks more than using computer screen lessons when I study English.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

These matched statements served as a check to ascertain if students were merely circling numbers randomly. In the following Chapters, the question of validity—as well as reliability—will be explored in more detail.

The responses from the 26 student questionnaires were tallied and organized. Descriptive statistics (central tendency and dispersion) were calculated for each of the 17 items. Further

analysis of the data gathered—including the matched statements—will be provided in Chapter Six.

The questionnaire was piloted successfully. As mentioned, the questionnaire items were simplified, translated, back-translated, and given to a low-level class (not included in this study). There were no problems encountered in the deployment of the questionnaire in the actual research context; that is, the students filled in the questionnaire in a timely fashion without complaint.

Chapter 5: Analysis of Video Excerpts

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to the analyses of the transcribed excerpts themselves. Recall that the analyses were carried out in terms of communication and feedback strategies in the context of triadic interaction—teacher, learner(s), and computer screen activities—and that these results were further analyzed using the constructs, 'role of the computer' (ROC) and 'result of the interaction' (ROI). In addition, motivation behaviors were operationalized and analyzed in terms of Gagne and Deci's (2005) Self Determination Theory (SDT). These constructs have been discussed at length in the previous chapters.

Expanding the role of the constructs in a wider field of analysis, the results described here are distillations of the interactions in each excerpt as related to the learning environment, the participants, the video content in general, the transcripts, the analyses of feedback and communication strategies, the ROC, the ROI, and finally motivation behaviors as related to SDT (Self Determination Theory). Another way in which to view the process of analysis that the present study hopes to achieve, perhaps in an ecological sense, is the nested systems model offered by van Lier (2004, p. 209) using concepts borrowed from Bronfenbrenner (1979). Recall the comments the researcher made in Chapter 3.

The participants in this study are actors in the microsystem of the classroom, the mesosystem of the academy, as well as in the wider social spheres of the exosystem (i.e., family, community, and culture)... The artifacts at the forefront of the present study are online computer-screen activities (p. 44).

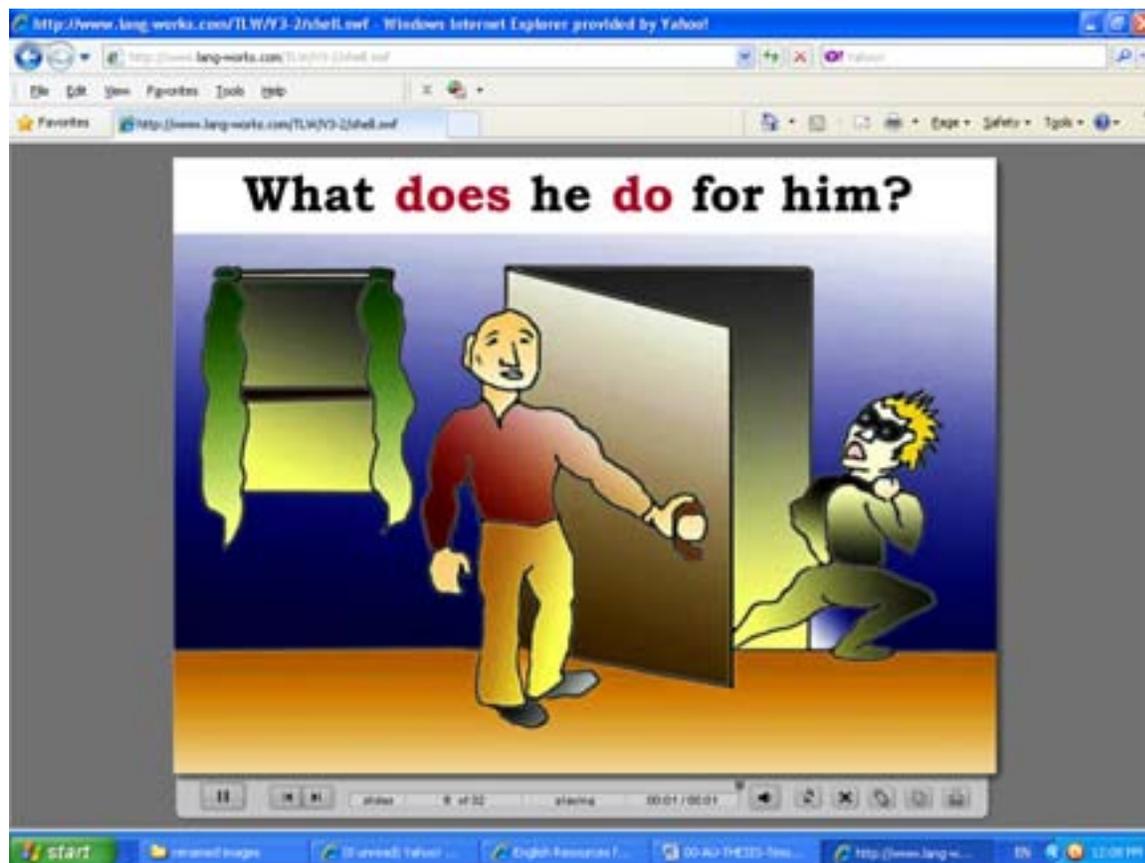
This is to say, the content of this chapter portrays an attempt at a holistic approach to the process of analyzing video excerpts in classroom contexts.

As you may recall, these excerpts were collected from two separate academies—four excerpts from academy 'A' and four excerpts from academy 'B'. Let me urge the reader to view each of the video excerpts online ([click](#)) in conjunction with the related analysis provided in this chapter. Along with the video segments, you may also view the split-page analyses in their entirety which are included in the web links offered at the beginning of each section below. The split-page analyses are also included at the end of this paper—the eight split-page analyses are listed from "Appendix C" to "Appendix J".

5.2 Video Analysis One/Group A1-1([Click to follow link](#)):

The computer screen image used as an activity in Excerpt One—from this point on labeled as "E1", and carried forth as a progression for the subsequent seven activities (E2 ~ E8)—shows a stout man opening his door for a very surprised burglar. It is as if this stout man had anticipated the burglar's arrival, and said burglar (a smallish figure) had experienced shock at finding someone at home. The question is posed both as audio and as text, which is written above the image on the computer screen, "What does he do for him?"

Image 1: Man opening the door for a burglar (question slide)



As this image is presented, the mood in the room is bright, and the students appear lively. The classroom is spacious and lit well and there is a large screen at the front of the room showing Image 1 above. There are five students: two boys and three girls. They are between nine and eleven years old. They are studying the present tense and are encouraged to move in a closed to open question and answer sequence (see p. 9 in the present study). Table 7 offers the ROC, ROI, and general observations regarding motivation behaviors in concise form. Each section will include such tables at the outset of the analysis.

Table 7: ROI, ROC, and motivation behaviors for Excerpt A1-1

Excerpt Number	ROI: Result of Interaction	ROC: Role of Computer	Observations of Motivation Behaviors
One (A1-1)	<p>ROI: Learners are becoming more familiar with the movement from a closed to an open question sequence. Though they haven't mastered this process, they are showing a willingness to make attempts to answer the open question successfully.</p>	<p>ROC: The images and text on the screen are an essential part of the meaning-making process. The students are expected to progress their thought processes, to make a connection in their imaginations in order to engage with the open question, 'What do you do for your mom?' This is a process of substitution, presenting a closed question relating directly to an image and following up with an open question using a similar linguistic structure: What do you do for + a familiar person?</p>	<p>Regarding motivation behaviors, what is most notable in this excerpt is that learner B in line 7 attempts to assist his teammate in understanding the question posed, thereby exhibiting forms of integrated regulation. This is not a give-answer move, but an attempt to provide understanding.</p> <p>Also, what will be seen as introjected regulation throughout this analysis in general are the attempts by learners to take a turn—quite obvious in the video and documented from learner C from lines 9 to 11.</p> <p>What becomes apparent to the researcher in this first excerpt is the fact that interpreting motivation behavior—even given the precision of the SDT construct—is problematic. One cannot ascertain the workings of the mind of others merely by associating with them and then documenting this association on video.</p>

The result of interaction (ROI) reads as follows: "Learners are becoming more familiar with the movement from a closed to an open question sequence. Though they haven't mastered this process they are showing a willingness to make attempts to answer the open question successfully." This is encouraging. The learners are engaged to the extent that they are willing to follow the teacher's lead in breaking away from formulated answers into the open territory of creating answers on a personal level.

In this short excerpt, teacher communication strategies—especially nonlinguistic means—and teacher feedback strategies—with an ample use of code-switching—prevail. At the same time, learner feedback strategies (though merely answer-giving moves) are present. These strategies appear to be supported by the computer screen content.

As for the role of the computer (ROC), the observation reads: "The images and text on the screen are an essential part of the meaning-making process. The students are expected to progress their thought processes, to make a connection in their imaginations in order to engage with the open question, 'What do you do for your mom?' This is a process of substitution, presenting a closed question relating directly to an image and following up with an open question using a similar linguistic structure: What do you do for + a familiar person?"

This process—substitution in a closed to open question format—had been trained into the learners participating in this study for more than a year in most cases. In other words, they were familiar with such a question/answer process. In this manner, the closed to open question sequence allowed the learners to use the idea on screen (i.e., someone doing something for someone) as a springboard to access the language of their own experience.

Regarding motivation behaviors, what is most notable in this excerpt is that learner B in line 7 attempts to assist his teammate in understanding the question posed, thereby exhibiting a form of integrated regulation. This is not a give-answer move, but an attempt to provide understanding.

Also, what will be seen as introjected regulation throughout this analysis in general are the attempts by learners to take a turn, quite obvious in the video and documented from learner C from lines 9 to 11.

What becomes apparent to the researcher in this first excerpt is the fact that interpreting motivation behavior—even given the precision of the SDT construct—is problematic. One cannot ascertain the workings of the minds of others merely by associating with them even when the interaction is documented on video. Still, there is enough evidence to make a sound conjecture.

5.3 Video Analysis Two/Group A1-2 ([Click to follow link](#)):

The computer screen image used as an activity in Excerpt Two (E2)—shows a stubborn dog seemingly sitting on his owner's hat so as not to let her go out with her friend. The answer slide posed both as audio and as text reads, "It sits on her hat".

Image 2: Dog sitting on a girl's hat (answer slide)



As this image is presented, the students remain lively but a bit restless, one girl rearranging her coat on the chair. The classroom is the same as in the previous excerpt—there are five students: two boys and three girls between nine and eleven years old. As will be presented in each section of the excerpt analyses, a table (in this case, Table 8) will be offered summarizing the ROI, ROC, and general observations regarding motivation behaviors.

Table 8: ROI, ROC, and motivation behaviors for Excerpt A1-2

Excerpt Number	ROI: Result of Interaction	ROC: Role of Computer	Observations of Motivation Behaviors
Two (A1-2)	<p>ROI: There is triadic interaction between learners, teacher, and screen. It is possible that this interaction assisted the learners in providing a response.</p> <p>ROI: A correct answer to the closed question is given.</p> <p>ROI: The learner successfully answers the open question ("Where do you sit at home?") and the closed-to-open question sequence is accomplished. Teacher's nonlinguistic means (using the computer screen image) and meta-linguistic cues, and the learner's code switching have contributed to the results.</p>	<p>ROC: The excerpt opens with audio, text, and image from the online file: "What does it sit on?" In this image, a girl is attempting to pull her hat out from under her large, heavy dog, as she wishes to go out with her friend, who is waiting in the doorway.</p> <p>ROC: The audio and text confirm the correct answer.</p>	<p>In terms of motivation behaviors, the ambiguity factor is once again evident in the notes in line 12 regarding learners D and E: "There is some ambiguity. If learners D and E were discussing the slide in the context of the lesson, we could suggest a form of 4) integrated regulation. On the other hand, if they were chatting off topic, 0) amotivation would be a proper analysis." At the same time, the learners are employing introjected regulation throughout this excerpt, as the attempt to provide correct answers.</p>

The first ROI reads: "There is triadic interaction between learners, teacher, and screen. It is possible that this interaction assisted the learners in providing a response". This is a general statement that could be made for most portions of each excerpt. The teacher, as common practice, employs nonlinguistic means, gesturing between the computer screen contents and the learners. At the same time, the learners often code switch in a cooperative fashion—relying on their native tongue—in order to negotiate a correct response.

The second ROI reads: "A correct answer to the closed question is given". This completes the first half of the closed-to-open sequence. The teacher now prepares to pose the open question.

The third ROI reads: "The learner successfully answers the open question ('Where do you sit at home?') and the closed-to-open question sequence is accomplished. (The) teacher's nonlinguistic means (using the computer screen image) and meta-linguistic cues, and the learners' code switching have contributed to the results".

Beyond teacher gestures to the screen contents and learner negotiation in their L1, there is little to note regarding communication and/or feedback strategies except for the literal translation of the question word "Where". What's notable is the success of the closed-to-open question

sequence.

The first ROC reads: "The excerpt opens with audio, text, and image from the online file: 'What does it sit on?' In this image, a girl is attempting to pull her hat out from under her large, heavy dog, as she wishes to go out with her friend, who is waiting in the doorway." The image anchors most of the teacher's nonlinguistic means by providing the simple present text at the top of the screen and the obvious focus on the verb "sit" (the large dog on the chair being the dominant image on the screen).

The second ROC reads: "The audio and text confirm the correct answer". Although this is a straight forward observation, the fact that the student chose the open question answer "I sit on my chair" could lead one to assume that the image looming before him—the dog on the chair—inspired his choice, whether consciously or otherwise.

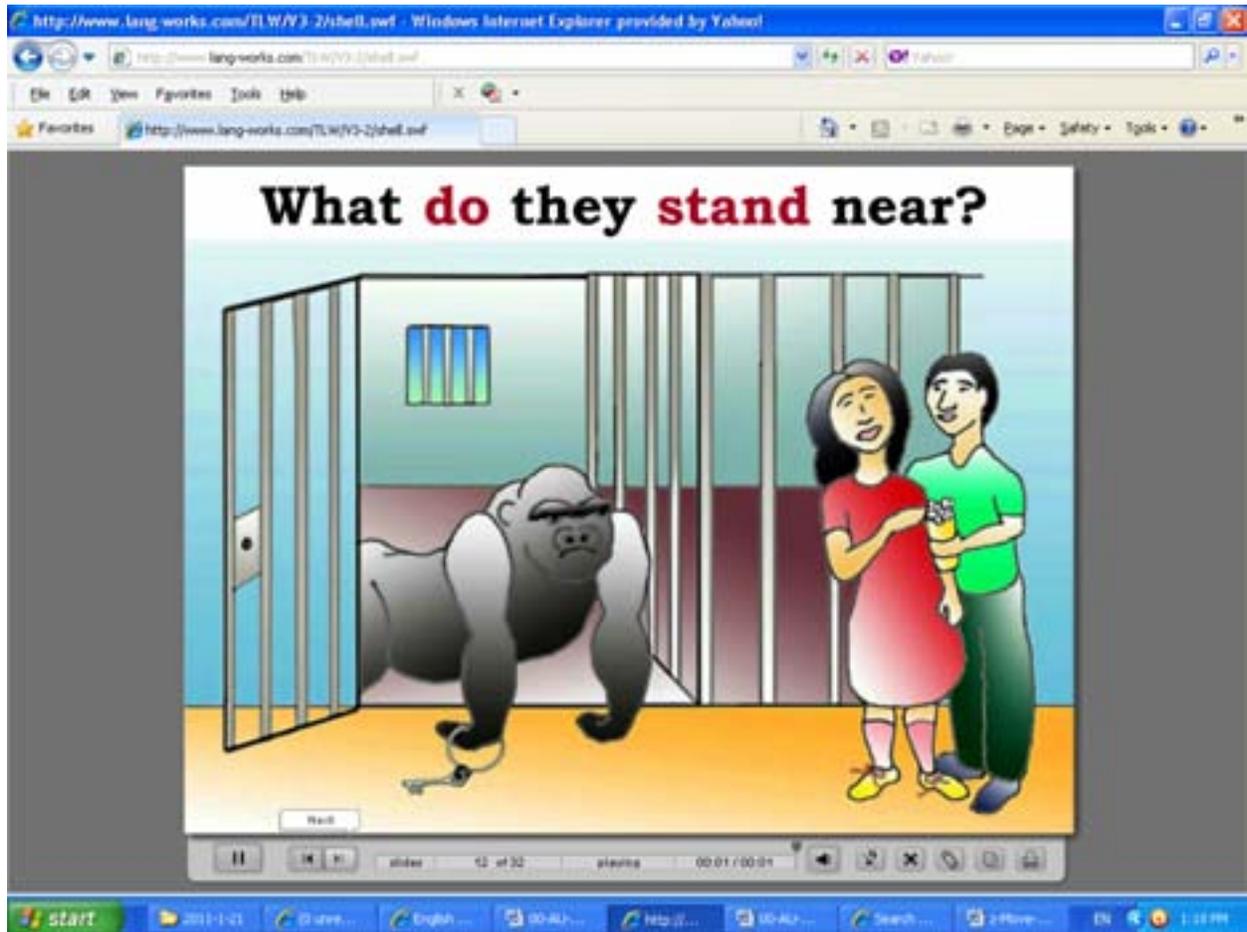
In terms of motivation behaviors, the ambiguity factor is once again evident in the notes in line 12 regarding learners D and E: "There is some ambiguity. If learners D and E were discussing the slide in the context of the lesson, we could suggest a form of 4) integrated regulation. On the other hand, if they were chatting off topic, 0) amotivation would be a proper analysis." The idea of observational ambiguity will be addressed in further sections as well.

As is commonplace throughout the excerpts in this study, the learners in this excerpt often employ introjected regulation in attempting to provide correct answers.

5.4 Video Analysis Three/Group A1-3 ([Click to follow link](#)):

This excerpt documents the same learners as in the previous excerpt interacting with a new image, audio, and text. An image of a couple standing near a gorilla is presented. They are at the zoo, enjoying popcorn, and appear to be unaware that the gorilla (exhibiting an angry visage) has escaped the confines of his cage. The gorilla has accomplished his escape by having used a set of skeleton keys.

Image 3: Gorilla escaping from the zoo (question slide).



In this case, a closed question was posed, "What do they stand near?", yet the interaction went beyond a predictable response and playful tones and humor emerged.

At this point, it may be helpful to discuss the online activity in grammatical terms—the study of present tense verbs—and the learners' relationship to the curriculum. As mentioned earlier, the researcher had been teaching the learners in the present study for over a year. The participants in this study had first been introduced to the present progressive verb and were practicing the simple present form at the time the excerpts were recorded—with the exception of the low-beginner group (B1). Having understood the present progressive form and its relation to time, the learners were then, as the study was taking place, engaged in developing an understanding of the simple present or "habitual" tense, if you will. "We always stand near the gorilla at the zoo," is a reasonable statement, and the learners were trained to accept this as so. I hope the reader will keep this in mind while viewing the video and analyses, as they are indeed excerpts. In fact, in Excerpt Seven (B2-2), the teacher/researcher reverts back to the present progressive form to

emphasize the formal difference with the simple present tense. At the same time, please keep in mind that the focus of the present study is on triadic interaction.

Table 9: ROI, ROC, and motivation behaviors for Excerpt A1-3

Excerpt Number	ROI: Result of Interaction	ROC: Role of Computer	Observations of Motivation Behaviors
Three (A1-3)	<p>ROI: Attention to sentence initial pronouns and humor as a vehicle of 'language play' is evident. The teacher realizes this and accepts the response to maintain the rhythm of the lesson. Student B has often employed 'clever' language play of this type in previous lessons.</p> <p>ROI: The image on the screen has not only provided the opportunity for a form-meaning synthesis ("They stand near the gorilla" as text and image), it has also opened up the potential to create humor ("I stand near the gorilla") that stretches meaning beyond the image and text.</p>	<p>ROC: Audio track in the program activates attention to image, audio and text.</p> <p>ROC: A visual connection exists (the girl on the screen) to meaning-making at hand.</p>	<p>The motivation behavior that stands out in this excerpt relates directly to the notion of language play. One form of introjected regulation is an attempt at being funny. Learner B makes two such attempts in this short excerpt. The first is in line 10 as he restates the mistake that triggered the excitement in the first place ("I stand near the gorilla"). In the second case, in line 18, Learner B makes an attempt to leave the classroom by asking to get a drink of water, arguably a very clever conversational move. As is seen in the antics of learner B in this excerpt, introjected regulation (2) mixes with elements of intrinsic motivation (5). This is to suggest that language play—as described in this excerpt—seems to oscillate between attempts at humor and whole-hearted participation.</p>

There are two notes regarding the ROI. The first states: "Attention to sentence initial pronouns and humor as a vehicle of 'language play' is evident. The teacher realizes this and accepts the response to maintain the rhythm of the lesson". The student answers with "I stand near the gorilla" where the proper answer is "They stand near the gorilla". The teacher then employs nonlinguistic means as a communication strategy to suggest that the girl on the screen is indeed the student herself. The related ROC reads: "A visual connection exists (the girl on the screen) to meaning-making at hand." The implicit lesson here is that the subject pronouns "They" (as the image on the screen reinforces) and "I" (the turn-taking student) have the same verb form in the present tense ("stand"). Further considering the interaction in this segment of the excerpt, it will become apparent that nonlinguistic means is a predominant teacher-generated communication strategy employed throughout the eight excerpts, and that this strategy is an essential element in triadic interaction.

The second note regarding the ROI reinforces the first observation: "The image on the screen has not only provided the opportunity for a form-meaning synthesis ('They stand near the gorilla' as text and image), it has also opened up the potential to create humor ('I stand near the gorilla') that stretches meaning beyond the image and text."

Further, the interaction in the third excerpt could be seen as testimony to Broner and Tarone's (2001) suggestion that "language play is affectively charged. As such, the emotional excitement that comes with language play may simply make the L2 discourse more noticeable, and thus more memorable" (p. 375).

Regarding the first ROC, the note suggests that the "audio track in the program activates attention to image, audio and text." Such activators have three components: an image relating to a general idea or concept (e.g., two people and a gorilla cage), a text relating to a specific component of the image (e.g., the location of the two people), and an audio element reinforcing the text. Stimulus activators of this type are prevalent throughout the curriculum employed in the present study ([The Language Works Curriculum](#)).

The motivation behavior that stands out in this excerpt relates directly to the notion of language play. One form of introjected regulation is an attempt at being funny. Learner B makes two such attempts in this short excerpt. The first is in line 10 as he restates the mistake that triggered the excitement in the first place ("I stand near the gorilla"). In the second case, in line 18, Learner B makes an attempt to leave the classroom by asking to get a drink of water, arguably a very clever conversational move. As is seen in the antics of learner B in this excerpt, introjected regulation (2) mixes with elements of intrinsic motivation (5). This is to suggest that language play—as described in this excerpt—seems to oscillate between attempts at humor and whole-hearted participation. It is important to emphasize the phrase "elements of intrinsic motivation" as "interest and enjoyment of the task" versus "inherently autonomous motivation" (see Figure 2, p. 42). There can be no claim that intrinsic motivation itself is fully accomplished.

5.5 Video Analysis Four/Group A1-4 ([Click to follow link](#)):

Video Four once again presented the image of the gorilla, as an escapee, pausing near the couple, who are visiting the zoo. This excerpt immediately follows the previous one (Excerpt Three, A1-3).

Image 4: Gorilla escaping from the zoo (answer slide)



Table 10: ROI, ROC, and motivation behaviors for Excerpt A1-4.

Excerpt Number	ROI: Result of Interaction	ROC: Role of Computer	Observations of Motivation Behaviors
Four (A1-4)	<p>ROI: Most learners comprehend the word, <i>stand</i>. While many in the class know the distinction between 'sit' and 'stand', one student wishes clarification. The computer screen may potentially enable this type of interaction, while feedback and communication strategies "bring the ball home" so to speak. The encouragement gives the learner the required reassurance.</p> <p>ROI: The learners have grasped the meaning of the vocabulary items, 'sit' and 'stand'.</p>	<p>ROC: Teacher gestures to images on the screen. The picture of the couple at the zoo is further employed to clarify the difference in meaning between 'sit' and 'stand'.</p>	<p>The most salient motivation behavior in this excerpt came from learner B. His response to the teacher's elicitation was a surprise as the elicitation was directed at learner A. B's response (11B: Stand!), actually finishes the teacher's question and can be seen as integrated motivation. We see learner B working cooperatively and co-constructing knowledge with his classmate.</p> <p>But motivation behavior isn't always so simply identified. In the notes on the analysis form, we see that learner A "exhibits 3) identified regulation in asking for clarification... but it's not always clear if A asks questions because he doesn't comprehend or as 'attention-getting' which is a form of 2) introjected regulation."</p>

At the outset of the excerpt, Learner A seeks clarification of the lexical item, 'stand' (line 1: "Stand is what?") and the teacher uses the image on the computer screen in response. The first note regarding the result of interaction (ROI) reads:

Most learners comprehend the word, *stand*. While many in the class know the distinction between 'sit' and 'stand', one student wishes clarification. The computer screen may potentially enable this type of interaction, while feedback and communication strategies "bring the ball home" so to speak. The encouragement gives the learner the required reassurance.

The teacher's nonlinguistic means—gesturing and pointing to the images on the screen—once again anchor the meaning-making process (the difference between the verbs "sit" and "stand"). The accompanying ROC confirms the interactive event in visual terms: "Teacher gestures to

images on the screen. The picture of the couple at the zoo is further employed to clarify the difference in meaning between 'sit' and 'stand'.

At the same time, learner B in line 6 attends to the needs of learner A offering a give answer feedback strategy, even to the point of using the Korean pronunciation of the English word, "stand". The learners then actually stand up and sit back down following the directives of the teacher. By finishing the teacher's question in line 10 ("Where do you...") learner B drives the point home in line 11 ("Stand!"), this time using correct pronunciation.

The second note regarding the ROI reads: "The learners have grasped the meaning of the vocabulary items, 'sit' and 'stand'". The excerpt is a mere 17 seconds, but much is accomplished. There is lexical comprehension and actual physical participation as the learners stand and sit according to the teacher's prompt.

The most salient motivation behavior in this excerpt came from learner B. His response to the teacher's elicitation was a surprise as the elicitation was directed at learner A. B's response (11B: Stand!), actually finishes the teacher's question and can be seen as integrated motivation. We see learner B working cooperatively and co-constructing knowledge with his classmate.

But motivation behavior isn't always so simply identified. In the notes on the analysis form, we see that learner A "exhibits 3) identified regulation in asking for clarification... but it's not always clear if A asks questions because he doesn't comprehend or as 'attention-getting' which is a form of 2) introjected regulation." Gagne and Deci (2005) describe introjected regulation as "a regulation that has been taken in by the person but has not been accepted as his or her own.... It is as if the regulation were controlling the person" (p. 334). In this manner, a learner may be trying out different behaviors (e.g., pretending not to know an element in the lesson) in order to avoid the threat of being left out of the interaction, of being left out in the cold, as it were. Ambiguities in learner motivation behaviors are bound to occur in any analysis, demanding a careful if not flexible approach on a case-by-case basis.

5.6 Video Analysis Five/Group-B1 ([Click to follow link](#)):

The learners participating in this excerpt are younger and at a lower level than those in the other seven excerpts. This is the second class—of three unique student groups—presented in this study with a total enrolment of ten students. Six of the learners are boys and four are girls, ages 8 and

9. They are studying the present progressive tense and are limited to answering closed questions. The focus is mainly phonological and lexical.

The image in the fifth video presents a waiter bringing drinks to a couple, seated at a table, in what appears to be a coffee shop or restaurant with an aquarium in the background. The waiter is in the process of spilling one of the drinks. The room is somewhat narrow and has no windows. Instead of a computer projector and screen, there is a rather large LCD display (see video using the link in the heading above).

Image 5: Waiter bringing drinks to a couple (question slide)

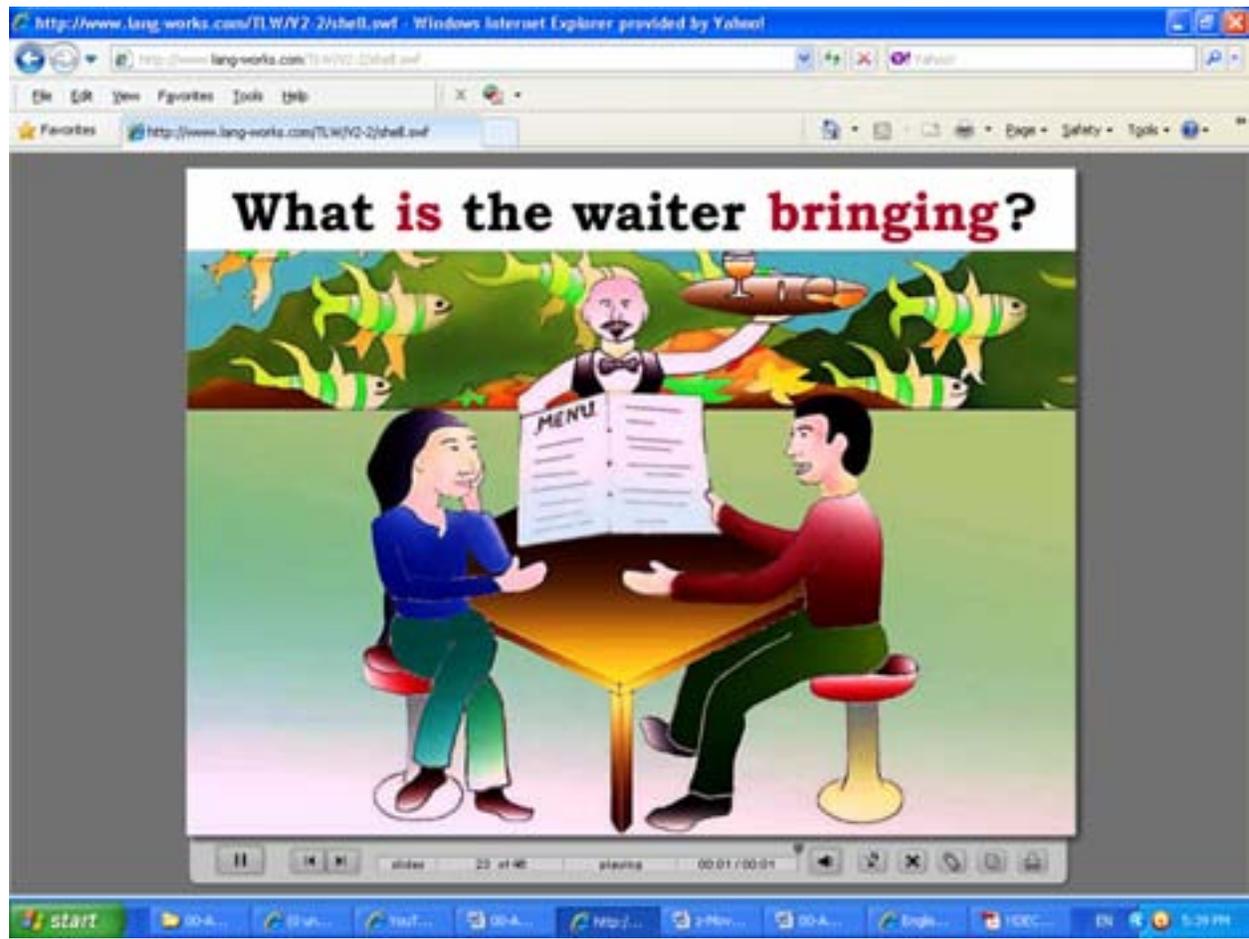


Table 11: ROI, ROC, and motivation behaviors for Excerpt B1

Excerpt Number	ROI: Result of Interaction	ROC: Role of Computer	Observations of Motivation Behaviors
Five (B1)	<p>ROI: The learners, at this level, are highly dependent on the cartoon pictures, audio and text. The result of the interaction is very basic. The learners are beginning to match form with an image and phonology with text. Perhaps the learners' level and cognitive development are below the level of documenting any verbal evidence of scaffolding.</p>	<p>ROC: The question on the screen reads: "What is the waiter bringing?" Students match text and cartoon picture to attempt a correctly formed answer.</p>	<p>The learners frantically (as it their nature at this age) attempt to collaborate to answer correctly—a form of integrated regulation—and finally offer the answer for a reward (introjected regulation), that is, accumulating points for their team. This sequence appears to be frequent in closed question interactions.</p> <p>Still, there is a note regarding lines 7 through 11: 07B ~ 11T: "1) external regulation with elements of 5) intrinsic motivation: Learners chant 'I volunteer' wishing to take a turn. This is a reaction to the open possibilities for turn taking. There is a quality of 'whole-heartedness' but little cognitive effort."</p>

On the lexical level, the learners are associating the verb, 'bringing' with the action exhibited by the waiter, and the noun, 'drinks' with the glasses of juice on the tray, as portrayed in the cartoon. On the level of phonology, the learners are attempting to make the distinction between the phonemes 'b' and 'd' and while many students may have internalized the notion of this variation in sounds, learner B is having difficulty verbalizing the difference between the phonemes in this particular excerpt. There is also a problem regarding word-final epenthesis, for example, learner E in line 25: "He is bringing their drink-es". The ROI in this excerpt sums up the interaction in the following manner:

The learners, at this level, are highly dependent on the cartoon pictures, audio and text. The result of the interaction is very basic. The learners are beginning to match form with an image and phonology with text. Perhaps the learners' level and cognitive development are below the level of documenting any verbal evidence of scaffolding.

The interaction in this excerpt, as mentioned, is mainly phonological, though the focus is on giving a grammatically acceptable answer to a closed question. Still, there is much attention given to the screen content (image and text), and the teacher's nonlinguistic means—not only by

pointing to the screen, but by using encouraging gestures and facial expressions—regarding communication strategies. In line 17, I use the term "reverse foreignizing" to account for learner D's attempt to prompt his mate to produce an acceptable answer using the phrase, "Their dink-kes-su". The notes on the split-page form read: "In the standard case, learners/teachers adjust an L1 word to L2 phonologically or morphologically, but in this case, the L2 word is adjusted to L1 phonologically (therefore, 'reverse' is used in this context)." This is to say that the exaggerated word-final epenthesis for the word "drinks" is used by learner D to ensure that turn taker B recognizes it. Learner D is also doing much work employing the give answer feedback strategy, though his efforts never reach fruition. Learner E on the girls' team eventually succeeds in producing the acceptable response.

Motivation behavior, in this excerpt, has a rhythm or regular pattern. The screen content and the teacher's attention to the image provide a degree of input—learners are trying to match text and cartoon picture to produce an answer. Additionally, the teacher's strategic use of deixis—pointing to the screen, and employing gestures and facial expressions—direct the learners' attention to the question posed: "What is the waiter bringing?" The learners frantically (as it seems to be their nature at this age) collaborate and finally offer an answer that they hope will be acceptable—a form of introjected regulation. This sequence appears to be frequent in closed question interactions.

Still, there is a note regarding lines 7 through 11: "07B ~ 11T: 2) introjected regulation with elements of 5) intrinsic motivation: Learners chant 'I volunteer' wishing to take a turn. This is a reaction to the open possibilities for turn taking. There is a quality of 'whole-heartedness' but little cognitive effort." There is an inevitable discovery whilst attempting to document motivation behavior in which the phrase "elements of..." appear necessary. In this case, because of the learners' exuberance in striving to produce a correct response, the "whole heartedness factor" cannot be dismissed. On the other hand, there is no evidence that any actual learning is taking place.

5.7 Video Analysis Six/Group B2-1 ([Click to follow link](#)):

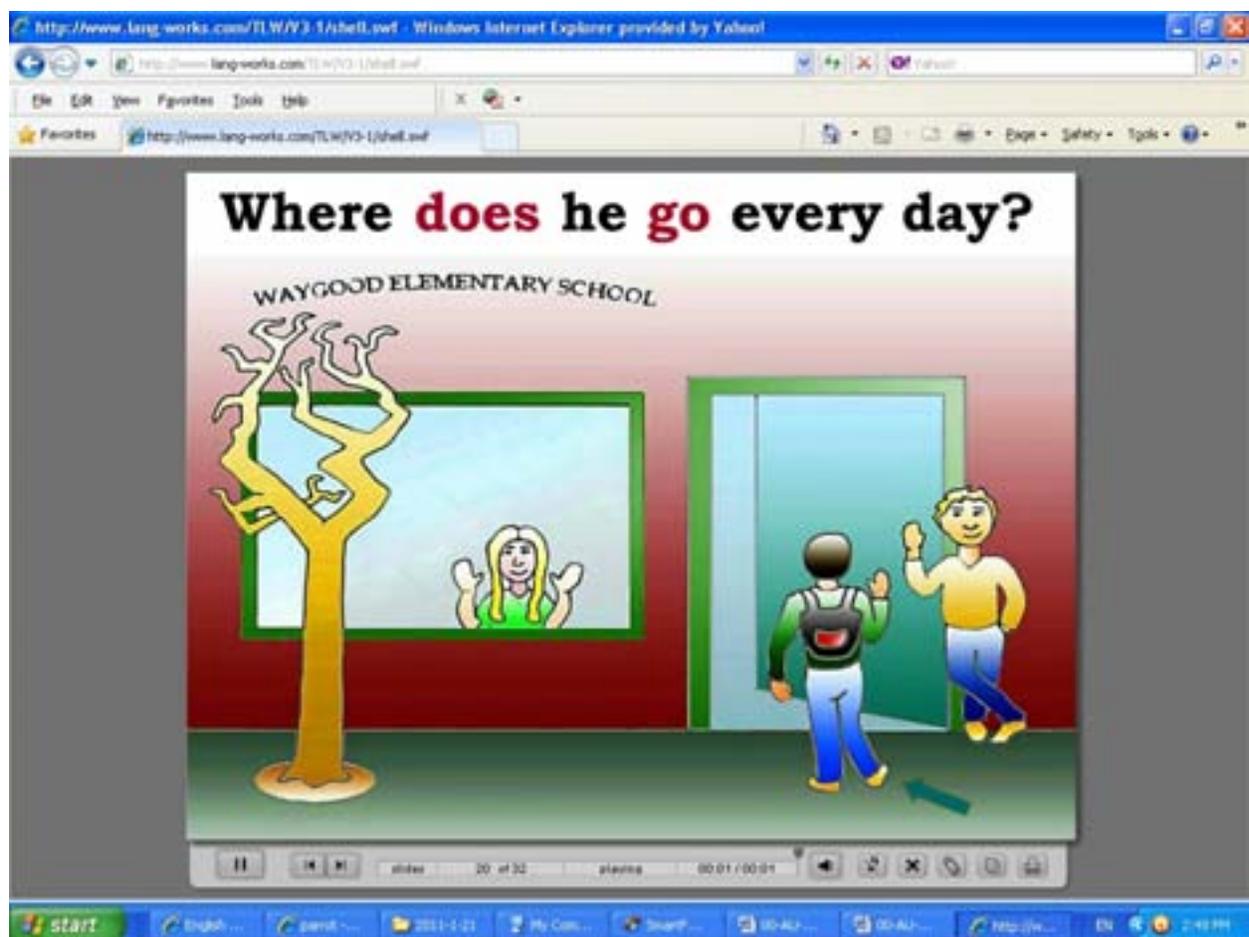
In the final three excerpts (B2-1, B2-2, and B2-3) there were seven students—four girls and three boys—ages 11 and 12. In the first of these three excerpts (B2-1), the simple present tense is the target language focus. The question posed by the teacher is an open one and follows the

previously completed closed question and answer sequence: "Where does he go every day? He goes to school."

The ROC reads:

The image is of a boy going to school. The closed question ("Where does he go every day?") has just been answered ("He goes to school."). In the image, the boy is waving to a friend who stands at the school's entrance. This image is drawn upon to activate attention to the open question: "Who do you meet at school?". The teacher is insisting on a specific answer, that is, the name of the student that the learner is meeting.

Image 6: Boy arriving at elementary school (question slide)



The classroom set-up is the same as in Video Five: a narrow room with no windows and a large LCD display connected to the computer. In this particular class, the boys and girls (on opposing teams) are quite competitive.

Table 12: ROI, ROC, and motivation behaviors for Excerpt B2-1

Excerpt Number	ROI: Result of Interaction	ROC: Role of Computer	Observations of Motivation Behaviors
Six (B2-1)	<p>ROI: In this case, the image on the screen isn't central to the meaning-making; rather, it acts as a kind of anchor or focus for the question ("Who do you meet at school?"). The result of this interaction is that various forms of assistance (both teacher and learner) lead up to a form-meaning mapping as indicated in the final 'correct' or elicited answer. There is a consistent level of learner-initiated feedback and communication activity while the answer to the open question is being negotiated.</p>	<p>ROC: The image is of a boy going to school. The closed question ("Where does he go everyday?") has just been answered ("He goes to school."). In the image, the boy is waving to a friend who stands at the school's entrance. This image is drawn upon to activate attention to the open question: "Who do you meet at school?"</p> <p>ROC: Perhaps the image on the screen (the boy going to school) helped Learner A with the question's completion.</p>	<p>Regarding the motivation behaviors in this excerpt, there seems to be a pattern of movement between identified regulation (teacher and learner assistance) and introjected regulation (learners striving to produce a correct response). This combination is definitely the trend in the video excerpts in this study. As an afterthought, the activity that is most collaborative in nature in the excerpts is teacher-to-learner and learner-to-learner cooperation. There is always a procession, a forward movement.</p> <p>The crescendo of this particular excerpt came near the end, where learner A moves from integrated regulation to intrinsic motivation. She appears to be participating whole-heartedly at this point (38A: "At... <i>at a-ni-yo</i>" which, in English translates as "At ... <i>not at</i>"). She becomes physical in a playful manner as she slaps student E's shoulder in correction and encourages her in a relentless fashion.</p>

As mentioned, the learners in this classroom are 11- and 12-year-olds—from 1 to 3 years older than the learners in the previous two classroom environments. They are also at a slightly higher level than the beginners in the first ("A") class and the low beginners in the previous section ("B1"). This is important to keep in mind as there is apparently more interaction taking place in general.

The ROI in this excerpt reads: "In this case (referring to the elicitation and response of an open question-my note) the image on the screen isn't central to the meaning-making; rather, it acts as a kind of anchor or focus for the question: 'Who do you meet at school?'. " The students share joint attention to the content on the screen, which includes a boy waving to his friend as he

approaches the entrance to his school (see Image 6 above). Further, the teacher uses this opportunity to point to elements on the screen to elicit information. This is further evidence of the importance of nonlinguistic means in a triadic interactive environment.

Further, the ROI in this excerpt reads: "The result of this interaction is that various forms of assistance (both teacher and learner) lead up to a form-meaning mapping as indicated in the final 'correct' or elicited answer." While it can be debated whether the activity in this excerpt exhibits actual scaffolds or whether it is merely a series of parroted responses, the researcher sees the data revealing a level of conscious assistance that is more akin to a scaffold than a parroted utterance.

To my mind, the most salient feature of this excerpt is the use of gestures—as the communication strategy "nonlinguistic means"—both in relation to teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction. It can be assumed that such gestures both engage the learners and play a role in the result of the interaction. One such example occurs in 01T, "Listen, please. (trying to gather students' attention, gesturing with hand to ear)" immediately followed by 02A, "Listen, no (covers her ears)". The learner here is engaging in a form of play, mimicking the teacher's utterance and gesture. Other teacher gestures include using a facial expression to signal an ungrammatical/unacceptable answer (13T), waving a finger at student C and whistling because the learner appears to be dozing off (15T), and arcing the arm to the end of its reach to indicate that a phrase ('at school') belongs at the end of a sentence (22T).

Student gestures include raising arms to solicit a turn, learner eye contact that shifts from teacher to screen to classmates, hand movements (throughout the excerpt), and slaps on the shoulder in prompting and correcting a teammate's utterance (34E to 39E). Perhaps van Lier (2004) offers some insight into the role of gesturing and language learning:

Language is not just brain-resident or located in an abstract mental realm; it is intimately connected with the body (it is embodied) and with gestures, expressions, interpersonal resonance, and so on. These are not just added on frills of language, but they are *constitutive* of language and instrumental in learning (p. 72).

Indeed, it would seem absurd if this particular excerpt were devoid of gestures. It appears that language is certainly embodied in the interactions here, animating the utterances, sending paralinguistic signals of various sorts and providing a means to establish relationships in a communicative dance between the cognitive, personal level and in the linguistic, social sphere.

Turning the attention to strategies beyond the nonlinguistic level, the ROI goes on to read: "There is a consistent level of learner-initiated feedback and communication activity while the answer to the open question is being negotiated". This consistent interplay occurs between Learner A (who is the most active learner in this excerpt), learner E (who is the turn-taker), the teacher (as guide), and the image of the boy going to school on the LCD screen. This, indeed, is triadic interaction as defined in the present study. What becomes apparent in analyzing the data—in terms of the constructs—is that the strategies employed by these young learners is very limited in scope. As the interaction unfolds in this excerpt, nonlinguistic means is central and answer giving and explicit correction are employed in accomplishing the answer to the teacher-posed question. Does this imply a scaffold or does it not? As various definitions of scaffolding have been presented in Chapter Two of the present study, I will leave the question in the capable hands of the reader. Here is what I see: children engaging in triadic interaction in a classroom English environment participating in a competitive game format, attempting to negotiate answers to closed and open questions. In this researcher's opinion, there are no constructs that, categorically, can do justice to the reality of what may be taking place in this excerpt, nor perhaps in any other excerpt. On the other hand, they may move us closer to ideas of what may actually be taking place. The perennial problem persists: How can we know what is occurring in the minds of others, and how can we relate this unknown to the environment in which we exist. The concept and operationalizing of a peer debate process will be introduced in the final chapter of this paper in order to address this issue.

Regarding the motivation behaviors in this excerpt, there seems to be a pattern of movement between identified regulation (teacher and learner assistance) and introjected regulation (learners striving to produce a correct response). This combination is definitely the trend in the video excerpts in this older group of young learners—exhibited in the final three excerpts of this study. In these excerpts there appears to be an abundance of teacher-to-learner and learner-to-learner cooperation. There also seems to be a procession in the interaction, a forward movement. This bucks the trend of the first five excerpts in which identified regulation was rarely documented. The subtle shift—from introjected to identified regulation—was determined by the researcher at the level of cooperation in the observations.

The crescendo of this particular excerpt came near the end, where learner A moves from integrated regulation to intrinsic motivation. She appears to be participating whole-heartedly at

this point (38A: "At... *at a-ni-yo*" which, in English translates as "At ... *not at*"). She becomes physical in a playful manner as she slaps student E's shoulder in correction and encourages her in a relentless fashion. Conversely, the low point (apart from the napping student) could be seen in the reaction of the boys' team to the frustration of waiting for their turn—indeed, they had no chance to answer in this round. The boys were actually quite patient, but there were moments when they attempted a shift in turn-taking from the girl's team to their team. The evidence can be seen in their attempts to encourage the teacher to 'rock-scissors-paper' the girl's team member. Rock-scissors-paper is a win/loss challenge, one person wins and the other loses. The rules of the competitive game format in this classroom setting provide for such a move (employing rock-scissors-paper) when one team is taking up too much time in answering the question. In such circumstances, if the student on the answer-providing team—in this case the girl's team—loses the challenge, the opposing team—in this case, the boy's team—would get a chance to answer. This possibility never played out in this particular excerpt.

In any competitive game format, delays in turn-taking and swings in mood are inevitable. Just watch any competitive sporting event for evidence of the highs and lows that manifest and change dynamically in these contexts. In fact, this would seem to be the nature of excitement, an anticipation of change, the possibility of winning, and the spirit of competition.

5.8 Video Analysis Seven/Group B2-2 ([Click to follow link](#)):

This excerpt occurs shortly after the previous one with the same students participating. The image, audio, and text scheme are different. The students were given the closed question: "Who comes into the room". The answer was correctly stated: "She comes into the room". Points were awarded, and the open question was initiated.

I'd like to introduce the ROC at this point:

As mentioned in the notes above, the teacher is using the present progressive tense as a review. An angry woman is coming into the room. There is a dog with a pizza in its mouth and a baby with its head in a dog dish. The image of the baby is drawn upon to activate attention to the closed question: 'What is the baby eating?'

As has been stated in the heading notes of the split-page instrument of this excerpt:

The file used in this video is an activity that presents simple present verbs that pertain to the cartoon pictures. Even so, present progressive questions and answers were employed at this

juncture in the lesson. Although the students have been focusing on simple present verbs for several lessons, the present progressive form is sometimes presented in order to juxtapose the two forms.

There are occasional movements of this type—from verb tense to tense—in most lessons at this level.

Image 7: Angry woman coming into a room (question slide)



Table 13: ROI, ROC, and motivation behaviors for Excerpt B2-2.

Excerpt Number	ROI: Result of Interaction	ROC: Role of Computer	Observations of Motivation Behaviors
Seven (B2-2)	<p>ROI: The learner's response is rejected by the teacher. The foregoing interaction had been referring to the present progressive form—via the teacher's questions. An attempt was made to guide the learners in the present progressive structural direction and the teacher abandoned student C's turn. She reverted to the simple present form—which was grammatically inappropriate to the question—transferring the turn-taking to the boy's team. It must be emphasized that the learners in this excerpt were on the cusp of understanding the distinction between the progressive and simple present forms at this point in their course of study. The distinction between verb tenses is complex to these young learners. Because of this, there was a lot of teacher control in this excerpt (which is mostly feedback).</p> <p>ROI: Obviously, the level of competition is at its height. Beyond this level, there may be negative results—arguments and even fighting—such that the teacher must be aware of this fact from moment to moment. The teacher must also know the students well enough to diffuse such conflicts.</p>	<p>ROC: As mentioned in the notes above, the teacher is using the present progressive tense as a review. An angry woman is coming into the room. There is a dog with a pizza in its mouth and a baby with its head in a dog dish. The image of the baby is drawn upon to activate attention to the closed question: “What is the baby eating?”</p>	<p>Motivation behaviors tie in well here as the analysis comes to a close. Most of the behavior stems from external regulation (as moves to take a turn) and introjected regulation (attempts to produce an acceptable answer). This is one common motivation behavior pattern that occurs across all excerpts. In addition, evidence of language play is also apparent in some of the excerpts. In the present case, learner C in line 3 is observed: "C makes a word play on 'volunteer' as 'Valentino'. It's quite an intelligent form of humor, as the <i>boys</i> (Valentinos?) are vying for the correct answer." Further, from line 10 to 14, "Learner C, carrying on her antics, makes a correlation between the baby on the screen (and in the closed question) and learner B." Both cases were documented as introjected regulation, yet there is a playful spirit and elements of wholehearted participation involved. It has been suggested in earlier excerpts in this chapter that elements of higher levels of motivation—especially considering the wholehearted participation of some learners—may be evident, at least in part. In other words, flashes of intrinsic motivation may be observed at regular intervals in all their whimsical forms.</p>

In this excerpt what strikes me first is the learners' frenetic focus on creating an answer that reaches an acceptable and grammatically correct form. The meaning, as one easily can see in the image, is at the forefront. It is known. The structure is what keeps the learners from moving on to

the next slide in the game sequence. This is not so much a "form-meaning map" as it is a "meaning-form map".

At line 29, the first ROI reads:

The learner's response is rejected by the teacher. The foregoing interaction had been referring to the present progressive form—via the teacher's questions. An attempt was made to guide the learners in the present progressive structural direction and the teacher abandoned student C's turn. She reverted to the simple present form—which was grammatically inappropriate to the question—transferring the turn-taking to the boy's team. It must be emphasized that the learners in this excerpt were on the cusp of understanding the distinction between the progressive and simple present forms at this point in their course of study. The distinction between verb tenses is complex to these young learners. Because of this, there was a lot of teacher control in this excerpt (which is mostly feedback).

This is a technical issue addressed here to clarify the lesson context for the reader. What is beyond this issue—and, keep in mind, these are excerpts—is the interaction between teacher and learners in a competitive game context. Of course the teacher communication strategies and feedback dominate the field of analysis—mostly nonlinguistic means and explicit correction—yet the engaged learners respond enthusiastically.

Recall an idea expressed by the researcher earlier in the present study: "Too often, young learners are bogged down with drills and repetitive exercises in EFL classroom environments, in which a wedge is driven between the target language and a learner's desire to engage in interaction" (page 10). It's important to note that this "wedge" appears to be nonexistent in the excerpts presented in this study.

The second ROI reads:

Obviously, the level of competition is at its height. Beyond this level, there may be negative results—arguments and even fighting—such that the teacher must be aware of this fact from moment-to-moment. The teacher must also know the students well enough to diffuse such conflicts.

This is basic protocol in any young learner environment. There are as many personalities in any given classroom environment as there are participants, just as there are as many personalities on this planet as there are people. Each of the eight excerpts in this study, while they may be linked

in different ways is considered to be characteristically unique. At the same time, the temporal dimensions across (and beyond) all excerpts are the closed-to-open question sequences as well as any consequent interaction and/or discourse. This is to say that the closed-to-open sequence is a cycle of learning orchestrated by the teacher/researcher, and that this cycle had been trained into the learners for more than a year as the present study was taking place.

Motivation behaviors tie in well here as the analysis comes to a close. Most of learner activity stems from introjected regulation—as moves to take a turn and consequent attempts to produce acceptable answers. This is one common motivation behavior pattern that occurs across all excerpts. In addition, evidence of language play is also apparent in some of the excerpts. In the present case, learner C in line 3 is observed: "C makes a word play on 'volunteer' as 'Valentino'. It's quite an intelligent form of humor, as the boys (Valentinos?) are vying for the correct answer." Further, from lines 10 to 14, "Learner C, carrying on her antics, makes a correlation between the baby on the screen (and in the closed question) and learner B." Both cases were documented as introjected regulation, yet there is a playful spirit and elements of wholehearted participation involved. It has been suggested in earlier excerpts in this chapter that elements of higher levels of motivation—especially considering the wholehearted participation of some learners—may be evident, at least in part. In other words, flashes of intrinsic motivation may be observed at regular intervals, albeit in all their whimsical forms.

5.9 Video Analysis Eight/Group B2-3 ([Click to follow link](#)):

This is the last excerpt in this study and the third of three excerpts observing classroom three. (B2-1, B2-2, and B2-3).

Image 8: Boy writing ABCs on the board (question slide)



The ROC reads:

The image is of a boy writing "ABC" on a chalkboard over and again. The closed question ("What does he write on?") has just been answered ("He writes on the board"). The image is then drawn upon to pose the open question, "When do you write e-mail?".

At this point in the research, I see a positive direction in the learning process—at least with regards to the turn-taking learners—moving beyond the lesson content and into an interactive context. This is the aim of triadic classroom interaction in the present study; that is, moving

beyond prescriptive textual situations into conversational-style contexts. In other words, there has always been a concerted effort to push learners in the direction of creating communication in English from a source—even within their limited range of language learning experience—of personal volition.

Table 14: ROI, ROC, and motivation behaviors for Excerpt B2-3

Excerpt Number	ROI: Result of Interaction	ROC: Role of Computer	Observations of Motivation Behaviors
Eight (B2-3)	<p>ROI: This excerpt exemplifies the ideal triadic interactive event in the classroom. There is a successful closed-to-open question sequence. There is a regular flow of learner feedback and communication techniques, and there is follow-up discussion. The follow-up discussion is the ultimate aim of the classroom model while employing triadic interactive means and modes of teaching.</p>	<p>ROC: The image is of a boy writing "ABC" on a chalkboard over and again. The closed question ("What does he write on?") has just been answered ("He writes on the board."). The image is then drawn upon to pose the open question: "When do you write e-mail?"</p>	<p>Addressing motivation behaviors, I'm finding it difficult to position a proper place for language play and humor on the SDT continuum. Gagne and Deci (2005) define introjected regulation as "contingent on performance" and as related to "self-worth". Documenting interaction on these terms seems to neglect the abundant use of social play in the eight excerpts included in this study. On the one hand, most learners seem to be attempting to "answer[ing] questions correctly" and, on the other, some students—the leaders in particular—appear hell-bent on "being funny". This fork in the road typifies the perennial categorical meltdown of the reductionist paradigm.</p>

As you can see above, the ROI reads:

This excerpt exemplifies the ideal triadic interactive event in the classroom. There is a successful closed-to-open question sequence. There is a regular flow of learner feedback and communication techniques, and there is follow-up discussion. The follow-up discussion is the ultimate aim of the classroom model while employing triadic interactive means and modes of teaching.

The teacher employs his usual nonlinguistic elicitations—as I suggest that deixis can transfer or translate into a form of elicitation and into other strategies as well—and pleasantly finds himself

engaging in conversation (of course led by the outgoing learner B in this excerpt) beyond the original open question: "When do you write e-mail?".

Addressing motivation behaviors, I'm finding it difficult to position a proper place for language play and humor on the SDT continuum. Gagne and Deci (2005) define introjected regulation as "contingent on performance" and as related to "self-worth". Further, they define intrinsic motivation as "interest and enjoyment of the task" but qualify this type of motivation as being "inherently autonomous" (recall relevant sections in Chapters Two and Three in this study). On the one hand, most learners in the eight excerpts seem to be attempting to answer questions correctly and, on the other, some students—the leaders in particular—appear to me to be wholehearted participants. These learners appear autonomous in the sense that they seem driven to interact by their personalities and by a sense of social engagement. I would suggest that this observation cancels out a definitive measure for motivation in a categorical sense. Perhaps the idea of motivation behavior and other constructs should be analyzed from a dialectical perspective. This is to say that in analyzing excerpts of the type examined in the present study (all constructs inclusive), a debate process—between any and all interested parties—could be an alternative to the categorical model. This idea will be discussed in greater depth in the final chapter.

What I suggest here, is that by examining the data in the detail presented in this paper, the process has the potential to provide a deeper insight into what may be transpiring in the complex world of EFL learners in a competitive game format participating in triadic interaction.

As this chapter is coming to a close, I can make a few general statements here that will be reiterated and expanded upon in the final chapter of this paper:

- 1) The most common and apparently successful use of communication strategies for the teacher has been nonlinguistic means. The most common feedback strategies have been mixed, including: repetition (as GAS), explicit correction, metalinguistic cues, and elicitation.
- 2) Learners were not well-versed in communication strategies nor were they proficient in employing feedback strategies, yet they seemed ready and willing to coax their fellow classmates on in producing correct responses for their teams and often utilized nonlinguistic means as a communication strategy (perhaps following the teacher's lead).

Give-answer feedback strategies—more than likely to gain points for their team in the competitive game format—were predominant throughout the excerpts. At the same time, some of the more able learners exhibited a variety of strategies that went beyond this trend.

- 3) While the most common motivation behavior among the learners was introjected regulation (moves to secure a turn and attempts to provide an acceptable answer), an element of wholehearted participation was also evident. This researcher considers wholehearted participation, at least in part, evidence of intrinsic motivation.
- 4) In each of the excerpts—or at least in the first and third classrooms depicted in this study—there seems to be a dominant student figure who introduces an element of play into the interactive mix. Further, these leaders often engage other learners in the overall progression of the lesson.

Chapter 6: Analysis of Questionnaire Results

6.1 Introduction to the Questionnaire

You may recall that, in Chapter Four (p. 48), the questionnaire items were translated into Korean and back translated into English to check for accuracy. The questionnaire results pertain to research questions three and four:

- 3) What are the young learners' views regarding triadic interaction?
- 4) What are the young learners' views regarding competitive game-style lesson formats

A Lickert scale from 1 ("Not at all") to 6 ("Very much") was employed for each item and the results were treated as interval data. Measures of central tendency (mean, median, mode) and dispersion (range, standard deviation, variance) for the ratings on the questionnaire items in the study have been calculated and can be viewed in their entirety in Table 15:

Table 15: Descriptive statistics (central tendency and dispersion) for questionnaire items (n=17)

Questionnaire Items	Measures of Central Tendency			Measures of Dispersion		
	Mean	Median	Mode	Range	SD	s ²
1) The cartoon pictures on the computer screen help me understand the English sentences.	4.654	5	5	6	1.384	1.915
2) The photos on the computer screen help me understand the English sentences.	4.269	5	5	6	1.614	2.605
3) The words and sentences on the computer screen help me understand their meanings.	4.615	4	4	5	1.134	1.286
4) The audio voice in the lessons helps me understand the English sounds and words.	4.731	5	6	5	1.218	1.485
5) The activities on the computer screen are fun.	4.885	5	6	4	1.071	1.146
6) The activities on the computer screen are boring.	2.192	3	1	5	1.234	1.522
7) When my teacher points to the screen, I can better understand words and sentences.	4.346	4	6	5	1.129	1.275
8) When I point to the screen, I can help my classmates understand words and sentences.	3.962	4	4	6	1.536	2.358
9) When I point to the screen, I can show my teacher what I don't understand.	4.192	4,5	5	6	1.443	2.082
10) I like using computer screen lessons more than studying with a textbook in English class.	4.846	5,6	6	6	1.461	2.135
11) I like using textbooks more than using computer screen lessons when I study English.	3.231	3	3	6	1.557	2.425
12) I like playing a game with two teams when using the computer screen lessons.	5	5	6	5	1.2	1.44
13) Classmates on my team try to help me when we play computer screen games.	4.654	5	4,6	6	1.294	1.675
14) I try to help classmates on my team when we play computer screen games.	4.577	5	4,6	6	1.332	1.774
15) I like to play games in English class because I like to win.	4.538	5	6	6	1.529	2.338
16) I like to play games in English class because I think they are fun.	4.807	5	6	5	1.357	1.842
17) I can learn English when playing games using the computer screen activities.	4.462	4,5	4	5	1.14	1.298

6.2 Question Pairs and Reliability

I'd like to begin this section with an overview of the definitions of reliability and validity as presented by Nunan and Bailey (2009, pp. 65-66) in a succinct question-style format.

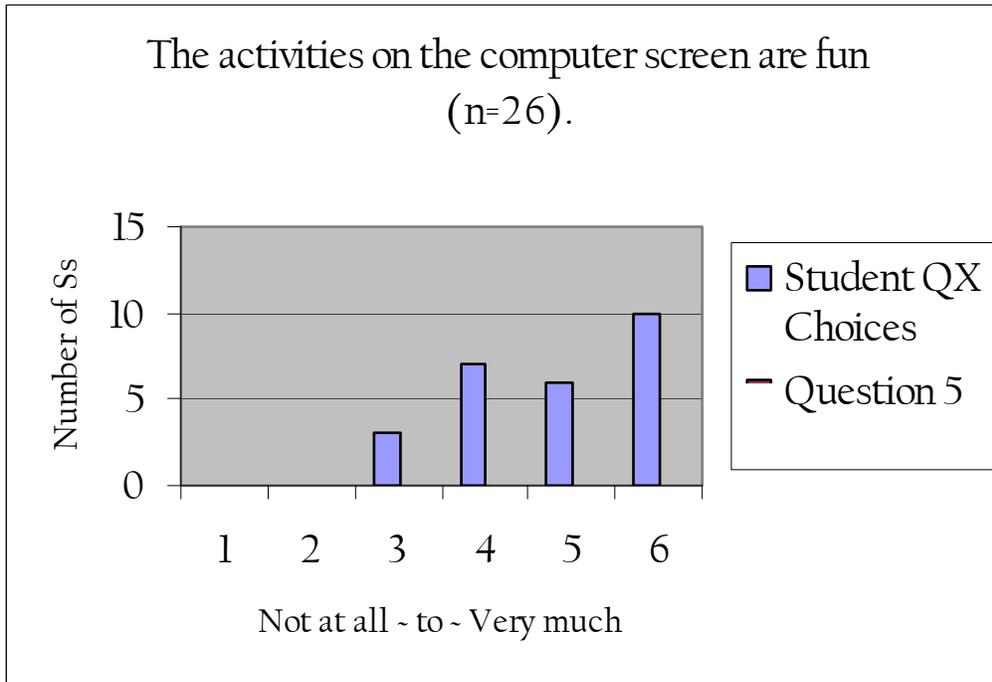
- 1) Internal reliability: "Would an independent researcher, on reanalyzing the data, come to the same conclusions?"
- 2) External reliability: "Would an independent researcher, on replicating the study, come to the same conclusions?"
- 3) Internal validity: Can we "confidently claim that the outcomes are a result of the experimental treatment?"

- 4) External validity: "Is the research design such that we can we can generalize beyond the subjects under investigation to a wider population?"

In the present section, an attempt to claim the internal validity of the questionnaire has been carried out. The question posed is as follows: Are the students actually reading and marking the questionnaires thoughtfully, such that we can "confidently claim that the outcomes are a result of the experimental treatment"? This is to guard against the potential that the participants may be filling in the questionnaire with random whims. With this issue in mind, there are two paired items that attempt to determine the internal validity of the questionnaire in terms of the student responses.

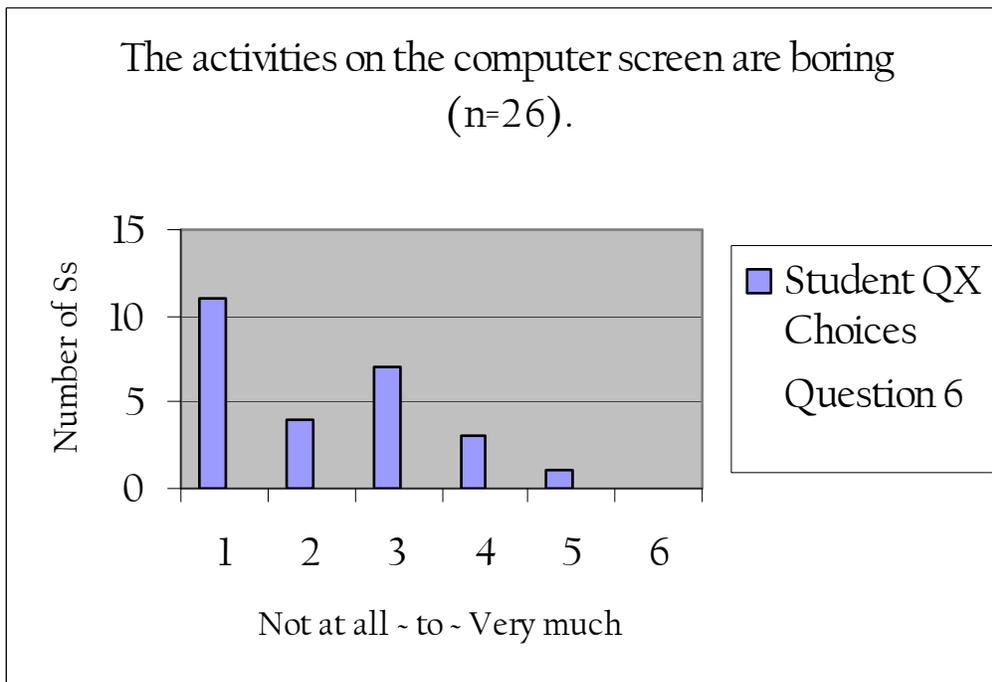
The first pair (questions five and six on the questionnaire presented in Figures 3 and 4) compares the notions of 'fun' and 'boring' as related to computer screen activities. In this pair, it is assumed that an activity cannot be 'fun' and 'boring' at the same time. The difference in the means is 2.693 in favor of online activities. Greater differences in the means, between the paired learner responses, provide evidence for validity in participant responses to the questionnaire. If the means were similar, that would be an indication that the students were not giving thoughtful responses. I suggest that the results exhibit a measure of internal validity.

Figure 3: The notion of 'fun' as related to computer screen activities (Question 5)



Mean: 4.885 Median: 5 Mode: 6 Range: 4 SD: 1.071 s²: 1.146

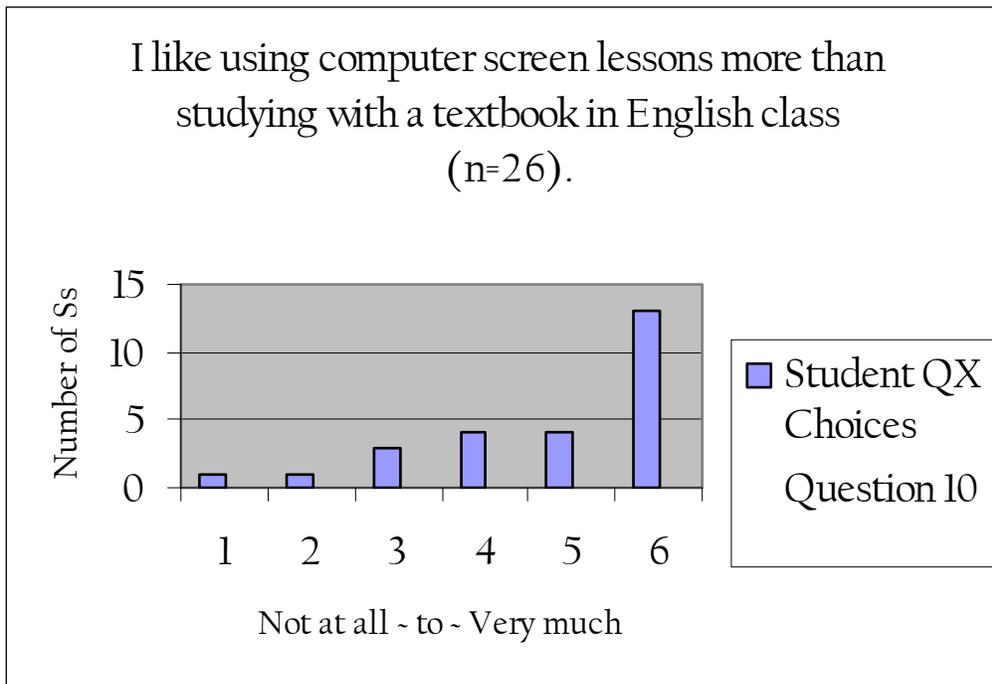
Figure 4: The notion of 'boring' as related to computer screen activities (Question 6)



Mean: 2.192 Median: 3 Mode: 1 Range: 5 SD: 1.234 s²: 1.522

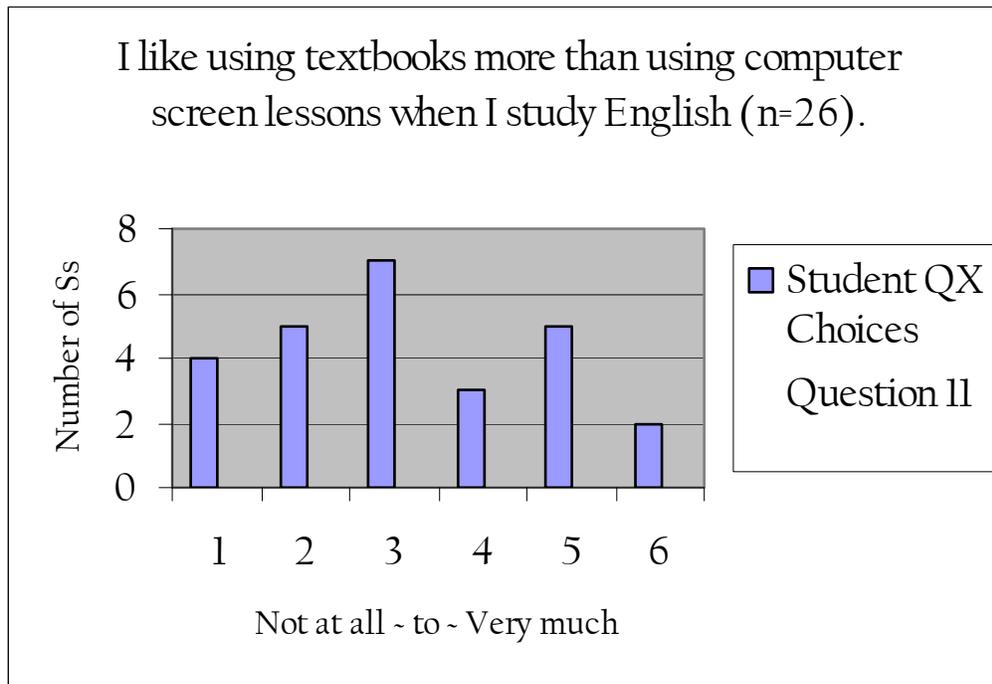
In the second pair (questions ten and eleven relating to Figures 5 and 6) the use of textbooks in relation to computer screen activities in the classroom are explored. Computer screen activities are compared with textbooks in terms of which of the two are seen as preferable as classroom content. The difference in the means is 1.615, in favor of computer screen lessons. As mentioned above, if the responses were similar, the internal validity of the questionnaire could not be established.

Figure 5: Student preference for using computer screen lessons over textbooks (Question 10)



Mean: 4.846 Median: 5,6 Mode: 6 Range: 6 SD: 1.461 s²: 2.135

Figure 6: Student preference for using textbooks over computer screen lessons (Question 11)



Mean: 3.231 Median: 3 Mode: 3 Range: 6 SD: 1.557 s²: 2.425

The standard deviations are similar in the first pair (1.071 and 1.234) with a difference of 0.163 and in the second pair (1.461 and 1.557), with a difference of .096. With such small differences, there is an indication that the learners were answering thoughtfully in both of the pairs examined above.

6.3 Analysis of the Questionnaire Responses

In the present section, questionnaire items have been analyzed in five separate sets: 1) computer screen content and comprehension, 2) deixis and comprehension, 3) competitive lesson formats and scaffolding, 4) motives in competitive game contexts, and 5) notions of learning in computer-based competitive game contexts.

6.3.1 Set One: Computer screen content and comprehension

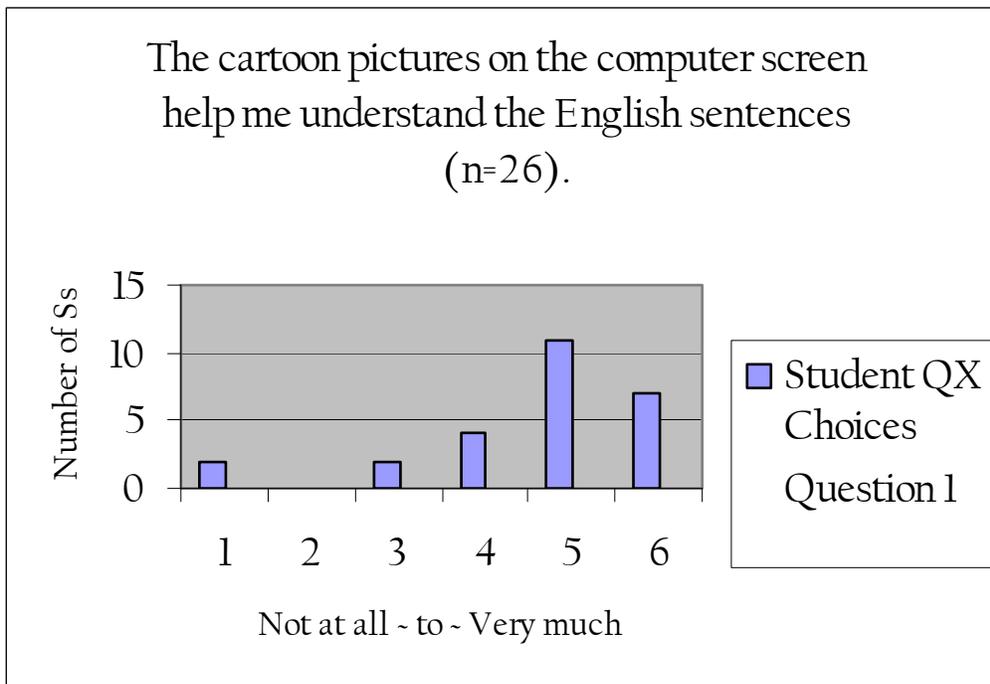
In the first set, questions one through four have a similar relationship to the content on the computer screen: cartoon pictures, photos, text and related audio tracks. They are listed below in proper order:

- 1) The cartoon pictures on the computer screen help me understand the English sentences.
- 2) The photos on the computer screen help me understand the English sentences.

- 3) The words and sentences on the computer screen help me understand their meanings.
- 4) The audio voice in the lessons helps me understand the English sounds and words.

Recall that a Lickert scale ranging from 1 to 6 was used: 1 corresponding to a response of "not at all", and 6 corresponding to a response of "very much". Questions one through four address screen-based content (images, text and audio) in relation to the learners' view of their ability to comprehend lesson content. The first question seeks to determine the degree to which the cartoon pictures assist the learners in understanding the meaning of the sentences presented in the lessons (Figure 7). The mean of 4.654, on a scale of 1 to 6, suggests that the learners feel the cartoon images assist them in understanding the text associated with them.

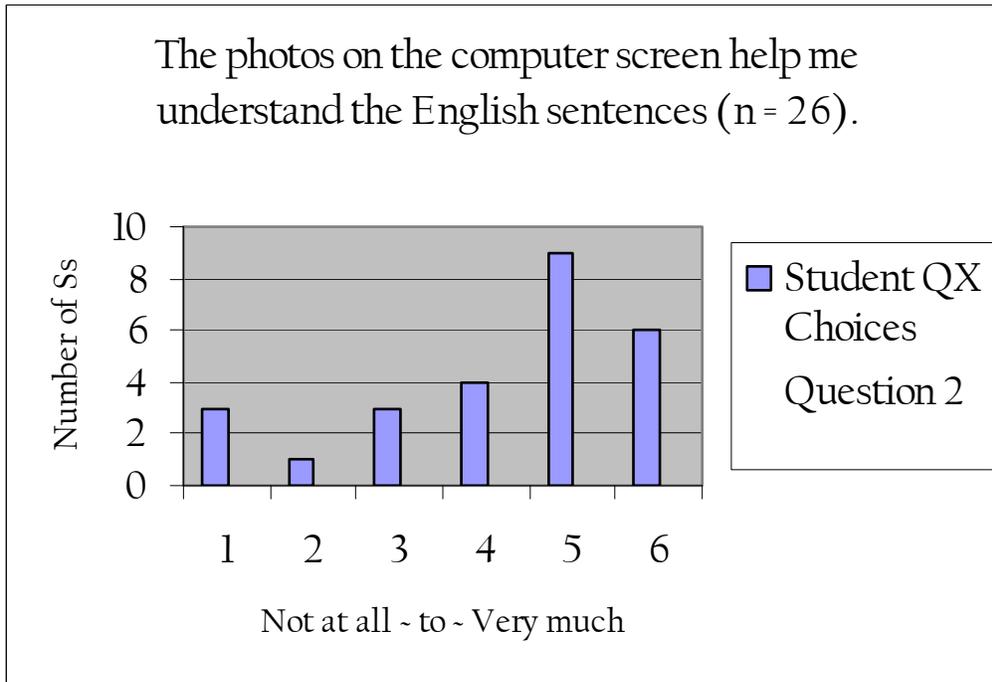
Figure 7: Cartoon pictures and learners' perceived understanding of sentences



Mean: 4.654 Median: 5 Mode: 5 Range: 6 SD: 1.384 s²: 1.915

The second question (Figure 8) seeks to determine the degree to which the photo images assist the learners in understanding the meaning of the sentences presented in the lessons. The mean of 4.269 suggests the learners feel that the photos onscreen assist them in understanding the associated text, but slightly less so than with the cartoon pictures.

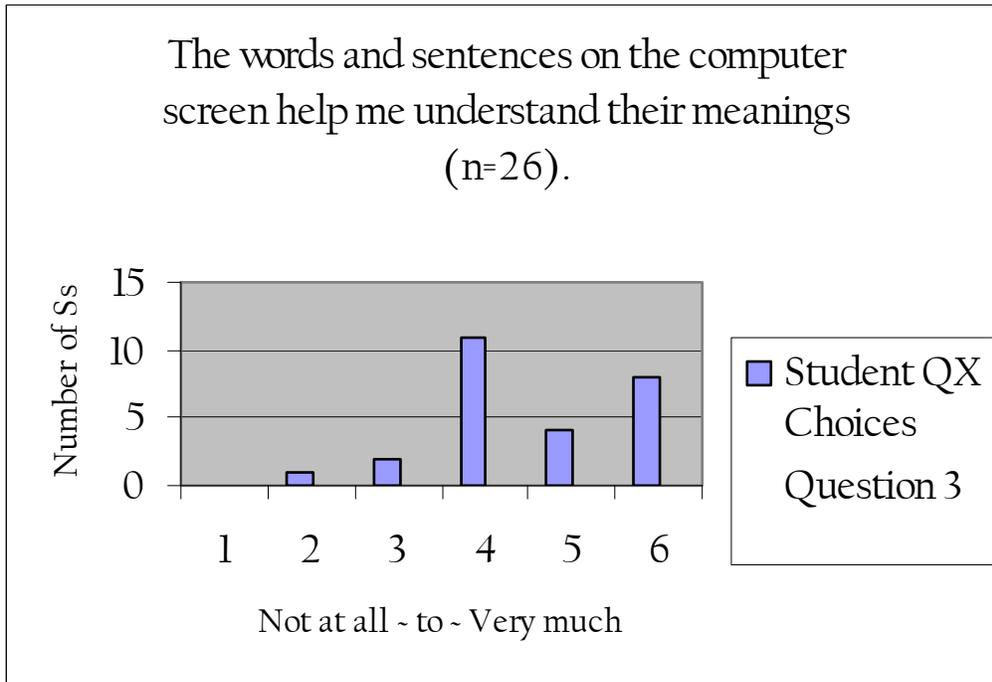
Figure 8: Photos and learners' perceived understanding of sentences



Mean: 4.269 Median: 5 Mode: 5 Range: 6 SD: 1.614 s²: 2.605

The third question (Figure 9) seeks to determine the degree to which learners believe the onscreen words and sentences assist them in understanding their meanings. With a mean of 4.615, it can be suggested that the learners believe that the text onscreen assists them in understanding their meanings.

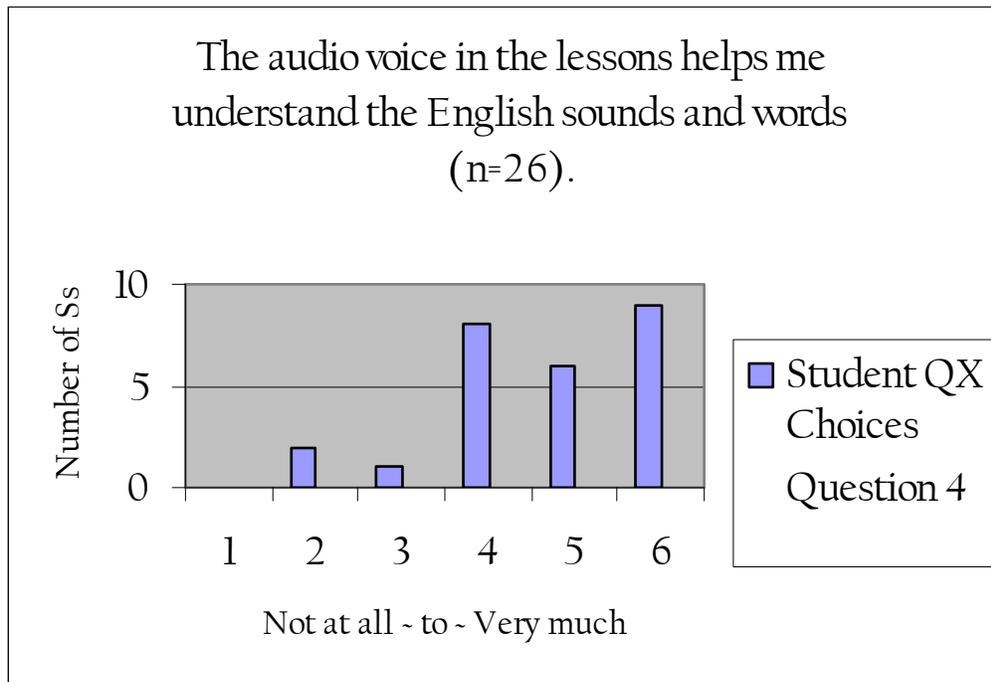
Figure 9: Onscreen words and sentences and learners' perceived understanding of their meanings



Mean: 4.615 Median: 4 Mode: 4 Range: 5 SD: 1.134 s²: 1.286

The fourth question (Figure 10) seeks to determine the degree to which the learners believe that the audio voice assists them in understanding the English sounds and words presented in the lessons. The mean is 4.731 suggesting that the learners feel that the audio track, matching the onscreen text and associated with the image, assists them in understanding sounds and words, or the phonological aspects of the lesson.

Figure 10: Audio voice and learners' perceived understanding of sounds and words



Mean: 4.731 Median: 5 Mode: 6 Range: 5 SD: 1.218 s²: 1.485

The average of the means of the items presented in this set is 4.567 on a scale of 1 to 6. It can be stated that the elements that make up online activities (images, text and audio) in the computer screen lessons in this study, as presented in Figures 7 ~ 10, are seen by the learners as being helpful devices.

6.3.2 Set Two: Deixis and Comprehension

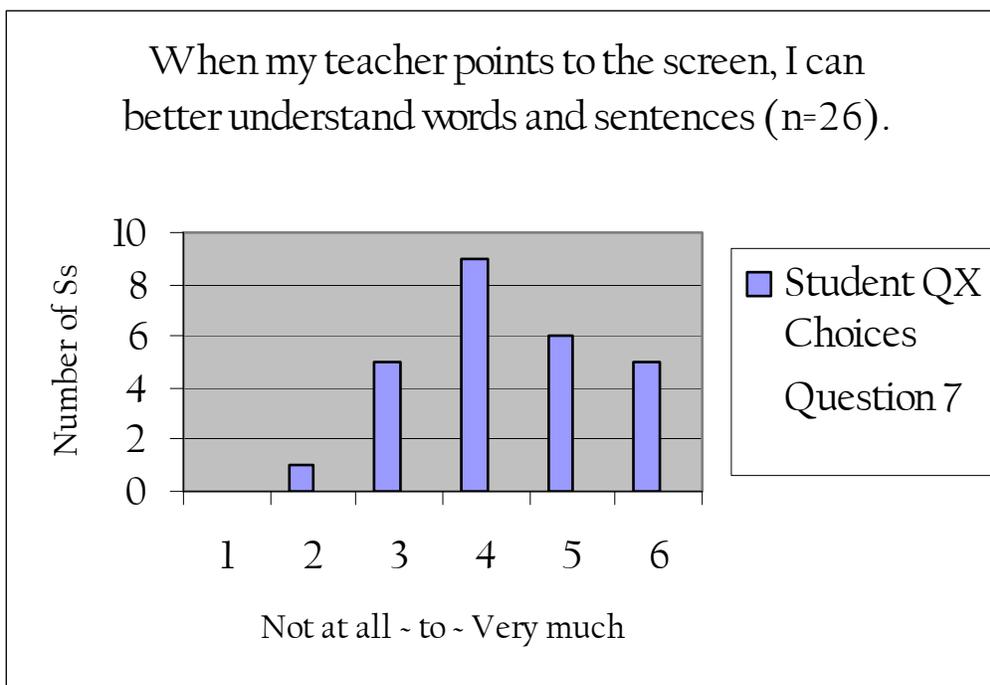
In the second set, questions seven through nine have been posed to determine the relationship between deixis (pointing and referring to objects) and comprehension (of images and text) in using computer screen activities. As van Lier (2004) points out: "Deixis has several functions, the most important of which include indexing, referring and naming" (p. 66). Pointing to images and texts in computer screen lessons is a natural aspect of triadic interaction (student/teacher or student/student and computer screen). In fact van Lier goes on to suggest that deixis is "the gateway into language" (p. 66). Indeed, pointing, referring, and naming allow learners and teachers to understand intentions, to make connections between images, text, and speech, and to eventually co-construct meaning.

Questions seven through nine address deixis and comprehension as an aspect of computer screen activities. The questions are listed below in proper order:

- 7) When my teacher points to the screen, I can better understand words and sentences.
- 8) When I point to the screen, I can help my classmates understand words and sentences.
- 9) When I point to the screen, I can show my teacher what I don't understand.

Question 7 (Figure 11) seeks to determine if the teacher pointing to objects and texts on the screen assists learners in understanding words and sentences. With a mean of 4.346 on the six-point scale, the teacher's use of pointing to images and text is seen as a helpful technique.

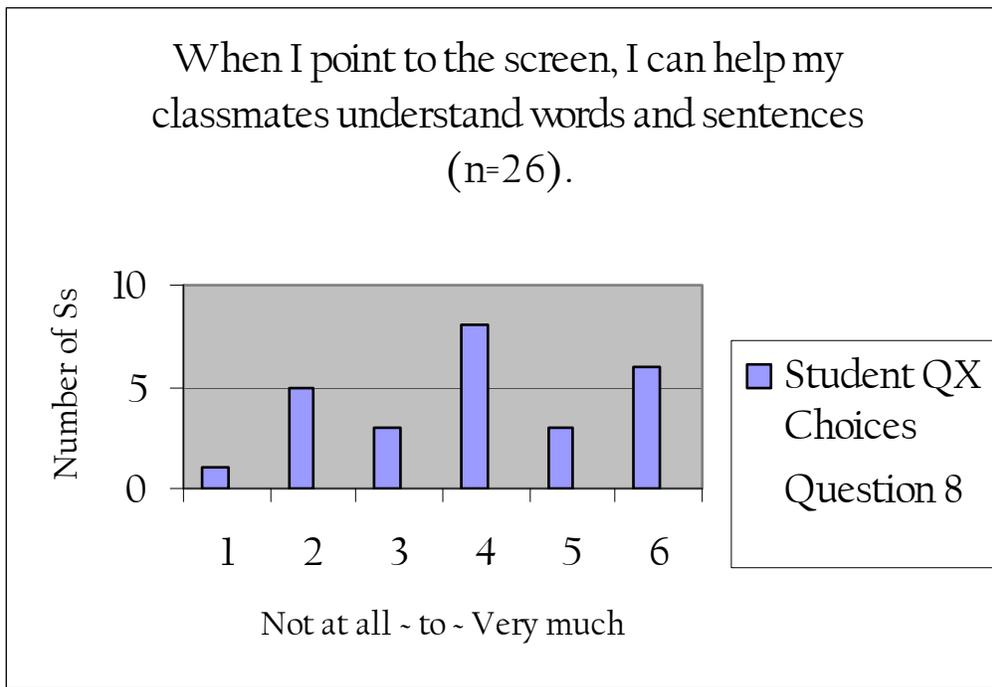
Figure 11: Teacher pointing to the screen and learners perceived understanding of words and sentences



Mean: 4.346 Median: 4 Mode: 4 Range: 5 SD: 1.129 s²: 1.275

Question 8 (Figure 12) seeks to determine if the learners feel they can assist their classmates in understanding words and sentences by pointing to the objects and texts on the screen. With a mean of 3.962, it seems learners feel they can convey some understanding to their classmates by pointing to the content on the screen. However, this mean rating reflects a lower degree of certainty than the rating of teacher indexicality in the previous question.

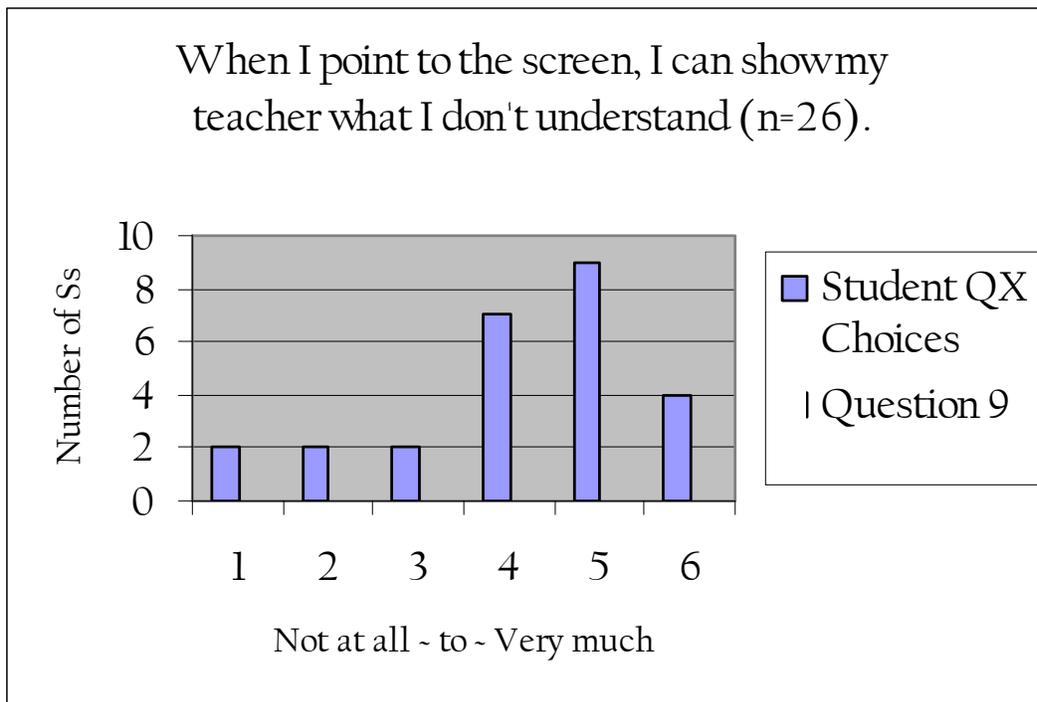
Figure 12: Learners pointing to the screen content and perception of assisting each other in understanding words and sentences



Mean: 3.962 Median: 4 Mode: 4 Range: 6 SD: 1.536 s²: 2.358

Question 9 (Figure 13) seeks to determine if learners believe their efforts—when they point to the content on the screen—assist the teacher in understanding what they don't comprehend. With a mean of 4.192, it can be suggested that learners feel that this type of indexicality is helpful for them to convey to the teacher words and sentences they don't understand.

Figure 13: Learners pointing to the screen content and their perception of the teacher's ability to recognize what they don't understand



Mean: 4.192 Median: 4,5 Mode: 5 Range: 6 SD: 1.443 s²: 2.082

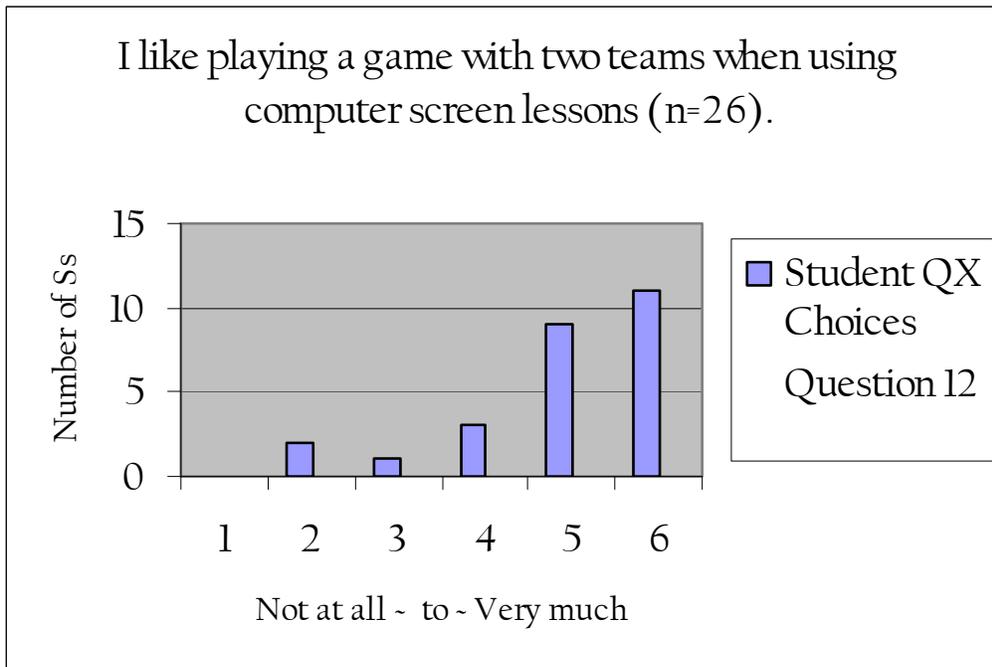
6.3.3 Set Three: Competitive lesson formats and student assistance

In this third set, questions twelve through fourteen reveal learner viewpoints in regards to the nature of competitive game formats in triadic interaction. Question twelve (Figure 14) deals with competitive games ('two teams') as an enjoyable activity ('I like...'). Questions thirteen and fourteen (Figures 15 and 16) deal with learners' perception of their ability to assist one another (as 'help') in competitive game formats. The questions are listed below in proper order:

- 12) I like playing a game with two teams when using the computer screen lessons.
- 13) Classmates on my team try to help me when we play computer screen games.
- 14) I try to help classmates on my team when we play computer screen games.

As mentioned, question 12 (Figure 14) seeks to determine whether or not the learners enjoy playing competitive games using computer screen lessons. With a mean of 5 and mode of 6, it's fair to assume that the majority of the learners in this study enjoy the competitive game format.

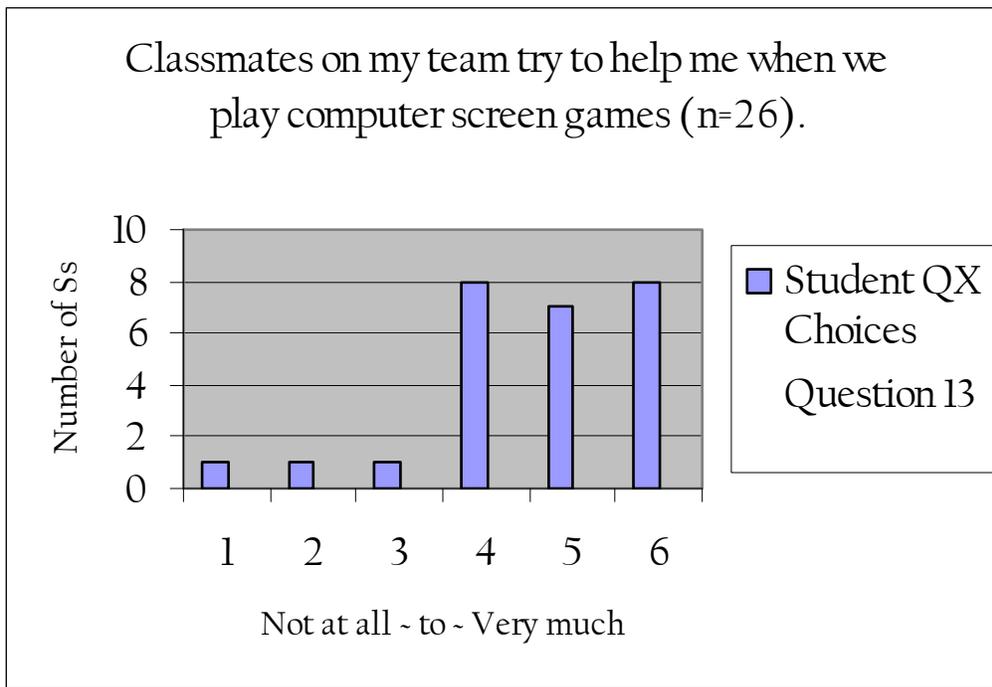
Figure 14: Inquiry into whether learners like playing a game in computer screen lessons



Mean: 5 Median: 5 Mode: 6 Range: 5 SD: 1.2 s²: 1.44

Question 13 (Figure 15) seeks to determine whether or not learners believe that their classmates attempt to assist them while playing computer screen games. The mean for question thirteen (4.654), suggests that learners feel that their classmates do assist them in competitive, computer screen, game formats.

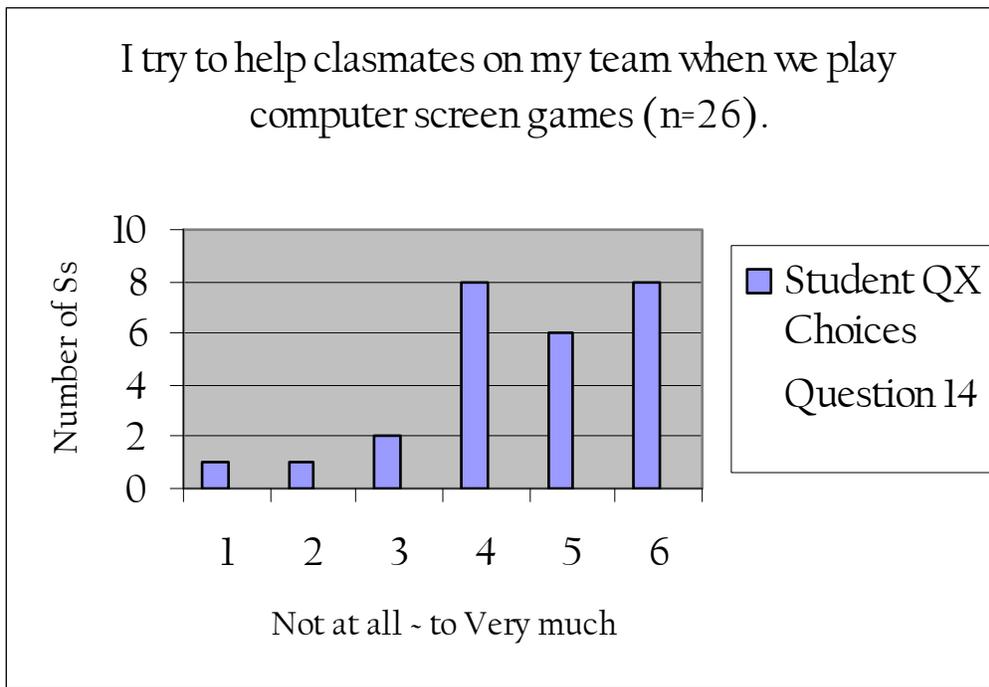
Figure 15: Inquiry into whether learners believe their classmates try to assist them when playing computer screen games



Mean: 4.654 Median: 5 Mode: 4,6 Range: 6 SD: 1.294 s²: 1.675

Question 14 (Figure 16) seeks to determine whether learners believe that *they* attempt to assist *their* classmates while playing computer screen games. The mean for question thirteen (4.577), suggests that learners believe they assist their classmates in competitive, computer screen, game formats.

Figure 16: Inquiry into whether learners believe they try to assist their classmates when playing computer screen games



Mean: 4.577 Median: 5 Mode: 4,6 Range: 6 SD: 1.332 s²: 1.774

The responses to the three questions in this third set indicate that the students are willing to cooperate (to assist others and to be assisted) while playing a competitive game in a computer screen lesson format. It is interesting to note that the mean relating to learner's perceptions of assisting others (4.577) and the mean of their perceptions of being assisted (4.654) are very similar. This suggests that a co-construction of knowledge is *potentially* taking place in competitive games in computer screen lessons.

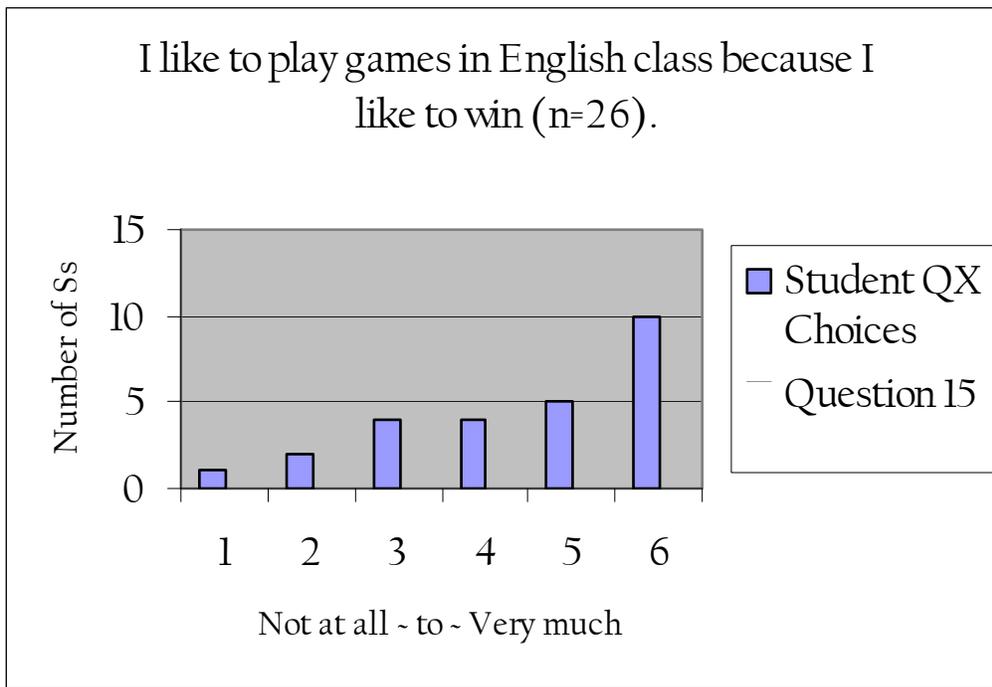
6.3.4 Set Four: Motives in competitive game contexts

Questions fifteen and sixteen (set four) attempt to compare the motives of 'playing to win' and 'playing for fun' in competitive game formats. Question fifteen (Figure 17) seeks to determine whether learners like to play competitive computer screen games because they like to win:

15) I like to play games in English class because I like to win.

The mean for question fifteen (4.538) suggests that learners in competitive, computer screen, game formats enjoy playing to win.

Figure 17: Inquiry into whether learners like playing competitive computer screen games because they like to win



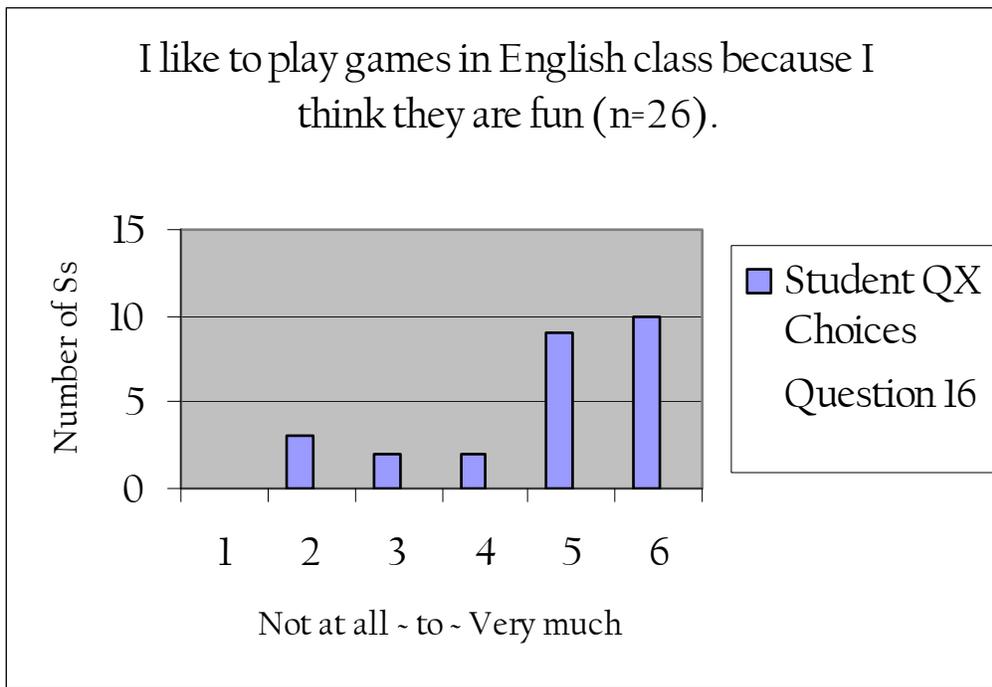
Mean: 4.538 Median: 5 Mode: 6 Range: 6 SD: 1.529 s²: 2.338

Question sixteen (Figure 18) seeks to determine whether learners like to play competitive computer screen games because they think they are fun:

16) I like to play games in English class because I think they are fun.

The mean for question sixteen (4.807) suggests that learners do indeed like this game format because they feel it is fun.

Figure 18: Inquiry into whether learners like playing competitive computer screen games because they think they are fun



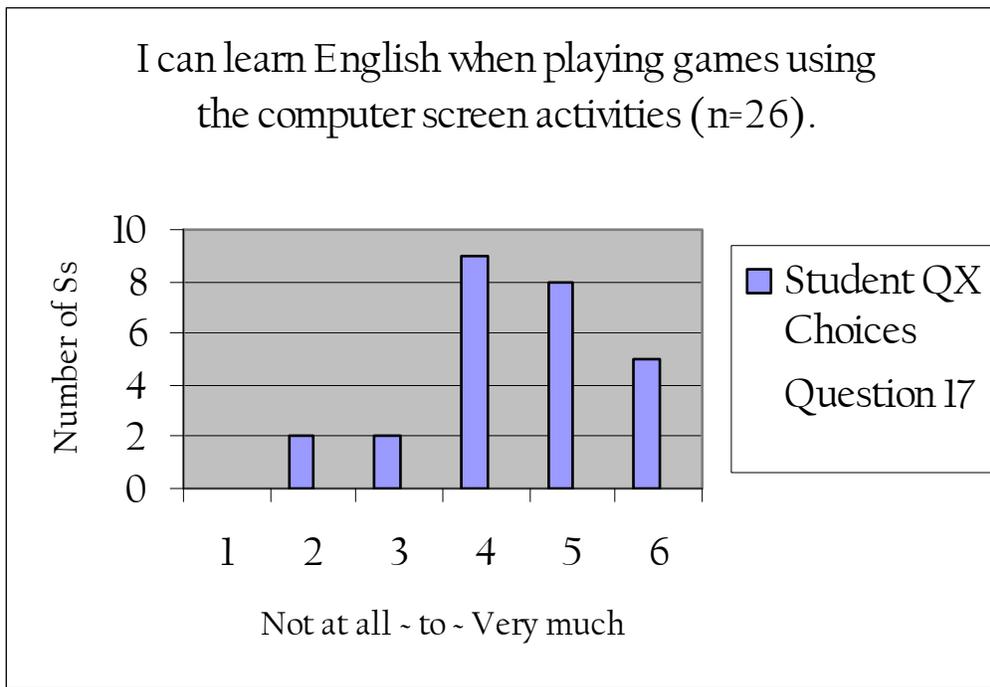
Mean: 4.807 Median: 5 Mode: 6 Range: 5 SD: 1.357 s²: 1.842

6.3.5 Set Five: Notions of learning in computer-based competitive game contexts

The last element in this categorization scheme is a single question and was the last item posed on the questionnaire. It is noteworthy because it addresses the question of whether the participants believe they can learn English while engaging in computer screen lessons. Question 17 examines the notion of learning in relation to computer-screen activities:

17) I can learn English when playing games using the computer screen activities.

Figure 19: Inquiry into whether students believe they can learn English while engaging in computer screen lessons



Mean: 4.462 Median: 4.5 Mode: 4 Range: 5 SD: 1.14 s²: 1.298

With a mean of 4.462 and a low standard deviation (1.14) the results of this item suggest that the majority of learners in this study believe that they can learn English using computer screen activities in a competitive game format.

In summary, it has been determined that there is some degree of internal validity in learner responses to the questionnaire. Consequently, research questions three and four may then be answered with some degree of accuracy regarding the present study:

- 3) What are the young learners' views regarding triadic interaction?
- 4) What are the young learners' views regarding competitive game-style lesson formats?

Expanding upon this notion, there were encouraging results regarding the five sets of inquiry (in the present section) as set forth by the respective items on the questionnaire: (1) computer screen content and comprehension, (2) deixis and comprehension, (3) competitive lesson formats and student assistance, (4) motives in competitive game contexts, and (5) notions of learning in computer-based competitive game contexts. Interpretation of the results will be discussed in the following chapter (Section 7.3).

Chapter 7: Interpretation and Discussion

7.1 Introduction

I would suggest that in most inquiries there will be processes or even results that surprise—or even shock—the researcher due to the unpredictability in which the parade of investigation tends to lead. Nunan and Bailey (2009) offer this insight.

The missteps, blind alleys, false starts, and frustrations that the researchers encountered in the process of arriving at the final products are rarely discussed.... The messiness of the research process is mirrored in the history of scientific inquiry. Just as individual research projects do not grow neatly from conception through gestation to birth, neither does the advancement of scientific knowledge (p. 438).

What first comes to mind regarding my own experience is the tremendous amount of time and effort it takes to transcribe video content into text (transcriptions) and context (employing the constructs). Endless hours are required in order to transcribe the audio and visual aspects of the video footage and to elaborate on the transcripts using the constructs that were created to analyze the data field. Nunan and Bailey (2009) sum up the "payoffs and pitfalls" of doing qualitative studies of the present type.

In sum, time and the propensity to drown in the data are the biggest problems associated with doing qualitative analyses. Yet, it is partly the element of extensive time spent with the data that gives qualitative research its power to illustrate, to illuminate, and to convince readers (p. 435).

I agree that the time spent working with qualitative approaches—which could be referred to as 'immersion in the data'—definitely allows the researcher opportunities for insight that may not be available in purely psychometric approaches.

Moving on, I'd like to return to the work of Lev Vygotsky. You may recall the discussion in Chapter Two (pp. 9, 10) regarding the zone of proximal development (ZPD) summarized—by the researcher—below (Vygotsky, 1978, pp. 84—87):

- 1) Two young learners, both ten years old, were given a standardized test to determine their developmental levels.
- 2) Both learners were scored at an eight-year-old level of development, below the determined level for their age, using a standardized test.

- 3) The two learners were then given the same specific task to be completed with a more able tutor.
- 4) One of the young learners was able to complete the task at a twelve-year-old level of development, while the other completed the task at a nine-year-old level of development.
- 5) The differences between the developmental levels and the assumed tutored-task levels—or between twelve and eight in one case, and nine and eight in the other—were regarded as the respective zones of proximal development.

The focus on learners and their ability to progress with the assistance of a more able tutor or peer is definitely a powerful paradigm in Vygotsky's work. Vygotsky, (1978) himself, summarizes the ZPD in this manner.

The most essential feature of our hypothesis is the notion that developmental processes do not coincide with learning processes. Rather, the developmental process lags behind the learning process; this sequence then results in zones of proximal development. Our analysis alters the traditional view that at the moment a child assimilates the meaning of a word, or masters an operation such as addition or written language, her developmental processes are basically completed. In fact, they have only just begun at that moment (p. 90).

What is essential to the discussion of the results in this paper is the proposition that "the developmental process lags behind the learning process". Perhaps this is counterintuitive for many, but the assumption is that learning has a 'fermentation process,' that it has a 'gestation phase,' that it is, essentially, organic and comes forward in its own good time. The idea that learners can potentially move beyond their level of competence—as measured on standardized tests—in the act of performance—engaging in activity—with the aid of more able interlocutors and/or media, recommends with it a social learning environment that maintains learner interest. Further, interlocutors (teachers, tutors, and more able learners, as well as media) are potential addressees of any given learner's deficiencies. It's obviously a complex process; that is, learning to communicate in a second/foreign language is a struggle that often includes some correction of a learner's target language use. To reiterate, in most cases, dialogue must be collaborative in nature, once again referring to Swain (2000) in that it "allows performance to outstrip competence" (p. 97).

Computer screen activities and the potential learning available for each student can be seen to be equivalent to the zone of proximal development *when* learners are assisted by optimal means—images, audio, text, and, especially, other interlocutors. This is to say, in an ideal zone of proximal development, each learner will progress in relation to her or his own potential while interacting with other learners and teachers in any given moment and on any given day. Meanwhile, the process of co-constructing knowledge may be pushed to its greatest possible potential when all elements—the available means, the learners, and teacher—are functioning in collaboration. As van Lier (2004) puts it, the ZPD is "a multidimensional activity space within which a variety of proximal processes can emerge" (p. 158). By "proximal processes," van Lier is suggesting that utterances, responses, images and text build upon one another to make communication possible. One can imagine the optimization of this 'activity space' in multi-media classrooms where the teacher has access to the flow of images, audio, and text—as well as by employing video and internet content, variables not covered in the present study.

The activity files in this curriculum are multidimensional in the sense that each of them address a particular structure or set of skills as an anchor—such as using present tense verbs—while involving images, audio and text in a competitive game-style format. In such formats, there is a dynamic quality in the interaction that requires a high level of student participation and when the students are engaged in such activities, they are learning to communicate.

In sum, interaction in the ZPD in computer screen lessons can be seen as triadic (teacher, learners and screen) and dynamic (competitive game formats), while the resources (images, audio and text) can be seen to anchor the lesson at a level where learners can manage the content.

7.2 Discussion of Results Relating to Research Questions One and Two

This study generated four sets of data related to the following concepts and analyses: (1) data about various aspects of triadic interaction in screen-based competitive game lesson formats; (2) data about behaviors exhibited in this type of classroom context and how these behaviors relate to motivation; (3) the opinions of the young learners regarding triadic interaction in screen-based activities; and (4) the opinions of the young learners regarding competitive game-style lesson formats. The reader will recall the four research questions listed below:

- 1) What are the characteristics of triadic interaction that occur among young EFL learners and their teacher in competitive game-style lesson formats in a computer-based classroom

context?

- 2) What types of motivation—as measured on a self-determination theory (SDT) continuum—are exhibited in these competitive game-style lesson formats?
- 3) What are the young learners' views regarding triadic interaction?
- 4) What are the young learners' views regarding competitive game-style lesson formats?

The focus in this section will be on the analyses of the data addressing the first two research questions posed.

Regarding research question one, it is important to keep in mind that the characteristics of triadic interaction—documented according to the constructs previously described—occurred, in each excerpt, in a competitive game format. You will recall the first observation delivered at the conclusion of Chapter 5 in the present paper (p. 71):

- 1) The most common and apparently successful use of communication strategies for the teacher has been nonlinguistic means. The most common feedback strategies have been mixed, including: repetition (as GAS), explicit correction, metalinguistic cues, and elicitation.

Also in Chapter 5, excerpt B2-1, it is noted:

[The teacher's] gestures include using a facial expression to signal an ungrammatical or unacceptable answer (13T), waving a finger at student C and whistling because the learner appears to be dozing off (15T), and arcing the arm to the end of its reach to indicate that a phrase ('at school') belongs at the end of a sentence (22T). Student gestures include raising arms to solicit a turn, learner eye contact that shifts from teacher to screen to classmates, hand movements (throughout the excerpt), and slaps on the shoulder in prompting and correcting a teammate's utterance (34E to 39E) (p. 62).

Regarding the teacher's gestures, it is interesting to note that not only were such nonlinguistic moves employed to elicit answers from the learners, but also to engage them in forms of corrective feedback as prompting-answer strategies. For the learners' part, they often engaged each other in very physical forms of encouragement and admonition, using extreme facial expressions and other means (e.g. slaps on the shoulder). In the same chapter, I go on to suggest that:

It appears that language is certainly embodied in the interactions here, animating the

utterances, sending paralinguistic signals of various sorts and providing a means to establish relationships in a communicative dance between the cognitive, personal level and the linguistic, social sphere (p. 62).

Regarding the learner's use of strategic moves in relation to research question one, I'll refer to the second observation made on p. 71 in the present paper:

- 2) Learners were not well-versed in communication strategies nor were they proficient in employing feedback strategies, yet they seemed ready and willing to coax their fellow classmates on in producing correct responses for their teams and often utilized nonlinguistic means as a communication strategy (perhaps following the teacher's lead). Give-answer feedback strategies—more than likely to gain points for their team in the competitive game format—were predominant throughout the excerpts. At the same time, some of the more able learners exhibited a variety of strategies that went beyond this trend.

Here, I offer a few examples from the excerpts where the learners seemed to move beyond the give-answer trend. In excerpt A1-2, "the learners often code switch in a cooperative fashion—relying on their native tongue—in order to negotiate a correct response" (p. 47). This form of communication strategy was common as the learners in this study were not proficient in negotiating solely in the L2. What stands out is the level of cooperation exhibited. In excerpt B2-2 there are intermittent attempts at literal translation, for example: "18B: LCS: Literal translation and appeal for help. Learner attempts (very briefly) to grasp the question's meaning via his L1" (Appendix I). Attempting to translate L2 text into one's L1 couched in an appeal for help is, from my own experience, a bold move for young learners in Korean EFL contexts. Literal translating and code-switching are related: the latter prevalent in attempts at negotiating answers, the former appearing to be a tool in mediation. Both appear to be threaded throughout the excerpts to varying degrees.

Regarding the role of the computer (ROC), as the teacher/researcher in the present study, I can say that the computer screen setup in my classrooms provided greater opportunities to employ the indexing of images and text. In fact, a large screen image optimizes relevant verbal cues, for example, as has been documented in Chapter 5, with the sentence, "It sits on her hat". The text is an obvious reference to the over-sized dog looming near the center of the image (p. 46). By pointing to screen and text, the teacher guides the learners into a meaningful context.

In terms of the quality and type of interaction transpiring in the excerpts—the result of the interaction (ROI)—there is room for both doubt and optimism in terms of the degree to which scaffolding occurred. The definition given by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) described scaffolding as "controlling those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capability, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence" (p. 90). Certainly there are several documented attempts by the teacher—and learners in some cases—to control the elements of triadic interaction that appear to be "beyond the learner's capability" in the excerpts offered in the present study. Pointing to the screen, gesturing, facial expressions, and verbal feedback are all attempts to prompt the learner to step up onto the next rung of the language learning ladder. For example, at the end of excerpt one, the teacher is giving paralinguistic cues to the learners, pointing to the screen content and window, to assist the students in thinking beyond the image on the screen. To clarify, the teacher is trying to elicit a response (including 'window') that is one step beyond the closed question content (relating to the vocabulary 'door' in image, audio, and text). Learner C is taking a turn, but fails to follow the teacher's cues. Learner D follows the teacher's pointing and gesturing and attempts to assist her teammate by uttering, "Window" in lines 15 and 17 (see video excerpt one).

While I interpret many of the acts of assistance in each of the video excerpts as weak forms of scaffolding, another observer may only see attempts at producing correct responses. The point to be made is that when analyzing feedback strategies, communication strategies and motivation behaviors in classroom video excerpts, there is bound to be some discrepancy among those carrying out such analyses.

I'd like to add one more element to the discussion as regarding research question one. It relates to the computer screen content and the closed-to-open question sequence. Once again referring to the first excerpt (A1-1), the students are expected to substitute themselves for the large, bald man and to replace the image of the thief with the image of their mother in order to answer the open question "What do you do for your mom?". Recall that the closed question was "What does he do for him?". This manner of relating to images invites a process of imagination that brings interpersonal communication into the realm of the intrapersonal. As Vygotsky (1978) points out, "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, *between* people (*interpsychological*), and then

inside the child (intrapsychological)" (p. 57). This process of internalizing the various combinations of image, audio, and text had been observed time and again in the teacher/researcher's computer-based lessons as learners were asked to substitute themselves for the characters in the on-screen contexts. The process itself continually changed over time; that is, the relationship between images, audio, text, and participants was dynamic as learners related to the media and internalized knowledge from the different perspectives of the characters and contexts presented. The learners in this study both internalized the media in the activities and projected their ideas onto the images, audio, and text in turn. The process came full circle when the learners assisted their classmates in various ways (e.g., gestures, prompts, and give-answer strategies).

In terms of motivational behaviors—addressing research question two—young learners tended to remain on the weaker end of the SDT continuum, regarding competitive game-style lesson formats. The following notes are carried forward from the end of Chapter 5 (pp. 71,72):

- 3) While the most common motivation behavior among the learners was introjected regulation (moves to secure a turn and attempts to provide an acceptable answer), an element of wholehearted participation was also evident. This researcher considers wholehearted participation, at least in part, evidence of intrinsic motivation.

Let me begin this discussion with an example from section 5.4 (p. 52) in the third excerpt:

As is seen in the antics of learner B in this excerpt, introjected regulation (2) mixes with elements of intrinsic motivation (5). This is to suggest that language play—as described in this excerpt—seems to oscillate between attempts at humor and wholehearted participation. It is important to emphasize the phrase "elements of intrinsic motivation" as "interest and enjoyment of the task" versus "inherently autonomous motivation". There can be no claim that intrinsic motivation itself is fully accomplished.

The observation suggests that while two forms of motivation are identified in the learner's behavior—having employed the SDT continuum as a construct—the reality of what is transpiring in the classroom is more fluid, more akin to an algorithm than a continuum. Perhaps there is a pattern with complex variables, influenced by changing factors in the classroom environment. I would suggest a complexity model better fits the observation. This idea will be elaborated on in a later section in this chapter.

On a more basic and practical level, there are two patterns of motivation behavior that *can* be documented according to the SDT construct in the present study:

Regarding the motivation behaviors in this excerpt, there seems to be a pattern of movement between identified regulation (teacher and learner assistance) and introjected regulation (learners striving to produce a correct response). This combination is definitely the trend in the video excerpts in this older group of young learners—exhibited in the final three excerpts of this study. In these excerpts there appears to be an abundance of teacher-to-learner and learner-to-learner cooperation. There also seems to be a procession in the interaction, a forward movement. This bucks the trend of the first five excerpts in which identified regulation was rarely documented. The subtle shift—from introjected to identified regulation—was determined by the researcher at the level of cooperation in the observations (Section 5.7, p. 63).

To clarify, in the first five excerpts (A1-1 ~ A1-4 and B-1) the learners were younger and at a lower level than those in the final three excerpts referred to here. Introjected regulation appeared to be the rule in these first five excerpts where learners attempted to answer questions correctly to gain points for their teams, employing give-answer strategies. Some learners also appear to have been interested in gaining their classmates attention in various ways. The older group of learners in the final three excerpts (B2-1 ~ B2-3) were more cooperative. They were engaged in negotiating acceptable answers and in winning points for their team, a form of goal orientation, and had exhibited intermittent bursts of identified regulation (see Figure 1, p. 25). From these observations, I would suggest that age and level are variables in determining the advancement of learner competence in motivation behavior if one employs a construct using the SDT continuum.

Further, the combination and movement between identified regulation—teacher and learner attempts to scaffold or assist—and introjected regulation—learners striving to produce correct responses—can be seen as a recurrent pattern. This combination occurs regularly throughout the video excerpts, but, as mentioned above, more overtly in the final three excerpts. For example, the teacher will call on a student to produce an answer, classmates on the same team will attempt to assist the turn-taking learner, the teacher will assist the learner through forms of paralanguage or elicitation, and the learner will make an effort to answer correctly, often with the assistance of a classmate. It is the dynamic combination of teacher-to-learner and learner-to-learner cooperation in a competitive game formats that provides the most active forms of motivational

behavior in this study.

I would suggest that introjected regulation defined by Gagne and Deci (2005, p. 336) as "self-worth contingent on performance" is difficult to pin down in Korean young learner EFL contexts. Learners may be attempting to answer questions correctly. They may be attempting to be humorous. They may be attempting to gain attention from their peers. There may be other motives. From this researcher's point of view, all of the above behaviors may be considered introjected motivation in the SDT model; that is, behaviors in which the learners' notion of themselves in a language learning environment depends on their performance.

The final note from the end of Chapter 5 (p. 72) relating to motivation behaviors reads:

- 4) In each of the excerpts—or at least in the first and third classrooms depicted in this study—there seems to be a dominant student figure who introduces an element of play into the interactive mix. Further, these learners often engage other learners in the overall progression of the lesson.

The learners referred to here will have made themselves known if the reader has been diligent in viewing the eight excerpts that inform research questions one and two, excerpts which have been presented on the related website (eslenglishclassroom.com).

7.3 Discussion of Results Relating to Research Questions Three and Four

The discussion must now revolve around the statistics derived from the questionnaire items in terms of the third and fourth research questions:

- 3) What are the young learners' views regarding triadic interaction?
- 4) What are the young learners' views regarding competitive game-style lesson formats?

The first two sets of data in the questionnaire address research question three:

- a) computer screen content and comprehension, and
- b) deixis and comprehension.

The final three sets address research question four:

- c) competitive lesson formats and scaffolding,
- d) motives in competitive game contexts, and
- e) notions of learning in computer-based competitive game contexts.

Recall the information on the questionnaire process from Chapter 6 in the present study:

A Lickert scale from 1 ("Not at all") to 6 ("Very much") was employed for each item and the results were treated as interval data. Measures of central tendency (mean, median, mode) and dispersion (range, standard deviation, variance) for the ratings on the questionnaire items in the study have been calculated and can be viewed in their entirety in Table 15 (p. 73).

Descriptive data from the following table has been devised to discuss the third research question.

Table 16: Young learners' views regarding competitive game-style lesson formats

Questionnaire Items	Measures of Central Tendency			Measures of Dispersion		
	Mean	Median	Mode	Range	SD	s ²
1) The cartoon pictures on the computer screen help me understand the English sentences.	4.654	5	5	6	1.384	1.915
2) The photos on the computer screen help me understand the English sentences.	4.269	5	5	6	1.614	2.605
3) The words and sentences on the computer screen help me understand their meanings.	4.615	4	4	5	1.134	1.286
4) The audio voice in the lessons helps me understand the English sounds and words.	4.731	5	6	5	1.218	1.485
7) When my teacher points to the screen, I can better understand words and sentences.	4.346	4	6	5	1.129	1.275
8) When I point to the screen, I can help my classmates understand words and sentences.	3.962	4	4	6	1.536	2.358
9) When I point to the screen, I can show my teacher what I don't understand.	4.192	4,5	5	6	1.443	2.082

Regarding the table above, the average mean for these question sets is 4.396. It can be suggested that, on the whole, the learners in this study have a positive view of triadic interaction. Images, text, audio, and deixis are all seen as useful classroom tools to some extent. Item four shows the strongest mean; that is the audio relating to the screen content appears to assist the learners with sounds and words in English. One reason for this may be that young learners in this study's contexts rarely receive instruction where relevant audio is consistently presented with images and text. The weakest mean in these sets, in item eight, may show a moderate level of the learners' lack of self-confidence in using the screen content to assist their teammates. In fact, doing so, in some cases, suggests that learners are willing to take over teacher-type responsibilities in the lesson, if only for brief segments of interaction. Descriptive data from the following table has been devised to discuss the fourth research question.

Table 17: Young learners' views regarding competitive game-style lesson formats

Questionnaire Items	Measures of Central Tendency			Measures of Dispersion		
	Mean	Median	Mode	Range	SD	s ²
12) I like playing a game with two teams when using the computer screen lessons.	5	5	6	5	1.2	1.44
13) Classmates on my team try to help me when we play computer screen games.	4.654	5	4,6	6	1.294	1.675
14) I try to help classmates on my team when we play computer screen games.	4.577	5	4,6	6	1.332	1.774
15) I like to play games in English class because I like to win.	4.538	5	6	6	1.529	2.338
16) I like to play games in English class because I think they are fun.	4.807	5	6	5	1.357	1.842
17) I can learn English when playing games using the computer screen activities.	4.462	4,5	4	5	1.14	1.298

The average mean for these question sets is 4.673. It can be suggested that the learners in this study enjoy, at least to some degree, competitive game formats. Item twelve, addressing the issue of such formats exhibits the strongest mean of 5; in fact the mode is 6 on a scale of 1 to 6. It appears that the learners enjoy playing both because they like to win, and because they think the activity is fun (items 15 and 16). The weakest link in these sets is item seventeen which addresses whether or not the learners feel they can learn English using the competitive game format. The mean is relatively high at 4.462—which on a scale of 1 to 6 (4.462/6) is at a positive rate of 74 %. I would suggest that, in general, the participants in this study think they can learn English by playing games using a competitive format. In fact, the range of the rates in terms of percentages across the relevant 13 questionnaire items—excluding the 4 items operationalized to test internal validity—is from 66 (3.962) to 80 % (4.807) positive.

In this researcher's opinion, according to the statistical results derived from the data—although not overwhelmingly significant—the general trend leans toward a favorable view of both triadic interaction and competitive game formats using computer-screen activities by the participants in these particular EFL contexts. The results are open to debate.

From the data collected in the context of this target population, it will be suggested that:

- 1) Learners believe that computer screen content assists them in comprehending their lessons;
- 2) When either learners or teachers point to the screen, learners believe that lesson content can be more easily understood;

- 3) Learners believe that competitive lesson formats can be enjoyable, and that such formats can encourage them to cooperate and assist one another;
- 4) Learners like competitive game contexts both because they think they are fun *and* because they like to win; and
- 5) Learners believe they can learn English by participating in computer-based competitive game contexts.

Although a holistic approach has been attempted, it is clear that only a portion of reality has been documented. An ecological approach has been attempted in this paper, but the difficulties in carrying out such an approach have become evident: An image of blind researchers trying to describe an elephant comes to mind. The animal is just too big and too complex to comprehend collectively, much less individually. I'd like to end this section with a quote from Leo van Lier (2004), whose ideas inspired the approach to this study:

In sum, then, ecology is presented here as a way of thinking about teaching and learning that should be applicable in all situations, and as a way of working that takes the engaged and active learner as the starting point. It is not a finished system or theory, nor is it a method of teaching. It is just a way of thinking about teaching and learning in all its complexity, a way of looking at language as a tool of many uses, and as a key component of all meaning-making activity (p. 224).

7.4 Theoretical and Pedagogical Implications

To begin, let me suggest that 'ecology' as word and concept—due to the environmental, cultural, social, and consequently an etymological turn—has morphed into a tree of concepts in recent years; it has become extraordinary in its scope of meaning across many of the world's languages. Nonetheless, ecological research, as text and concept must mediate misconceptions.

Perhaps a proper place to begin is to describe what an ecological linguistics is not. A cognitive-minded position regarding language development finds most learning processes occurring within the brain of the individual, among the synapses, and assumes an entrance/exit mode of information transfer. This input-output model of information processing has been applied in numerous studies of second language learning over the years. While this model has been a useful approach in the past, I would agree with van Lier (2004) that, "Information

processing is incompatible with an ecological worldview" (p. 213). Van Lier (2004) goes on to list the fundamental differences between the information processing and ecological models:

- 1) Ecology does not treat information as discrete, fixed items;
- 2) Information is not passively received, but constructed by the living organism through interaction in the environment;
- 3) Information, being created interactively, is always colored by emotion;
- 4) Mind and body form one inseparable unity, so that locating information in the brain is inadequate;
- 5) Human activity and the information constructed by it is morally purposeful;
- 6) Information theory (though information processing to a lesser extent) assumes a linear causality (p. 213).

The flow of the lesson is seen as the dynamic interaction between teacher, learners and tools (such as computer-screen activities) in such a way as to engage the participants in co-constructing knowledge. If we examine, in general, the results offered in the present study, the common element is the assertion that learning occurs in various combinations of triadic interaction (i.e., teacher/learners/computer and learner/learners/computer) over time and that the learners themselves believe this to be the case. Further, this interaction may be assisted by competitive game lesson formats. The theoretical implications are that learning can be seen to transpire as much in the social environment as it does 'in the head.'

Van Lier (2004) argues "for a close connection between language and education, at the theoretical level between linguistics and educational theory, and at the practical level between language teaching and pedagogy" (p. 221). The interplay between theory and pedagogy is fraught with conflict, as different contexts (e.g., EFL, ESL, age, native language, learning styles, and cultures to name a few) are examined and consequent curricula are administered and evaluated. Van Lier (2004) goes on to assert that the above connections "do not currently exist but they should, because all education—indeed all learning—is permeated by language. What I have been trying to promote here is an ecological educational linguistics" (p. 221).

The pedagogical implications, from this researchers point of view, begin with the notion that while 'Information processing is incompatible with an ecological worldview', all pedagogical approaches are worthy of trial; this is to say, classroom activities that encourage interaction, scaffolding, and a dynamic view of learning have a place in second language research and

curricula. An example of an activity that may not meet these criteria would be a student typing in a list of answers in a cloze-style exercise on a computer screen for practice or test purposes. The bottom line here is interaction, triadic interaction.

7.5 Limitations of the Study

As in all studies, there are limitations determined by the scope of the research as well as in the claims that can be made from the data and interpreted results. Since there are two distinct avenues of research in this study—the first being a qualitative inquiry examining classroom discourse and the latter being a quantitative inquiry into the thoughts of the learners regarding their language learning experiences in the research context—it will be practical to examine these approaches independently regarding reliability and validity. I'll approach this section by employing the descriptions of reliability and validity as posed by Nunan and Bailey (2009, pp. 65-66), which have been presented in a succinct question-style format:

- 1) Internal reliability: "Would an independent researcher, on reanalyzing the data, come to the same conclusions?"
- 2) External reliability: "Would an independent researcher, on replicating the study, come to the same conclusions?"
- 3) Internal validity: Can we "confidently claim that the outcomes are a result of the experimental treatment?"
- 4) External validity: "Is the research design such that we can we can generalize beyond the subjects under investigation to a wider population?"

Let me begin with the qualitative portion of the research which employed a split-page analysis instrument to examine learner and teacher strategies, motivation behaviors, the role of the computer, and the results of the interactions, in the wider context of the classroom environment. The first assumption is as follows: Perhaps a degree of internal reliability could be reached if more than one participant observer were employed in each lesson (as in co-teaching) and each of these participant observers analyzed the data at set intervals. This assumes that the 'independent researchers' in the study would refrain from sharing information until the final results of their data were compared.

External reliability remains an unknown until the present research model can be replicated.

Concerning internal validity, 'Can we confidently claim that the outcomes are a result of the experimental treatment?' Maybe...there can be no claim that the constructs employed in the qualitative portion of this study—and consequently the split-page analysis instrument—have been a perfect match with the outcomes. On the other hand, there is a general sense that the 'experimental treatment' and outcomes are compatible.

In terms of external validity, or the degree to which we could generalize the results to a wider population, the prospect is more hopeful. Young learners in Korean EFL contexts are a somewhat homogenous population. The society itself is somewhat homogenous. The educational system is controlled by the government, and English is taught in both the public schools and at after-school academies in much the same manner. It is possible then to suggest that similar results could be established with other young Korean EFL learners.

In the questionnaire section of this study, an attempt was made to reach a basic level of reliability and validity in terms of administration (making a clear presentation of the instructions in filling in the questionnaire and eliciting accurate responses) and structure (creating appropriate items).

Internal reliability could potentially be established if we could claim that the outcomes from the results of learner responses to the items on the questionnaire were given in earnest. It could be claimed then that 'an independent researcher, on reanalyzing the data, would come to the same conclusions'. This is dependent on the internal validity of the questionnaire itself.

In fact, a degree of internal validity was suggested in Chapters 4 and 6. Recall that the learners answered coherently and consistently to sets of question opposites (e.g., 'The activities on the computer screen are fun/boring'). The researcher thus considers the questionnaire to be internally valid and internally reliable.

As far as external reliability goes—or the expected results after replicating the questionnaire in other research contexts involving young Korean EFL learners—it is probable that similar results could be expected.

At the same time, regarding external validity, we cannot with any degree of certainty generalize that participants in a wider population (other age-groups, levels, or learning contexts) would answer the questionnaire in the same manner. There are just too many variables at stake.

Another aspect of the present study's limitations relates to the idea of subjectivity. From the early stages of the research process the notion of quality control in qualitative methods has lurked in the background. Specifically, the intercoder and intracoder agreement indices come to mind. By definition, "the intercoder process is an index of the consistency with which different people categorize the same data" (Nunan and Bailey, 2009, p. 428). The intracoder process, on the other hand, is defined as "the extent to which a single person codes or categorizes the same set of data consistently over time" (Nunan and Bailey, 2009, p. 429).

The problem with employing an intercoder—an individual who analyzes a portion of the data in the manner carried out by the researcher—is multi-faceted. First, the process is tedious. The intercoder must be given enough information to amply understand the nature and disposition of the split-page analysis instrument as it relates to the young Korean EFL learners (which includes Bronfenbrenner's nested systems referred to earlier in this study, pp. 34, 35). Second, the intercoding is likely to end up as categorical comparisons (statistics) thereby defeating the purpose of a qualitative approach. Further, the intercoders may possess opposite or similar subjectivities of their own—in either case, this is problematic. On the one hand, the coders may agree on everything, and on the other, maybe nothing. For these reasons, the intercoder process was not a serious consideration.

The intracoder process has always appeared untenable. The researcher had continually hashed over the data from the time the actual video footage was taking place. The process of interpretation is what makes the research qualitative. In fact, the process will go on forever, or at least until the researcher passes away.

What I suggest is a process of debate when considering quality control issues for qualitative research. The scenario is one in which a roundtable discussion—face-to-face or online—focuses on the problems arising in any theoretical or pedagogical context (including the assessment of theses). This is just a seed of an idea I present in order to address the problem of subjectivity in qualitative research.

7.6 Further Research

First of all to extend a notion set forth in the previous section, internal reliability could be extended if more participant researchers were employed in the same research context. These

researchers could then compare their results after analyzing their data independently. External reliability could be reached by replicating the study in various contexts.

Two, some measure of external reliability—and consequently external validity—would require that larger, more diverse populations be studied. It would be necessary to examine learners of the same age and level in other EFL contexts and cultures.

Three, there is the possibility of considering the nature of triadic interaction between learners themselves and learners with the assistance of a teacher. The distinction between teacher-learner and learner-learner handover/takeover could unfold the potential for future research regarding the nature of participation in communicative or triadic-type lesson formats. Further, an examination of how learners potentially guide one another in the interactive process may be another avenue to explore.

Four, in the analysis of the various strategies—communication and feedback strategies—involving learner-learner and teacher-learner examples, there is the possibility for future research in a more limited fashion, that is, developing narrower research methodologies and techniques of analysis. The nature of the present study may deter the implementation of similar studies (due to complexity) and may, perhaps, prevent an in-depth analysis of single variables.

Five, it could be suggested that some students may like using both computer screen activities and textbooks in their classes, while others prefer neither; that is, they aren't interested in learning English in either mode. A future version of the questionnaire could include the items: "I like using textbooks in English lessons", and "I like using computer-screen activities in English lessons", as well as their opposites. Further, a space to express other preferences of learning English could be provided.

Six, addressing the issue of competitive game formats, the highs and lows experienced by learners in competitive game formats mirror those in any other such environments, from spelling bees to sports. Though this may be true, an attempt to explore the positive and negative aspects of competitive game formats—both from an observational and from a learner perspective—could be the basis for further research along the lines of cooperation.

Seven, In terms of the SDT continuum and the construct operationalized for motivation behavior, I would suggest that a complex systems model employing the research provided by

Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008)—to begin with anyway—would be a more suitable approach. This is simply considering the dynamic nature of learner motivation. Even a continuum, in this researcher's opinion, cannot describe the dynamics involved in Korean young learner EFL motivation behaviors.

7.7 Conclusion

A conclusion is usually the beginning of a new idea, process, or a way to move forward. An ecological approach to language research, in my opinion, is a way to move forward in the field of applied linguistics. Therefore, this idea will be the basis for the 'conclusion' of this study.

There are four criteria van Lier (2004, p. 193) presents as measures of ecological validity in research contexts:

- 1) It is contextualized or situative, focusing on the relationships in the setting
- 2) It has spatial and temporal dimensions
- 3) It is (at least potentially) interventionist, i.e. change oriented and critical
- 4) It is ecologically and phenomenologically valid, particularly in terms of a correspondence between researchers' and participants' situation definition.

There is no other way to proceed than to address each of these criteria in relation to the present research.

First, there can be no argument that the present research is other than contextualized. The focus is on relationships in terms of interaction in classroom contexts.

Second, space and time are clearly defined. The learners had been studying in all cases for over a year with the teacher/researcher. More importantly, the closed-to-open question sequence was the dimension of time that defined the progression of activity in the excerpts and in the endless hours not documented in classroom interaction occurring prior to the study. This pattern had been imbedded in the curriculum from the time the teacher walked through the doors of the classrooms in both academies. Further, I would suggest that a closed-to-open question sequence format is a useful curricular tool.

Third, 'intervention' as related to the present study is regarded as the researcher's ability to alter the teaching style, strategies, practices, and even protocol, among the long list of potential intervening. This would seem to be a practical means of teacher instruction over time. In fact, the

researcher had altered the contents of the curriculum on a weekly basis, in fact, the curriculum evolved in accordance with perceived learner wants and needs over time. Change was the name of the curricular game and the process was curriculum development.

Finally, the questionnaire portion of the study spoke directly to learner opinions regarding the research questions in this study and the responses were favorable.

Fireworks are not allocated for the end of this thesis. Rather, I'll just conclude with a simple idea: If young learners in a Korean EFL context are engaged in lesson content, that is, if they are smiling and having fun, then most likely they are learning.

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Appendices
Appendix A
Informed Consent Form

Hello Parents...

My name is Timothy Brockley and I am the foreign English teacher for your child/children at A/B Academy. I am currently studying with Anaheim University (via the internet) and I am preparing to write a thesis for the master's degree program in teaching English. I would like to include my classes at A/BAcademy in my study. Please allow me to:

- 1) Have your son/daughter fill out a short questionnaire on how they like to learn English, and...
- 2) Videotape selected lessons in order to judge the most successful ways to teach and learn English.

Student names will not be used in the study and I guarantee that all video and data will be kept confidential without exception. In order to do this, I will need your signed consent. The purpose of the study is to give your children the best possible lessons in learning English and to help them improve in their speaking ability.

My wife, Oh Duk Soon, is Korean and would be more than happy to answer any and all of your questions...

Home phone: 051-517-7354 Cell Phone 010-7741-7354

Please sign below and return the form with your son/daughter:

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Thank you very much...

Timothy Brockley

MA candidate, Anaheim Online University

In Korean:

친애하는 학부모님께

안녕하세요? 저는 한울 학원에서 여러분의 자녀들의 영어공부를 가르치고 있는 원어민 영어강사 Timothy Brockley 입니다.

저는 현재 에나 하임 (온라인) 대학에서 공부를 하고 있으며 영어 교사 전공의 대학원 학위를 위해 논문 준비 중입니다.

지는 저의 논문에 한울 학원의 수업상을 포함시키고 싶습니다
허락해주시면 대단히 감사하겠습니다.

- 1) 자녀들은, 어떻게 하면 가장 재미있게 영어공부를 할 수 있을지 짧은질문에
답하세요.
- 2) 영어를 배움과 가르침에 있어서 가장 성공적인 비디오 테이프를 선정할것입니다.
학생들의 이름은 이 공부에 결코 사용되지 않을 것이며 이 모든 비디오와 자
료들은 어떤 예외도 없이 철저히 관리됨을 약속 드립니다 그러기 위해서는, 저는
부모님들의 동의가 필요합니다 저의 공부 목적은 여러분 자녀들의 영어 교육에
있어서 가장 좋은 방법과 자녀들의 말하기 능력을 향상시키는데 도움을 주는
것입니다저의 아내 오덕순은, 만일 자세한 설명이 더 필요하시다면 언제든지
도와드릴것입니다 “감사합니다”

집051) 517-7354

휴대폰 010-7741-7354

아래에 싸인을 부탁드립니다

싸인 (signed) _____ 날짜 (date) _____

대단히 감사합니다

Timothy Brockley

에나하임대학 대학원 코스(온라인)

Master's Degree Candidate, Anaheim Online University

Appendix B
Questionnaire

Questionnaire Items:

Name _____ Number _____ Age/Grade _____ / _____ Class _____

1) The cartoon pictures on the computer screen help me understand the English sentences.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

2) The photos on the computer screen help me understand the English sentences.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

3) The words and sentences on the computer screen help me understand their meanings.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

4) The audio voice in the lessons helps me understand the English sounds and words.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

5) The activities on the computer screen are fun.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

6) The activities on the computer screen are boring.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

7) When my teacher points to the screen, I can better understand words and sentences.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

8) When I point to the screen, I can help my classmates understand words and sentences.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

9) When I point to the screen, I can show my teacher what I don't understand.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

10) I like using computer screen lessons more than studying with a textbook in English class.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

11) I like using textbooks more than using computer screen lessons when I study English.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

12) I like playing a game with two teams when using the computer screen lessons.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

13) Classmates on my team try to help me when we play computer screen games.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

14) I try to help classmates on my team when we play computer screen games.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

15) I like to play games in English class because I like to win.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

16) I like to play games in English class because I think they are fun.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

17) I can learn English when playing games using the computer screen activities.

Not at all <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> Very Much

The actual form (after back translation) as presented to students in this study:

1) 컴퓨터로 보는 만화그림은 나에게 영어 문장을 이해하는데 도움을 준다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

2) 컴퓨터 화면의 사진들은 나에게 영어 문장을 이해하는데 도움을 준다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

3) 컴퓨터 화면의 단어와 문장들은 나에게 그 의미를 이해하는데 도움을 준다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

4) 오디오로 듣기 수업은 나에게 영어 발음과 단어공부에 도움을 준다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

5) 컴퓨터 화면으로 공부하는 것은 재미있다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

6) 컴퓨터 화면으로 공부하는 것은 지루하다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

7) 선생님이 화면을 가르킬때 나는 단어와 문장을 더 잘 이해할 수 있다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

8) 내가 화면을 가르킬때 나는 내 친구들에게 단어와 문장을 이해하는데 도움을 줄 수 있다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

9) 내가 화면을 가르킬때 나는 선생님에게 내가 무엇을 이해 못하는지를 표현할 수 있다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

10) 나는 영어시간에 영어책을 공부하는 것보다 컴퓨터 화면을 이용해서 공부하는 것이 더 좋다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

11) 나는 내가 영어공부를 할 때 컴퓨터 화면을 이용하는 것보다 영어 교과 서를 사용하는 것을 더 좋아한다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

12) 나는 컴퓨터 화면으로 공부할 때 두 팀으로 나누어서 게임놀이를 하는것을 좋아한다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

13) 우리가 컴퓨터 화면으로 게임을 할 때 나의 팀 친구들은 나를 도와 줄려고 노력한다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

14) 우리가 컴퓨터 화면으로 게임을 할 때 나는 나의 팀 친구들을 도와 줄려고 노력한다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

15) 나는 영어시간에 게임하기를 좋아한다. 왜냐하면 이기고 싶기 때문이다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

16) 나는 영어 시간에 게임하기를 좋아한다. 왜냐하면 나는 그것이 재미있다고 생각한다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

17) 나는 컴퓨터 화면을 이용해서 게임을 할 때 영어를 더 잘 배울 수 있다.

전 혀 <<< 1 2 3 4 5 6 >>> 대단히많이

Appendix C Section 5.2 Excerpt One/Group A1-1

Class: ___A1-1___ Time of Interaction (Video): ___53 seconds___ Form #___01___ File___V3-2 (Module 3)___

Notes: The file used in this clip is an activity that presents simple present verbs with questions and answers that pertain to the cartoon pictures. The simple present tense is used as the focus of the lesson. The present progressive form had been used in previous lessons and is sometimes juxtaposed with the simple present to bring learner attention to their differences.

The following chart is presented to remind the reader of the constructs used for the analyses. The remaining seven excerpts will not include this chart (triadic scaffolds and motivation behavior types and their definitions).

<p>Triadic interaction: Learner/Learner(s)/Computer:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Learner Communication Strategy ("LCS") Learner Feedback Strategy ("LFS") <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Positive Feedback (PF) b) Negative Feedback as Giving Answer Strategies (GAS) c) Negative Feedback as Prompting Answer Strategies (PAS) 2) Role of Computer ("ROC") (image, audio, text) 3) Result of the interaction ("ROI") 	<p>Triadic interaction: Teacher and Learner(s)/Computer:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Teacher Communication Strategy ("TCS") Teacher Feedback Strategy ("TFS") <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Positive Feedback (PF) b) Negative Feedback as Giving Answer Strategies (GAS) c) Negative Feedback as Prompting Answer Strategies (PAS) 2) Role of Computer ("ROC") (image, audio, text) 3) Result of the interaction ("ROI")
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Motivation behavior types developed from the self-determination theory (SDT) model:

- 0) amotivation: daydreaming, napping, nervousness, disruption, talking to friends, text messaging, frustration
- 1) external regulation: reactions to: praise, gestures, expressions, scolding, seating change
- 2) introjected regulation: answering questions correctly, taking another student's turn, showing off, being funny
- 3) identified regulation: asking for clarification or confirmation of grammar, vocabulary, or game rules
- 4) integrated regulation: scaffolding others or being scaffolded, working independently, co-constructing knowledge
- 5) intrinsic motivation: participating whole-heartedly, includes elements of identified and integrated motivation

Transcription, triadic interaction and notes on behavior (Student: "A, B, C," etc... and Teacher "T")

Transcription	Triadic Interaction	Motivation behaviors
<p>01T: Okay. Nu-gu imnika? (Who is it?) (walking to the front of the room, inquiring which student has a turn)</p> <p>02A: Doo doo doo doot. (in a sing-song manner)</p> <p>03T: You... (pointing to a character on the screen, a large man) O-ma (mother) (pointing to the other character, a thief)</p> <p>04: (teacher and some students laugh)</p> <p>05T: What do you... (pointing to character again) do... (pointing to student and to screen again) for your mom (pointing to thief)?</p>	<p>01T: TCS: Code switching. T wants to know which student will be taking a turn.</p> <p>03T ~ 05T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means (indexicality/pointing).</p> <p>ROC: The images and text on the screen are an essential part of the meaning-making process. The students are expected to progress their thought processes, to make a connection in their imaginations in order to engage with the open question, 'What do you do for your mom?' This is a process of substitution, presenting a closed question relating directly to an image and following up with an open</p>	<p>02A: A sings out "Doo doo doo doot" in an imitation of the English word "do". Seen as 2) introjected regulation, seen by the researcher as an attempt to be funny.</p>

<p>06A: (indecipherable word in Korean) (appears to be an expression of confusion) 07B: (indecipherable word in Korean and “O-ma” which means mother) (student B points to student A and then to characters on the screen... it appears to be an attempt to explain the meaning of the question to student A) 08T: I... (elicitation to complete sentence) 09C: I volunteer. (student requests a turn) 10T: O.K. You volunteer? 11C: I open the door for my mom. 12T: Yes, but ‘open the door ‘ is already used. Heseyo. (I did it) So another. (gestures with arms signaling student to try again) 13D: I volunteer. (wishes to take a turn) 14C: I open... I close (teacher points to the window) the door... 15D: Window... 16C: for my mom. 17D: Window, I-go (an exclamatory expression in Korean) (student D laughs and claps due to the fact that student C hasn’t gotten the indicational cue from the teacher in 14C...’teacher points to window’) 18T: Oh, I close the door, the window (points to the window and the door incorrectly in jest) 19: (teacher and some students laugh) 20D: (indecipherable phrase in Korean)</p>	<p>question using a similar linguistic structure: What do you do for + a familiar person? 06A/07B: LCS: Nonlinguistic means. B attempts to point out the meaning of the question to his teammate, A. 08T: TFS (PAS): Elicitation by pausing to allow for a learner response. 12T: TFS (PAS): Code switching (‘Heseyo’) is used to ensure the phrase, “already used” is understood by the learner. TCS: Nonlinguistic means to elicit answer. 14C: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T points to the window as a nonverbal form of a hint. 15D: LFS (GAS) Learner D tries to give C the answer that T is eliciting. 17D: LFS (GAS) Learner D emphasizes her attempt to supply the noun, “window”. ROI: Learners are becoming more familiar with the movement from a closed to an open question sequence. Though they haven’t mastered this process, they are showing a willingness to make attempts to answer the open question successfully.</p>	<p>06A: 0) amotivation if A’s expression is one of confusion. 07B: 4) integrated regulation. Learner B attempts to explain the meaning of the question to scaffold learner A. 09C ~ 11C: 2) introjected regulation. Learner C requests a turn and appears to want to answer the question correctly. 14C/16C: 2) introjected regulation. Learner C appears to want to answer the question correctly. 15D: 2) introjected regulation. Learner D attempts to give Learner C assistance in producing an acceptable answer. 17D: 1) external regulation. Learner D reacts to learner C’s missed cue from the teacher in 14C (‘teacher points to window’).</p>
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Appendix D
Section 5.3 Excerpt Two/Group A1-2

Class: ___A1-2___ Time of Interaction (Video): ___1 minute 7 seconds___ Form # ___02___ File ___V3-2 (Module 3)___

Notes: The file used in this clip is an activity that presents simple present verbs with questions and answers that pertain to the cartoon pictures.

Transcription, triadic interaction and notes on motivation behavior (Student: "A, B, C," etc... and Teacher "T")

Transcription	Triadic Interaction	Motivation behaviors
<p>01T: Number, (pulling a number card from the stack) here we go, four: one, two, three, four (counting the students in order and pointing to the turn-taking student)</p> <p>02A: It</p> <p>03B: It</p> <p>04B: It</p> <p>05A/B: It</p> <p>06B: It sits...</p> <p>07A: on her</p> <p>08B: on her...</p> <p>09A: her</p> <p>10B: hat.</p> <p>11T: (teacher has been indexing the screen to elicit the correct closed answer)</p> <p>12D/E: (indecipherable chatter in Korean—students appear to be talking about the slide... they continue talking for about 5 seconds)</p> <p>13T: Did you say... "yes-s" or "no-s"? "No s"? (T is referring to previous lesson content in which "yes-s" and "no-s" refer to verb structure in the simple present tense, e.g., "It sits." singular vs. "They sit." plural)</p> <p>14B: Yes s.</p> <p>15T: Yes s? Why?</p> <p>16B: It...</p> <p>17T: That's right.</p> <p>18B: It sits, it sits on her hat (with</p>	<p>ROC: The excerpt opens with audio, text, and image from the online file: "What does it sit on?" In this image, a girl is attempting to pull her hat out from under her large, heavy dog, as she wishes to go out with her friend, who is waiting in the doorway.</p> <p>04B ~ 11T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T points to the screen to indicate the answer he is attempting to elicit.</p> <p>ROI: There is triadic interaction between learners, teacher, and screen. It is possible that this interaction assisted the learners in providing a correct response.</p> <p>12D/E: LCS: Code switching. The students are talking about the slide contents in Korean.</p> <p>13T: TFS (PAS): The meta-linguistic cue is given to allow an unbroken learner response and to clarify the structure of simple present verbs (i.e., the plural and singular forms).</p> <p>15T: TFS (PAS): Elicitation for meta-linguistic knowledge. T wants to confirm that learner B knows simple present verb structure (plural vs. singular).</p>	<p>02A ~ 10B: introjected regulation. Learners A and B are attempting to answer the closed question correctly.</p> <p>12D/E: There is some ambiguity. If learners D and E were discussing the slide in the context of the lesson, we could suggest a form of 4) integrated regulation. On the other hand, if they were chatting off topic, 0) amotivation would be a proper analysis.</p> <p>18B: 2) introjected regulation. Learner B</p>

<p>assistance from student A).</p> <p>19T: That's right.</p> <p>20Computer: "It sits on her hat." (T pushes forward on keyboard, the slide changes, and the answer—audio and text—manifest)</p> <p>21All learners: indecipherable Korean chatter (which is common)...</p> <p>22T: Number 2... (T chooses another card to signal turn-taking) Um... Ah... (T is thinking of an open-style question to pose for the students) Where do you sit... Where, hangul-lo mo-hamnika? (translates as "Where- How do you say that in Korean?")</p> <p>23A: Odi. (means "where" as a question word in Korean)</p> <p>24E: Odi. (means "where" as a question word in Korean)</p> <p>25T: Where do you sit at home? (pointing directly to student A)</p> <p>26A: (translates the question into Korean accurately) I sit...on my chair...</p> <p>27D/E: (more chatter)</p> <p>27T At home?</p> <p>28A: At home.</p> <p>29T: Very good (T claps once)</p>	<p>ROI: A correct answer to the closed question is given.</p> <p>ROC: The audio and text confirm the correct answer.</p> <p>22T: TCS: Literal translation. T is confirming that learners know the meaning of the question word, "Where..."</p> <p>23A/24E/26A: LCS: Literal translation. Learners A and E are participating in the translation of "Where".</p> <p>ROI: The learner successfully answers the open question ("Where do you sit at home?") and the closed-to-open question sequence is accomplished. Teacher's nonlinguistic means (using the computer screen image) and meta-linguistic cues and the learner's code switching have contributed to the results.</p>	<p>presents the response to the closed question, "What does it sit on?". Also, learner A attempts to answer the closed question together with learner B as 2) introjected regulation.</p> <p>21All learners: There is some ambiguity (as in 12D/E above). 4) integrated regulation if learners are focused on lesson content and 0) amotivation if the chatting were off topic.</p> <p>26A: 2) introjected regulation. Learner A forms a correct answer to the open question, "Where do you sit at home?".</p>
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Appendix E
Section 5.4 Excerpt Three/Group A1-3

Class: ___A1-3___ Time of Interaction (Video): ___59 seconds___ Form #___03___ File___V3-2 (Module 3)___

Notes: The file used in this clip is an activity that presents simple present verbs with questions and answers that pertain to the cartoon pictures. The simple present tense is used as the focus of the lesson.

Transcription, triadic interaction and notes on behavior (Student: "A, B, C," etc... and Teacher "T")

Transcription	Triadic Interaction	Motivation behaviors
<p>01: "What do they stand near?" (T clicks the audio track in the program) (There is a picture of a couple at a zoo standing near a gorilla)</p> <p>02T: Number eleven. (using numbered cards for turn-taking)</p> <p>03A: I stand near the gorilla. (teacher looks surprised and laughter rings out)</p> <p>04B: Uh. I...? (questioning learner A's response).</p> <p>05A: They stand near the gorilla! (student realizes the error of using 'I' versus 'They')</p> <p>06T: You? (addresses learner A, pointing to the girl on the screen standing near a gorilla)</p> <p>07C: I volunteer! (from boys team... hoping to get a chance to answer the question for points)</p> <p>08B: I volunteer. (following suit with teammate)</p> <p>09T: Rock, scissors, paper...Rock, scissors, paper... (a rule used when the student first answers incorrectly but then gives a correct response. The student must 'win' rock, scissors, paper to achieve points. In this case, the student loses, so the other team (boys) have a turn. teacher points to the turn-taker.)</p> <p>10B: I stand near the gorilla. (Student B wishes to enhance the amusement by repeating the same error as the girl in 3A.</p>	<p>01: ROC: Audio track in the program activates attention to image, audio and text.</p> <p>02T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T uses numbered cards to announce a learner's turn.</p> <p>03A: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T uses facial expression (surprise) to indicate something is funny about learner A's response. Also TFS (PAS) Clarification request. T's expression could be translated as "Pardon me?".</p> <p>05T ~ 10B: TCS: Nonlinguistic means (pointing to screen to make the connection between the cartoon character and learner)</p> <p>06T: Learner B attempts to keep the funny business going. by restating the incorrect utterance ("I stand near the gorilla").</p> <p>ROC: A visual connection exists (the girl on the screen) to meaning-making at hand.</p> <p>ROI: Attention to sentence initial pronouns and humor as a vehicle of 'language play' is evident. The teacher realizes this and accepts the response to maintain the rhythm of the lesson. Student B has often employed 'clever' language play of this type in previous lessons.</p>	<p>03A: 2) introjected regulation: A attempts to answer correctly.</p> <p>04B: A combination of 2) introjected regulation and 4) integrated regulation: Learner B is scaffolding but also perhaps showing off a bit. There doesn't seem to be an attempt at cooperation.</p> <p>05A: 2) introjected regulation: A attempts to answer correctly.</p> <p>10B: 2) introjected regulation with elements of 5) intrinsic motivation: 'language play'. Student B wishes to enhance the amusement</p>

Appendix F
Section 5.5 Excerpt Four/Group A1-4

Class: ___A1-4___ Time of Interaction (Video): ___17 seconds___ Form #___04___ File___V3-2 (Module 3)___

Notes: The file used in this clip is an activity that presents simple present verbs with questions and answers that pertain to the cartoon pictures. The simple present tense is used as the focus of the lesson. The present progressive form had been used in previous lessons.

Transcription, triadic interaction and notes on behavior (Student: "A, B, C," etc... and Teacher "T")

Transcription	Triadic Interaction	Motivation behaviors
<p>01A: Stand is what? 02T: Stand. (stands with arms to sides like a soldier) 03A: (indecipherable word in Korean) 04T: Stand. (moves to the screen and waves arms up and down where two figures are standing) 05A: Ahhh... (expression of comprehension)</p>	<p>01A ~ 05A: LCS: Appeal for help from the teacher by A. TCS: T uses Nonlinguistic means (gestures). ROC: Teacher gestures to images on the screen. The picture of the couple at the zoo is further employed to clarify the difference in meaning between 'sit' and 'stand'. ROI: The learner comprehends the word, <i>stand</i>. While many in the class know the distinction between 'sit' and 'stand', one student wishes clarification. The computer screen may potentially enable this type of interaction, while feedback and communication strategies "bring the ball home" so to speak. The encouragement gives the learner the required reassurance.</p>	<p>01A ~ 05A: A exhibits 3) identified regulation in asking for clarification... but it's not always clear if A asks questions because he doesn't comprehend or as a form of "attention-getting" which is a form of 2) introjected regulation.</p>
<p>06B: Stand-eh... (using Korean pronunciation)</p>	<p>06B: LFS (GAS): Give answer and 'Reverse' foreignizing: B uses the Korean pronunciation of the word, "stand" (stand-eh) to convey meaning to student A. In the standard case, learners/teachers adjust an L1 word to L2 phonologically or morphologically, but in this case, the L2 word is adjusted to L1 phonologically (therefore, 'reverse' is used in this context).</p>	<p>06B: B exhibits 4) or integrated regulation... working cooperatively and perhaps scaffolding...</p>
<p>07T: Sit, sit, sit, sit, sit, stand. (pointing to each of the seated students and then with arms stretched up... most of the students then stand up) 08T: Sit. (arms motioning downward... the students immediately sit... some students and the teacher laugh) 09A: (indecipherable phrases in Korean)</p>	<p>07T/08T: TCS: Use of Nonlinguistic means (indexicality/pointing) and TFS (PF) as Repetition to re-enforce the meaning of "sit" and "stand".</p>	<p>07T/08T: 1) external regulation. Learners react to teacher gestures (indexicality/pointing) as a command... humor hints toward 5) intrinsic motivation as learners show whole-hearted participation... In fact, the teacher didn't expect the learners to react to the words "sit" and "stand" as a command.</p>
<p>10T: Where do you... (addressing a question to student A) 11B: Stand! (finishes the teacher's question)</p>	<p>10T/11B: TFS (PAS): Elicitation and correct learner response (although the question was addressed to A, B's response can be seen as a (GAS) as Answer giving.</p>	<p>11B: B's response to the teacher's elicitation was a surprise as the elicitation was directed at A. B's response can be seen as a form of 4)</p>

<p>12A: (attempts an answer to the question: "Where do you stand at school?") 13T: One more time, please... one more time. (motions with arms to get students to attempt another answer and puts cupped hand to ear to elicit responses)</p>	<p>12A/13T: Indecipherable response from A. TCS as nonlinguistic means (gestures student to repeat utterance). ROI: The learners have grasped the meaning of the vocabulary items, <i>sit</i> and <i>stand</i>.</p>	<p>integrated motivation, working cooperatively and co-constructing knowledge. Another possibility is that B was motivated by the spirit of competition as 2) introjected regulation. 12A/13T: Can't be sure if A's mumbling is a form of 2) introjected regulation as an attempt to answer questions correctly or perhaps 0) amotivation as a form of frustration.</p>
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Appendix G
Section 5.6 Excerpt Five/Group B1

Class: ___B-1___ Time of Interaction (Video): ___1 minute 22 seconds___ Form # ___05___ File ___V2-2 (Module 2)___

Notes: The file used in this clip is an activity that presents present progressive verbs with questions and answers that pertain to the cartoon pictures. In this particular class, the learners answer only closed question (as shown on the screen). Their level is too low for open-style questions.

Transcription, triadic interaction and notes on behavior (Student: "A, B, C," etc... and Teacher "T")

Transcription	Triadic Interaction	Motivation behaviors
01A: He is... He is bringing...	ROC: The question on the screen reads: "What is the waiter bringing?" Students match text and cartoon picture to attempt a correctly formed answer.	01A: 2) introjected regulation: Learner A attempts a correct answer.
02T: (gesturing to the man and woman on the screen and then to the drinks on the waiter's tray. Trying to elicit "...their drinks." to give completion to the student's response)	02T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. Gesturing to the man and woman on the screen and then to the drinks on the waiter's tray. TFS (PAS): Elicitation. Trying to elicit "...their drinks." to give completion to the student's unfinished response, "He is bringing...".	
03B: Pali-shi (Hurry-up!)	03B: LCS: Code switching in the simplest sense which could be termed 'language changing'. Learner B petitions A (on the opposing team) to "Hurry-up!".	03B: 1) external regulation: Learner B is reacting to A's slow response time ("Hurry-up!").
04C: (student moves forward to assist her teammate... indecipherable phrase uttered)	04C: LCS: Give answer. Learner C moves forward in an attempt to assist her teammate.	04C: 2) introjected regulation: Learner C moves forward to assist her teammate.
05A: ...waiter's juice. 06T: Ohhhh... (expression and posture indicate a wrong answer)		05A: 2) introjected regulation: Learner A once again attempts a correct answer.
07B: I volunteer! I volunteer! (member of the boys team) 08: (a small child wanders to look into the classroom. Some students turn to look at him.) 09: (a few students chant "I volunteer" wishing to elicit a turn) 10T: (teacher looks to the small child at the door) I volunteer. (teacher mimics the student's elicitation trying to assess who the small intruder might be) 11T: Ah. Rock, rock, rock, scissors, paper. (points to the volunteering students—one from the girls team and one from the boys—having them vie for a turn) 12B: (wins the turn)		07B ~ 11T: 1) external regulation with elements of 5) intrinsic motivation: Learners chant "I volunteer" wishing to take a turn. This is a reaction to the open possibilities for turn taking. There is a quality of 'whole-heartedness' but little cognitive effort.
13D: (walks over to student B to assist in	13D: LFS (GAS): Give answer. Walks over	13D: 2) introjected regulation: Learner D

<p>the answer) He is bringing...their drinks.</p> <p>14B: What? (places hand on student D's shoulder to grip his attention)</p> <p>15D: He is bringing their drinks.</p> <p>16B: Their drinks? (hand on shoulder again)</p> <p>17D: Their dink-kes-su (reverts to Korean pronunciation in order to assist his teammate)</p> <p>18B: He is dringing...</p> <p>19T: No... (student B uses a 'd' in place of a 'b' in 'bringing... wrong answer)</p> <p>20: I volunteer! (students vie for a turn)</p> <p>20T: (points to student E on the girls team to take a turn)</p> <p>21A: (assisting student E) He is dringing their...</p> <p>22T: 'b'... 'b'... (draws a 'b' on the board with his finger)</p> <p>23T: O.K. (gestures to student E to take a turn)</p> <p>24A: He is bringing their drinks. (assisting student E again)</p> <p>25E: He is bringing their drink-es. (gesturing)</p>	<p>to assist student B: "He is bringing...their drinks".</p> <p>14B: LCS: Nonlinguistic means. Places hand on student D's shoulder to grip his attention to D's utterance.</p> <p>15D: LFS (GAS) Repetition and Give answer. D attempts to scaffold B again</p> <p>16B: LCS: Appeal for help. "Their drinks?". and LCS: Nonlinguistic means. Hand on shoulder again.</p> <p>17D: LCS: 'Reverse' foreignizing. "Their dink-kes-su". In the standard case, learners/teachers adjust an L1 word to L2 phonologically or morphologically, but in this case, the L2 word is adjusted to L1 phonologically (therefore, 'reverse' is used in this context).</p> <p>20T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. Points to student E on the girls team to take a turn</p> <p>21A: LFS (GAS) Give answer. Assisting student E unsuccessfully.</p> <p>22T: TFS (GAS) Explicit correction and Nonlinguistic means. T says: "b... b..." emphatically and draws a 'b' on the board with his finger.</p> <p>23T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. Points to student E on the girls team to take a turn again.</p> <p>24A: LFS (GAS) Give answer. Learner A assists E again.</p> <p>25E: LCS: Nonlinguistic means. Uses exaggerated gestures that seem to assist in her production of the correct response.</p> <p>ROI: The learners, at this level, are highly dependent on the cartoon pictures, audio and text. The result of the interaction is very basic. The learners are beginning to match form with an image and phonology with text. Perhaps the learners' level and cognitive development are below the level of documenting any verbal evidence of scaffolding.</p>	<p>giving answer to learner B ("He is bringing...their drinks").</p> <p>14B: 3) identified regulation: Learner B asks for clarification/repetition ("What?").</p> <p>15D: 2) introjected regulation: Learner D assists B again.</p> <p>16B: 3) identified regulation: Learner B asks for some form of confirmation ("Their drinks?").</p> <p>17D: 2) introjected regulation: Learner D attempts to assist B once again</p> <p>18B: 2) introjected regulation: Learner B attempts a correct answer.</p> <p>20: 2) introjected regulation with elements of 5) intrinsic motivation once again: Several learners chant "I volunteer" wishing to elicit a turn.</p> <p>21A: 2) introjected regulation: Learner A attempts to assist learner E, though unsuccessfully.</p> <p>24A: 2) introjected regulation: Again, learner A attempts to assist learner E. This time successfully.</p> <p>25E: 2) introjected regulation: Learner E produces a correct answer.</p>
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<p>11T: I'd like a name. (interrupts to clarify parameters of an acceptable answer) 12A: I meet at... 13T: (facial expression signals an ungrammatical/unacceptable answer)</p> <p>14A: I meet at school...</p> <p>15T: (waves finger at student C and whistles because she is dozing off) 16A: For... I meet at school. (student is becoming confused)</p> <p>17T: You wannna say: "Teacher, question one more time please". (attempting to reiterate the question and to bring focus on form) 18D: I volunteer. (raises arm in an attempt to take a turn) 19E: One more time, please. (wants to hear the question again)</p> <p>20T: O.K. Who do you meet... 21D: I... (wishes to take a turn) 22T: ...at school? ...At school. (gestures as a hint to indicate that the phrase "at school" belongs at the back of the sentence) 23A: I meet...</p> <p>24E: (mentions a student's name to assist student A)</p> <p>25D: I volunteer! (again, asserting desire to take a turn)</p> <p>26A: (stands up and consults student E)</p> <p>27T: Just wait. Give them one chance. (addressing and gesturing to the impatient student D and the boys team) 28B: O.K., O.K. 29D: Yes, yes. 30A: I meet my friends at school. 31T: (gestures and facial expression indicate the teacher is looking for a different answer) <u>Note:</u> though the sentence is grammatically correct, this was an online decision made by the teacher. Right or wrong, having taught this group for more than two years, the teacher wanted an answer beyond the bounds of the obvious,</p>	<p>12A/13T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T's facial expression signals an ungrammatical/unacceptable answer.</p> <p>17T: TFS (PAS): Elicitation. T wants learners to ask for the question ("Who do you meet at school?") one more time.</p> <p>19E: LFS (PF): Repetition ("One more time, please"). Learner E wishes to hear the question again, following the T's elicitation (17T).</p> <p>20T/22T: TFS (PAS): Elicitation again. ("O.K. Who do you meet... at school? ...At school"). TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T gestures to indicate that the phrase 'at school' belongs at the back of the sentence.</p> <p>30A/31T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. Though Learner A's response is grammatically correct ("I meet my friends at school"), T uses gestures and facial expressions to indicate he is looking for a different answer, i.e., a name.</p>	<p>attempts to answer the question correctly.</p> <p>15T: 0) amotivation: Learner C is napping. 16A: 1) external regulation. Learner A reacts to the T's expressions that her attempts are off the mark. 17T/19E: 3) identified regulation: Following T's lead, Learner E seeks clarification ("One more time, please"). 18D: 2) introjected regulation. 'Volunteering' is a common form of motivation behavior, and it occurs in most of the excerpts in this study. It has been suggested (in excerpt B-1, for example) that there may be a hint of 5) intrinsic motivation: "There is a quality of 'whole-heartedness' but little cognitive effort." 23A: 2) introjected regulation: A again attempts to answer the question correctly. 24E: 4) integrated regulation: Learner E assists Learner A by mentioning a student's name (T's request: 11T: "I'd like a name"). 25D as well as 18D and 21D: 1) external regulation: Learner D reacts to the other teams failed attempts and positions himself to take a turn. 26A: 4) integrated regulation: Learners A and E are working cooperatively. 27T ~ 29D: 1) external regulation: The boys team grows impatient and wants to take a turn. 30A: 2) introjected regulation: Learner A's answer is grammatically correct, but not the answer T is looking for</p>
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<p>"my friends") 32F: Rock, scissor, paper. (wants the teacher to challenge student A's response)</p> <p>33T: But, she wanted to say the friend's name (referring to student E's assist in line 24) 34E: I-rum (name) (once again assisting student A)</p> <p>35A: I meet Shin Young-jun at school. (now assisting student E with the correct answer) 36E: I meet at...?</p> <p>37F: Rock, scissor, paper. (wants the teacher to challenge the girl's team's response)</p> <p>38A: At... at a-ni-yo (not 'at') (slaps student E's shoulder in correction)</p> <p>39E: I meet Shin Young-jun at school. 40T: (gestures and facial expression signal a correct answer)</p>	<p>33T: TCS: Circumlocution. T refers back to student E's assist in line 24 when she mentioned a friend's name. 34E: LCS: Code-switching ('I-rum' = 'Name'). Learner E once again assisting A. 35A: LFS (GAS): Give answer. ("I meet Shin Young-jun at school"). Student E must produce the correct answer to get the points for her team. Learner A has come up with the correct form and now assists learner E. 36E: LFS (PAS): Clarification request ("I meet at...?"). 38A: LFS (GAS): Explicit correction. Learner A makes E aware of the syntactic slip up and uses an LCS as a code switch ("At... at a-ni-yo" = "Not at"). Also, an LCS: Nonlinguistic means. Learner A slaps learner E's shoulder to inspire a correction. 39E/40T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T's gestures and facial expression signal a correct answer. ROI: In this case, the image on the screen isn't central to the meaning-making; rather, it acts as a kind of anchor or focus for the question ("Who do you meet at school?"). The result of this interaction is that various forms of assistance (both teacher and learner) lead up to a form-meaning mapping as indicated in the final 'correct' or elicited answer. There is a consistent level of learner-initiated feedback and communication activity while the answer to the open question is being negotiated.</p>	<p>32F: 1) external regulation: Learner F wants the T to challenge student A's response ("Rock, scissor, paper"). 34E: 4) integrated regulation: Learner E once again assists A ('I-rum' = 'name'). 35A: 2) introjected regulation: Now learner A assists learner E ("I meet Shin Young-jun at school"). Learner E is the one who must produce the answer correctly as it is her turn in the game. 36E: 2) introjected regulation: Learner E attempts an answer ("I meet at...?") and 4) integrated regulation: Seeks assistance from her teammates. 37F: 1) external regulation: Learner F once again wants the T to challenge student A's response ("Rock, scissor, paper"). 38A: 4) integrated regulation and 5) intrinsic motivation: Learner A is participating whole-heartedly at this point ("At... at a-ni-yo" = "At ... not at"). She becomes physical in a playful manner (slaps student E's shoulder in correction). 39E: 2) introjected regulation: Learner E succeeds in answering the question.</p>
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Appendix I
Section 5.8 Excerpt Seven/Group B2-2

Class: ___B2-2___ Time of Interaction (Video): ___1minute 30 seconds___ Form #___07___ File___V3-1 (Module 3)___

Notes: The file used in this clip is an activity that presents simple present verbs that pertain to the cartoon pictures. Even so, present progressive questions and answers were employed at this juncture in the lesson. Although the students have been focusing on simple present verbs for several lessons, the present progressive form is sometimes presented in order to juxtapose the two forms.

Transcription, triadic interaction and notes on motivation behavior (Student: "A, B, C," etc... and Teacher "T")

Transcription	Triadic Interaction	Motivation behaviors
<p>01A: I volunteer. (both student A and B on the boys team have their hands raised) 02T: Let him go. (indicating that student B should take a turn) 03C: Valentino? (word play on 'volunteer' and chuckles) 04T: I'm Volentino... (picks up on student C's word play) 05A: I Voluntee... 06T: Did you want to help? (addressing student A) 07A: I volunteer. (tireless quest for a turn) 08T: Maybe you know. (addressing student A again) 09T: What is the baby eating? (restating question) 10C: (stands up and walks over to student A) 11B: (attempts to translate the question into Korean) 12C: Baby... (pointing to student A in jest) 13T: THE baby. (adding the article as a correction) 14C: Baby i-rum immida. (His name is 'baby') (continuing the jest) 15T: O.K. Anja, anja. (Sit down, sit down) (addressing student C... student C goes back to her seat) 16B: The baby is... 17T: Good. (referring to the first half of student B's utterance and gesturing him to finish the sentence) 18B: Muat mok-ji (Eat is what?) (trying to confirm a translation of the question with teammate) 19B: ...eat... 20A: Eata. (trying to assist)</p>	<p>00: ROC: As mentioned in the notes above, the teacher is using the present progressive tense as a review. An angry woman is coming into the room. There is a dog with a pizza in its mouth and a baby with its head in a dog dish. The image of the baby is drawn upon to activate attention to the closed question: "What is the baby eating?" 04T: TFS (PF): Repetition. T acknowledges the clever word play of learner C as a form of agreement. 11B: LCS: Literal translation. Learner B attempts to translate the closed question. 13T: TFS (GAS): Explicit correction. T adds an article in emphasis. 14C: LCS: Code switching. This is a common—and perhaps simple—form of communication for young learners in EFL environments. Their L1 is their 'safe zone'. L2 often appears to be 'unchartered territory'. 17T (and throughout the excerpts): TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T often employs a 'conductor-style' of gesturing, prompting learners to answer. 18B: LCS: Literal translation and appeal for help. Learner attempts (very briefly) to grasp the question's meaning via his L1.</p>	<p>01A/B: 1) external regulation: The two boys position themselves to take a turn. 03C: 2) introjected regulation: C makes a word play on 'volunteer' as 'Valentino'. It's quite an intelligent form of humor, as the boys (Valentinos?) are vying for the correct answer. 05A/07A: 2) introjected regulation: Learner A is adamant about taking a turn. 10C/14C: 2) introjected regulation: Learner C, carrying on her antics, makes a correlation between the baby on the screen (and in the closed question) and learner B. 16B ~ 23B: 2) introjected regulation: B makes a concerted attempt to answer the question correctly. 18B: 3) identified regulation: Although the learner wishes to find confirmation of his translation, it wasn't immediate. The teacher was unwilling to address it, so as not to disrupt the flow of interaction.</p>

<p>21B: ...ing. 22A: Eata. (trying to assist) 23B: ...milk... the... the... ah... The baby eating the... 24T: Oh... (turns away, indicating an incorrect structure) 25C: I volunteer. (raises hand for a turn) 26A: I...I... (also raises hand for a turn) 27T: (gesture indicating that student C should take the turn) 28C: The baby eats... 29T: No, no. (waves arms to indicate another incorrect structure)</p> <p>30A: I volunteer! I volunteer! (leaps from the chair to demand attention) 31T: (points to student A to take the turn) 32C: I volunteer. I... (wants her turn to continue) 33A: The babe is eating the... at... at milka. (teacher gestures indicating an incorrect form) 34C: I volunteer. I volunteer. (wants a turn again) 35C: The baby is eat... The baby is eat... (teacher gestures indicating an incorrect form) 36T: (points to student B to take a turn) 37B: The baby is eating...milk. 38T: You can't eat milk, you have to drink milk. (gesturing the motion of drinking from a glass)</p> <p>39C: I volunteer. I volunteer. (requesting a turn) 40B: (indecipherable attempt to answer again) 41T: What is the baby eating. (gesturing something solid) It has to be um-shik. ('food' in Korean) Food... 42C: I volunteer... (begging for a turn) 43A: I volunteer. (requesting a turn) 44T: You get a chance, yah. (pointing to student C to take a turn) 45C: The baby is eating dog food. 46T: Bingo... (points to student C with both hands indicating that the correct response was given) 47: Bingo! (other students chime in)</p>	<p>24T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. The teacher as 'conductor' indicates the learners 'sour notes'.</p> <p>29T: ROI: The learner's response is rejected by the teacher. The foregoing interaction had been referring to the present progressive form—via the teacher's questions. An attempt was made to guide the learners in the present progressive structural direction and the teacher abandoned student C's turn. She reverted to the simple present form—which was grammatically inappropriate to the question—transferring the turn-taking to the boy's team. It must be emphasized that the learners in this excerpt were on the cusp of understanding the distinction between the progressive and simple present forms at this point in their course of study. The distinction between verb tenses is complex to these young learners. Because of this, there was a lot of teacher control in this excerpt (which is mostly feedback).</p> <p>38T: Explicit correction/Nonlinguistic means. The teacher emphasizes the difference between 'eating' and 'drinking' and mimes the act of drinking.</p> <p>41T: Explicit correction, nonlinguistic means, and literal translation. The teacher emphasizes the that eating is used with food and mimes the solid nature of food.</p> <p>ROI: Obviously, the level of competition is at its height. Beyond this level, there may be negative results—arguments and even fighting—such that the teacher must be aware of this fact from moment to moment. The teacher must also know the students well enough to diffuse such conflicts.</p>	<p>25C: 2) introjected regulation: Raising her hand, learner C wishes to respond.</p> <p>30A and 32C and others: 2) introjected regulation: Learners exhibit enthusiastic, albeit exaggerated, attempts to take a turn. This for of motivation behavior continues throughout this excerpt (indeed, throughout most excerpts) and will be documented as a consistent form of interaction in game-style lesson formats.</p> <p>45C: 2) introjected regulation: B finally answers the question correctly.</p>
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Appendix J
Section 5.9 Excerpt Eight/Group B2-3

Class: ___B2-3___ Time of Interaction (Video): ___1 minute 38 seconds___ Form #___08___ File ___V3-1 (Module 3)___

Notes: The file used in this clip is an activity that presents simple present verbs with questions and answers that pertain to the cartoon pictures. In this episode, the complete closed-to-open question sequence is realized.

Transcription, triadic interaction and notes on motivation behavior (Student: "A, B, C," etc... and Teacher "T")

Transcription	Triadic Interaction	Motivation behaviors
<p>The excerpt opens with an indecipherable utterance in Korean by one of the boys and then an image with the audio question: 00: "What does he write on?"</p> <p>01T: Number... five... 02A: Five... (mimicking the teacher's intonation) 03T: One, two, three, four, five. (counting off the students up to the turn-taker) 04B: No. 05C: Me, me. 06B: He writessss... on the board. (learner is stressing the simple present verb's structure) He writes on the board. (learner B is prompting learner C, the turn-taker, to give the answer, also, the teacher uses pointing and gestures as the students are producing answers)</p> <p>07T: (claps) 08C: He writes on the board. 09T: Ready...Go. (hits the keyboard arrow, the following slide appears) 10D: (indecipherable utterance) 11: (audio track plays: "He writes on the board.") 12: (various chatter in Korean) 13T: Number... (showing the number card to the group) 14C: Number Sixa... 15T: Ooh, I have a difficult... (learner E raises her hand after seeing number card 4) Ahh... (teacher points to learner E as he thinks of an open question) Ahh... When... (points to the question word, "when", which is written on the board) 16B: When, when... onjae (gives the Korean translation of the question word, "When")</p>	<p>00: ROC: The image is of a boy writing "ABC" on a chalkboard over and again. The closed question ("What does he write on?") has just been answered ("He writes on the board."). The image is then drawn upon to pose the open question: "When do you write e-mail?"</p> <p>06B: LFS: Give answer. Learner B is literally feeding the answer to her teammate, learner C. 06T (and throughout the excerpts): TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T often uses gestures and pointing, employing the computer screen, as a tool to guide learner focus.</p> <p>15T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T begins the open question with the question word, "When", which had earlier been written on the board and addressed pedagogically.</p> <p>16B: LCS: Literal translation. B is responding to the teacher.</p>	<p>02A: 2) introjected regulation: A mimics the teacher's turn-taking call. This is common. it is seen by the teacher in this study to be a signal the learner is paying attention</p> <p>06B: 2) introjected regulation: B shows that she knows the correct form—present tense plural verb structure—by emphasizing the final s in 'writes'. Also, hints of 5) intrinsic motivation. It is hard to argue against the perception that B is participating wholeheartedly.</p> <p>08C: 2) introjected regulation: C answers the closed question correctly, albeit, through learner B's efforts. Once again, learner B's actions could be seen as exhibiting hints of 4) integrated regulation. The real question is whether or not learner C actually benefits from this form of answering giving or not.</p> <p>16B: 1) external regulation: B is responding to T's apparent call for a confirmation of the understanding of the question word, "When".</p>

<p>17T: Onjae... (confirms the translation) When do you write e-mail? 18D: (more chatter) 19B: Tim... She don't write e-mail (gesturing and addressing the teacher).</p> <p>20T: Okay... (gesturing to encourage the learners to continue with the idea) 21B: I don't write e-mail (prompting the turn-taker, learner E)</p> <p>22E: I don't write e-mail (looking to B for confirmation)? 23B: Uh Huh (as in "that's right"). 24E: (teacher gestures the student to answer as a statement) I don't write e-mail. 25T: Why not? 26A: Write. 27F: Wae? ("Why?" in Korean) 28C: (indecipherable in Korean) 29B: She... (gesturing as if typing) not...</p> <p>30T: Doesn't... 31B: computer... She doesn't, she doesn't computer. 32T: Typing? (using the classroom keyboard as a prop to simulate typing) I don't type? 33D: I don't have... (attempting to offer clarification) 34T: I don't have a computer? (addressing learner E) 35E: Yes. 36T: Ahh 37: (learners talking among themselves in Korean, attempting to assist learner E with a more accurate answer) 38B: He, she has computer but, she's... (gesturing with index fingers pointing up) 39T: Mom... 40B: Mom... 41T: Doesn't... (teacher picks up on the answer learner B is trying to produce, crossing the hands in a 'do-not-like' gesture) 42B: Doesn't... 43T: Like... 44B: Like... 45T: E-mail... 46B: E-mail... Ah... 47T: Ahh... Okay, I see... good answer...</p>	<p>20T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means.</p> <p>06B: LFS: Give answer. Once again, learner B is literally feeding the answer to another one of her teammates, learner E.</p> <p>22E: LCS: Appeal for help.</p> <p>27F: LCS: Literal translation.</p> <p>29B: LCS: Nonlinguistic means. literally miming the action of typing. 30T: TFS: Explicit correction. T corrects plural 32T: TFS: Elicitation.</p> <p>37: LCS: Appeal for help: Learners are in negotiation among themselves using L1, attempting to assist the turn-taker. 38B: LCS: Nonlinguistic means. The learner points upward, hinting at a higher authority (e.g., the learner's mother).</p> <p>41/43/45T: TCS: Nonlinguistic means. T gestures in an attempt to assist the learner in producing an answer in English. Also a form of PAS/TFS: Elicitation. T encourages the learner to complete the utterance.</p> <p>ROI: This excerpt exemplifies the ideal triadic interactive event in the classroom. There is a successful closed-to-open question sequence. There is a regular flow of learner feedback and communication techniques, and there is follow-up discussion. The follow-up discussion is the ultimate aim of the</p>	<p>19B: 2) introjected regulation: B is absconding learner E's turn. At the same time, B performs this behavior in the service of her team/teammates.</p> <p>21B: introjected regulation. Nearly identical to 06B above.</p> <p>22E: 3) identified regulation. Learner E seeks a confirmation from learner B that her answer is correct. 24E: introjected regulation. Nearly identical to 08C above. 25T to the end of excerpt. The motivation in this segment seems to step outside the game-style lesson format. The learners are simply trying to communicate an idea to the teacher. Exactly where this falls on the motivation behavior continuum is a matter of speculation.</p> <p>37 ~ 47: 4) integrated regulation. The negotiation in this segment is an obvious co-construction in communication (beginning mostly in L1). The answer had been given (21B) and accepted in the game-style format (points were awarded after this segment transpired) The conversation was then perpetuated by the participants' desire to explain why learner E doesn't write e-mail.</p>
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	classroom model while employing triadic interactive means and modes of teaching.	
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